From a Psychoanalytic Narrative Case Study to Quantitative Single-Case Research

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Abstract

Narrative case studies concerning the psycho- 19 analytic process date back more than a cen- 20 tury; Breuer and Freud were the pioneers of 21 this research path. A great shift in methodol- 22 ogy occurred after the development of 23 computers that could work with both text 24 and numbers. On the one hand, it became 25 possible to store detailed, verbatim protocols 26 of therapy sessions. On the other hand, it was 27 possible to analyze derived quantitative data 28 by using sophisticated statistical procedures. 29 This is exemplified in three different methods 30 that analyze different psychoanalytical cases. 31 We conclude by mentioning that research on 32 the psychoanalytic process has to start with 33 clinical experience, which can be used when 34 introducing new observational tools to check 35 for the appropriateness of each tool. This is 36 made possible by the synergetic work of peo- 37 ple and processes that were mentioned above. 38

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19.1 The Psychoanalytic Narrative Case Study

Historically, in psychoanalysis' oral tradition and 41 loosely documented cases, vignettes were used 42 as the principal means of reporting the insights 43 that originated from the therapeutic situation. 44 Breuer's (1893–1895) reporting on a young 45

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lady's (Anna O.) cloudy talking nourished in his colleague Freud the idea that one should tell these clinical observations as stories to accurately depict what had transpired.

Freud was aware of the imperfections of his case histories. In his Studies on Hysteria, we detect a note of both amazement and selfjustification in his remark that indicated that his case histories "read like short stories" and "lack the serious stamp of science" (Freud 1895, p. 160). Yet, in the very next sentence, he also rejects artistic ambitions: "I must console myself with the reflection that the nature of the subject is evidently responsible for this, rather than any preference of my own" (ibid).

The model that Freud suggested was creatively continued by the growing number of psychoanalysts who reported the discoveries from the consulting room, mainly in the form of case vignettes (e.g., Ferenczi 1927). Until today, in the psychoanalytic literature, the "vignette" is still the primary form of presentation. A vignette is characterized by unity, subtlety, and refinement and serves to illustrate typical psychodynamic connections. In regard to vignettes, implications for the analyst's therapeutic actions are secondary when compared to this focus of interest. Therefore, they hardly describe how the analyst actually works and what he feels, thinks, and does. Therefore, it seems useful to at least distinguish between case histories that focus on the psychodynamic properties of a disorder and treatment reports that focus on the technicality of how to perform the therapeutic work.

The genre of treatment reports is clearly characterized by a quantitative increase over the last few decades, which was detailed by Kächele (1981; see also Kächele et al. 2009, Chap. 3). More analysts have been willing to make their clinical work accessible to readers (e.g., Klein 1961; Winnicott 1972; Dewald 1972; Thomä 1961). Providing adequate presentational critical discussion within the profession could be on sound footing.

Thus, psychoanalysis became a narrative science by using narration that led to narrative truth (Forrester 1980; Spence 1982). To highlight the importance of this methodological decision, one has to imagine what the development of chemis- 94 try would be like if chemists would have started 95 the habit of providing stories about what they had 96 observed in their test tubes: a science of chemis- 97 try based on reported colors, of blue and red and 98 green reactions in the little tubes after having 99 performed a certain experiment. Imagine a sci- 100 ence of musicology with musicians sharing their 101 most personal experiences by writing case 102 histories or by letting consumers speak about 103 their emotional involvement after a piano con- 104 certo. What is wrong with such an approach? It is 105 possible that a person could build a science of 106 musical experience by collecting a large sample 107 of these reported subjective testimonies. This 108 approach would not work for chemistry, which 109 is why the alchemist tried in vain to find the 110 recipe for how to make gold. One should remem- 111 ber the work of the brothers Grimm, the two 112 professors from Göttingen in Germany, who sys- 113 tematically started out collecting orally transmit- 114 ted fairy tales. After many decades, a well- 115 developed field of fairy-tale research exists that 116 uses highly sophisticated methods to analyze the 117 available large collections of fairy tales from all 118 over the world (Propp 1928).

Until today, we encountered prominent 120 authors who emphasized that the clinical encounter was best reported via the narrative (Michels 122 2000). Indeed, there are good reasons for 123 maintaining the tradition of clinical reporting 124 because it conveys the subjective evidence of 125 the reporting person (e.g., a therapist or a 126 patient). Therefore, describing the origin and 127 changing functions of case studies have become 128 a topic that is discussed by qualitatively minded 129 researchers who examine the place of novellas as 130 a scientific form of representation and communi- 131 cation (Frommer and Rennie 2001).

The problem that we face is that in psychoanalysis, each of the diverse psychoanalytic 134 cultures often remains within its own confines 135 and largely ignores case studies from other 136 branches of the discipline (Luyten et al. 2006). Therefore, more research-minded psychoanalysts have explicitly indicated the following:

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Today, the historically fertile narrative procedure of Freud is no longer able to carry the responsibility for the existence of psychoanalysis, even though they still are still a major tool for didactic and identity formation of the members of the analytic community because case stories may be a rich material means of communication (Stuhr 2004, p. 63).

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19.2 **Empirical Single-Case Studies**

In 1971, Wallerstein and Sampson concluded that it was necessary to conduct formalized and systematized examinations of the therapeutic process in psychoanalysis: "Our central conviction is that the informal case study, in spite of its forceful power of conviction, has certain realistic and obvious scientific limitations" (p. 47). In the same year, Luborsky and Spence (1971) asked the psychoanalytic community to provide "specimen cases":

Ideally, two conditions should be met: the case should be clearly defined as analytic..., and the data should be recorded, transcribed and indexed to maximize accessibility and visibility (1971, p. 426).

A few years later, Hartvig Dahl introduced the term "the specimen hour" (Dahl et al. 1988) to provide for the interested public the transcript of session five of the completely tape-recorded treatment of Mrs. C. This implied that there are not only "specimen dreams" in psychoanalysis, which is a term that Freud coined, but there are also specimen cases that have to be studied in their own rights. In our view, the decisive criterion that should be used to attribute the label "specimen" should be its public accessibility, which allows for critical, nonpartisan discussion. The development of textbanks has become part of this requirement (Mergenthaler and Kächele 1988).

However, the number of papers that call for formalized single-case research far outnumbers the number of papers that report on such detailed single-case studies (Leuzinger-Bohleber 1995).

Single-case studies are not confined to tape recording; any systematic gathering of treatmentrelevant material can be used to document a treatment (see Chap. 20 with regard to the possibility of considering the narrative text that 186 is produced by clinicians in regard to their treatment being a form of secondary qualitative data 188 that needs to be further analyzed by using the 189 specific procedures of qualitative data analysis). 190 Detailed clinical case reports are, in our view, 191 necessary and act as a bridge to the more 192 formalized systematic case studies. Given their material qualities, they could have been and still 194 can be the object of more formal empirical studies. A few of the detailed case reports that are 196 mentioned above provide sufficient material that 197 can be used as a starting point in formalized 198 evaluations.

The introduction of tape recording into the 200 psychoanalytic treatment situation opened a 201 new window in the process that was ardently 202 debated for a long time, and for most analysts, 203 it is still controversial. Audio recordings of the 204 psychoanalytic dialogue do pose a number of 205 substantial clinical and ethical problems, 206 although, in regard to scientific reasons, they 207 provide true progress (Kächele et al. 1988). 208 They allow an independent, third-person per- 209 spective on the analytic, interpersonal transac- 210 tion; in regard to the analyst's and the patient's 211 internal modes of experience, they are silent, but 212 ideally, they may be able to provide an estima- 213 tion of this based on the participant's testimony. 214 The recording of these cases has led to the crea- 215 tion of many theoretical and technical issues.

Overviews of the methodology were 217 presented by Kazdin (1982), Hilliard (1993), 218 Iwakabe and Gazzola (2009), and Fonagy and 219 Moran (1993). The latter summarized the topic 220 succinctly:

Individual case studies attempt to establish the relationship between intervention and other variables through repeated systematic observation and measurementThe observation of variability across time within a single case combines a clinical interest to respond appropriately to changes within the patient, and a research interest to find support for a causal relationship between intervention and changes in variables of theoretical interest. The attention to repeated observations, more than any other single factor, permits knowledge to be drawn from the individual case and has the power to eliminate plausible

alternative explanations. (Fonagy and Moran 1993, p. 65)

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The most prominent case in the Anglo-American literature is the case of Mrs. C who 238 was treated by Hartvig Dahl (as we know by now). Weiss, Sampson, and their research team 240 (1986) reported on a host of experiments that were performed on the case material. Within 242 this team, G. Silberschatz was an important 243 member who was guided by Dahl in his doctoral 244 dissertation in New York on Mrs. C in 1978. 245 Years later, Dahl presented his FRAMES con-246 cept on the material of session five (1988); his colleague Bucci (1988, 1997) approached the 248 case from a different vantage point by identifying 249 emotional structures. Another major work on 250 Mrs. C was the application of the Jones Psychotherapy Process Q-Set (PQS) as a method for systematic inquiry of the whole process (Jones 253 and Windholz 1990).

19.3 **Psychoanalytic Process**

For many years, the Ulm Psychoanalytic Process Research Study Group has implemented a program that examines the material bases of psychoanalytic therapy. We were and are convinced that only the careful exploration of the patient's interaction with the analyst can illustrate the central aspects of psychoanalytic treatment and enable an empirically driven theory of the process.

However, we encounter a multiplicity of meanings and models regarding the notion of the "psychoanalytic process" (Compton 1990). Opinions differ regarding whether models have to be tested, but language games are useful for those who use these models (Wittgenstein 1921/ 2014). Our investigations were guided by a working model of the process, which encompasses all of the steps of the process, from the start of a patient/analyst contact to the termination of this relationship. The methodological specificity of the psychoanalytic process is produced by the analytic method, which prescribes a specific discourse—with evenly hovering attention and free association being functional units. The impact of these rules on

both of these parts sets a process in motion that 280 transforms the covered processes within the 281 patient (e.g., transference dispositions) into rela- 282 tionship patterns between the patient and the 283 analyst.

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In psychoanalysis, similar to other fields of 285 human intervention, theories exist about how 286 the process should be supported empirically; at 287 present, these thoughts are used to a much greater 288 extent as instruments for theory criticism. The 289 process model of psychoanalytic therapy as an 290 "ongoing, temporally unlimited focal therapy with a changing focus," which was described in 292 the Ulm textbook *Psychoanalytic Practice* by 293 Thomä and Kächele (1987, Chap. 9), has been posited as a claim that is based on one's own 295 clinical experience. After all, the aim suggests guidelines regarding how psychoanalytic processes are currently conceived and practiced.

Our starting point for this conception was the 299 awareness of various technical elements, such as 300 working alliance, transference and countertransference phenomena, and resistance, whose 302 combinations then generated the different forms 303 of psychoanalytic therapy. The manifold thera- 304 peutic processes that exist in reality between the 305 poles of macroprocess and microprocess reveal 306 fluid boundaries in the macro field, which 307 comprises so-called psychoanalysis proper, analytic psychotherapy, and short therapy in the field 309 of individual therapies (Kächele 2010). These 310 generic descriptions were questioned when the 311 criterion, which is unable to be specified exter- 312 nally, of the "analytical process" was introduced 313 on the basis of variables that concerned the 314 setting. For instance, the extensively published 315 case of Dewald (1972) was described by two out 316 of three training analysts of the American Psy- 317 choanalytic Association as being psychoanalysis, 318 but by the third only described it as analytical 319 psychotherapy. Even the use of the couch by no 320 means guarantees that the process will be 321 described as "psychoanalytic" when it exists by 322 virtue of functioning transference/countertrans- 323 ference (Schachter and Kächele 2010). Process 324 models at a micro level, which is formulated, for 325 example, by von Zeppelin (1987) who used the 326 cognitive-affective regulation system for intra- 327 psychic processes, are claimed to be valid for 328

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all of the psychoanalytically oriented therapeutic approaches (Kächele 2010). 330

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In its use of the focus concept, the Ulm process model primarily aims to have a medium level of description. The concept of "focus" is semantically quite diffuse because we also speak of "focusing" and may be referring to relatively short-term processes. The focus concept that was introduced by French (1952) formed a part of his cognitively oriented analysis of dreams; this concept was used by Seitz (1966) in the Chicago consensus study, in which French was also involved. Here, the focus came to be seen as the least common multiple, which was understood clinically by the concept of "prevailing transference." An interactive, process-oriented conception of the focus was crystallized from the work that was developed in Malan's focal therapy workshop (1963, p. 272). Our conception of the focus relates to a structure that extends over a longer period of time and involves a longer sequence of sessions. For quite some time, the Ulm Psychoanalytic Process Research Study Group has been working on the empirical identification of such structures. A number of methods at different levels of abstraction from the clinical work have been used for this purpose. It seemed obvious to organize research along poles that stretch from the traditional case history to very formalized methods, which correspond to qualitative approaches and hard-nosed quantitative methods (Kächele 1992; see Chap. 13 for an overview of quantitative approaches to the study of the psychotherapy process).

19.4 Methods

We shall illustrate empirical approaches in regard to our recorded cases: 365

First, we introduce our method of systematic longitudinal description and Dahl's (1983) evaluation strategy of the therapist's topic index (see Sect. 19.4.1). Second, we refer to the systematic analysis of the method of Core Conflictual Relationship Theme (CCRT; Luborsky and Crits-Christoph 1998) and its Leipzig-Ulm category system (CCRT-LU; Albani et al. 2008) in a longitudinal fashion (see Sect. 19.4.2). Third, we

present results that relate to the empirical identi- 375 fication of process phases on the basis of systematic clinical ratings that are given to the first half 377 of another psychoanalytic case (Kächele 2009) 378 (see Sect. 19.4.3). Finally, a future strategy that is 379 based on computer-aided text analysis will be mentioned as an outlook to future sophisticated approaches in psychoanalytic process research.

19.4.1 Systematic Longitudinal Descriptions

Systematic longitudinal descriptions require 385 quite a different way of approaching the clinical 386 material that is in contrast to the episodic, highly selected narrations that are at the heart of 388 vignettes. The decisive feature resides in a preselection of points of interest from the researcher's 390 point of view and of a sampling procedure, which 391 is independent of the clinician's point of view. 392 The raw material may consist of session notes or be available via transcripts. The complex array of 394 interactions of a treatment process is considered 395 with the help of these preset points of view: these 396 clearly represent the researcher's interests. They might vary from case to case. For example, for 398 patient "Christian Y," anxiety and transference 399 were the key notions; for "Amalia X," hirsutism 400 was the key notion (male type of hairiness), 401 along with the development of her quest for 402 heterosexual relations, that was of prominent 403 interest. The material basis of these systematic descriptions was based on verbatim transcripts of 405 different samples that were created during the 406 history of the purposes of different studies.

First, the contiguous groups of 5 sessions that 408 started the blocks of 50 sessions were transcribed 409 (sample a1 below). Second, the sample (a1) was 410 enhanced by the sample (a2), which led to a joint 411 sample (a) that consisted of the contiguous 412 groups of 5 sessions that started the blocks of 413 25 sessions. The strategy (b) had the goal of 414 investigating the subsequence of sessions with 415

¹ Throughout this text, the patients are named in concordance with our procedure that is explained by Thomä and Kächele (1987).

regular distances. In contrast, the strategy (c) targeted the irregular distances; the aim was to exclude the bias that was caused by potentially possible periodically occurring events. Finally, the strategies that were mentioned under strategy 420 (d) were used for particular research questions. 421 The concluding sample of available transcribed sessions is a union of these particular samples.

Sampling Strategies (Examples) 424

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- (a) Sessions 1–5, 26–30, 51–55, 76-80, 425 101-105, 126-130, ..., 501-505, 513-517. 426
 - 1-5, 51-55, (a1) Sessions 101-105,151–155,
 - 126-130, (a2) Sessions 26–30, 76–80. 176–180,
- (b) Sessions 1, 11, 21, 31, 41, 51, 61, 71, 81, 91, 431 101, 432
- (c) Blocks of limited numbers of sessions that 433 are drawn in random distance from one 434 another out of the total population of 435 sessions. 436
- 437 (d) Selected session segments, such as dreams, were transcribed. 438

The task of systematically reading the verbatim records of the sessions and then writing up condensed summaries of the content and transactions of the sessions still remains very close to clinical narration. When third party, 443 uninformed people produce these descriptions, we feel that they can procure a fairly reliable perspective of what happened. This clinicaldescriptive step permits an evaluation that is under certain formal constraints: the report is no longer dictated by the narrator's epic perspective that characterizes the traditional case study approach. Instead, by using a systematic sample, the assumption is made that repeated descriptions in fixed time intervals capture the decisive processes of change that have occurred.

We have prepared a fairly extensive report on 455 456 our first case of Christian Y through the joint endeavors of the treating analyst, a second psy-457 choanalyst, and a clinical psychologist who 458 worked together through group discussion 459 (Kächele 2009, Chap. 4). A similar systematic description was prepared for our second research case, patient Amalia X, by two graduate students. They focused on systematic changes of the patient's transference and other aspects of the 464 treatment (Kächele et al. 2009, Chap. 4). 465

Two medical students succeeded in creating 466 the report regarding the story of Amalia X's 467 analysis by repeatedly reading the 110 sessions 468 that represented one-fifth of the analysis. There- 469 fore, their narrative achieved an acceptable 470 "interreader" reliability according to the treating 471 psychoanalyst and other colleagues who worked 472 with the material (Leuzinger-Bohleber 1989). 473 We think that they have achieved more than 474 narrative truth.

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The material that was available after such an 476 effort was generated into a report; the volumi- 477 nous collected verbatim records (thousands of 478 pages) were elegantly compressed into a readable 479 hundred-page account. Such a booklet can serve 480 many purposes in addition to it being a valuable 481 achievement in itself. It provides easy access 482 regarding the orientation for the whole case, 483 and it is more detailed and more systematic 484 than a traditional case history, which tends to 485 be more novella-like. However, the systematic 486 description record marked the orderly progress 487 of things. One can rearrange the qualitative data 488 by concatenating all of the transference 489 descriptions, and by doing this, one can gain a 490 good view regarding the development of major 491 transference issues, which are investigated 492 through the use of the CCRT. Based on these analyses, the following titles for groups of sessions that were established by the sampling 495 strategy (a, see above) were formulated. 496

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1-5	The analysis as confession	497	
26-30	The analysis as an examination		
51-55	The bad, cold mother		
76–80	Submission and secret defiance		
101-105	Searching for her own rules	501	
116-120	The disappointing father and the	502	
	helpless daughter	503	
151-155	The cold father and the daughter's	504	
	desire for identification	505	
176-180	Ambivalence in the father	506	
	relationship	507	
201-205	The father as seducer or judge of	508	
	moral standards	509	
226-230	Does he love me—or not?	510	
251-255	Even my father cannot change me	511	
	into a boy	512	

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513	276-280	The Cinderella feeling		
514	301-305	The poor girl and the rich king		
515	326-330	If you reject me, I'll reject you		
516	351-355	The powerless love to the mighty		
517		father and jealousy		
518	376-380	Separation for not being deserted		
519	401-405	Discovery of her capacity to criticize		
520	426-430	I'm only second to my mother, first-		
521		born are preferred		
522	451–455	Hate for the giving therapist		
523	476-480	The art of loving consists in		
524		tolerating love and hate		
525	501-505	Be first in saying goodbye		
526	513-517	Departure symphony		

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It is not by chance that these descriptions sound similar to titles of fairy tales. At any given point in treatment, the relationship between the patient and the analyst is couched in a narrative pattern that clinicians are very apt to spot. Systematic clinical descriptions thus rely on the very capacity of narrative accounting, but by using the systematic sampling technique, these accounts change in their nature. Systematic clinical description is a way to recount the treatment in a mixed mode. To introduce some objectivity into the narrative accounts that are based on verbatim records, we recommend using two readers who are to agree about the information in their accounts.

A similar task was performed by other students who went through the video recordings of the 29 sessions of the patient "DER STU-DENT" many times and wrote down an account of the treatment in a short form (one page per session) and a long form (three pages per session), which have been distributed within the PEP study group² to provide a shared basis for detailed discussion of the results that use different methods (Kächele et al. 1990a, b).

19.4.1.1 Topic Index

For the determination of thematic structures, it is 553 necessary to be certain of what is being 554 discussed. An initial convenient approach might 555 be to use the therapist's process notes; however, 556 a more exact observation should be based on the 557 evaluation of video or audiotape recordings by an 558 observer who was not involved in the process. Dahl introduced the method of the Topic Index to 560 psychoanalytic process research in a seminal 561 paper in 1972; this became an important source 562 for our ideas regarding how to organize a working model of focus-oriented process research.

The method of the Topic Index assumes that 565 patterns of thematic work can be represented by 566 configurational analyses of the statistical patterns 567 of single topics that are a part of the conversation. By using the therapist's detailed knowledge 569 of his patient, "the analyst had identified 570 58 variables of specific interest in the case and 571 had coded the presence of each of these in 572 abbreviated transcripts of 363 sessions" (Dahl 573 1983, p. 42). Through the use of the statistical 574 technique of factor analysis, Dahl could extract 575 common variability among several of these clin- 576 ical topics, which were then represented as 577 descriptive mathematical organizations. The six 578 factors then were named, taking into account the 579 leading topics. A graphical representation 580 portrayed the type of information that resulted 581 from this procedure. Thus, the descriptive rich- 582 ness of a clinical case description was replaced 583 by quantitative preciseness, which allowed for 584 the determination of *phases* and *foci*.

It may be of historical interest that the case 586 was treated by an experienced analyst who, for 587 personal reasons, had to stop the treatment, and 588 the patient was handed over to a young female 589 candidate. The findings of Dahl's study clearly demonstrate the downhill course of the 591 treatment.

We first used this approach for a comparative 593 descriptive study of a patient's and her analyst's 594 topics over the course of the psychoanalytic case 595 of Amalia X: again, the two medical students 596 rather than the analyst extracted from the verba- 597 tim transcripts the presence or absence of topics 598

² The PEP study group that was directed by Klaus Grawe and Horst Kächele "Psychotherapeutische Einzelfallprozessforschun" investigated two cases, one from Ulm (The Student) and one from Berne (The Forward) with quite a variety of process methods.

in a sample of evenly distributed blocks of five sessions over the whole course of treatment $(22 \times 5 \text{ sessions})$ and weighted them in a simple fashion. The resulting graph is a map of thematic 602 events and was used for the purpose of descrip-603 tively mapping out the expansion of focal themes (Thomä 1975).

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We also used this approach for a systematic description of the video-recorded, psychodynamic short-term therapy (DER STUDENT), again by using two external observers who recorded the presence or absence of the tailored topics every 10 min. This procedure led to a fine-grained web of a 5 \times 29 session topic index for 10 topics. A first version of the description was supplemented by the therapist's comments (Kächele et al. 1999, Unpublished manuscript).

The summarizing technique regarding the interrelations of the various topics is a special issue that is still open because a correlational approach implies that the correlations between the variables remain stable over time (see Luborsky's comment to the P-technique 1995). Stable correlations only report on the change of factors' scores; however, they miss the aim of treatment, which relates to changing connections between topics. Therefore, other statistical models have to be used; as Russell and Czogalik (1989) demonstrated, Markov models can be useful for the analysis of the interlinking of thematic sequences.

19.4.2 Core Conflictual Relationship Theme 631

The second approach for identifying focal areas 632 was first performed by a continuous analysis of 633 the sessions of the case THE STUDENT by using Luborsky's CCRT method, with original cate-635 gory system of Luborsky and Barber. The results 636 showed that ramifications of the wish formulation can be found over the course of the 638 29 sessions, and these relate to the clinically formulated focus topics (Kächele and Albani 2001). This same strategy was applied after studying a large longitudinal sample of the psyof 643 choanalytic case Amalia X

et al. 2003). The study used the hierarchal system 644 CCRT-LU of relationship categories. 645

The method of Core Conflictual Relationship 646 Theme (CCRT) was invented in the 1970s by 647 Lester Luborsky, and it was developed by him 648 and his collaborators at Pennsylvania University. 649 The method was intended for analyzing narrative 650 material in therapy session transcripts. Within 651 the relationship episodes, three types of relationship elements were able to be identified and 653 coded, according to the three lists of standard 654 categories. The most frequent elements 655 constituted the core theme.

The development of the system CCRT-LU at 657 the universities of Leipzig and Ulm began with 658 the aim to rectify certain minor discrepancies in 659 the original CCRT category system. This led to 660 the complete redesign of the system structure 661 (Albani et al. 2008; www.ccrt-lu.org)—logically 662 unified is the second meaning of the acronym 663 suffix LU. The rich database that was available 664 made it possible to analyze the absolute 665 frequencies of CCRT-LU components, as well 666 as the complex structure of the data.

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For the first time, the process of a long-term 668 psychoanalytic therapy was studied with the 669 CCRT method. The relatively large number of 670 reactions on the subject when compared to the 671 reactions for other CCRT studies may be because 672 this was a psychoanalytic therapy and the patient 673 was particularly encouraged to reflect her 674 feelings and thoughts. Though the negative 675 reactions of the objects and of the patient still 676 predominate the final phase of the therapy, a 677 significant increase in the positive reactions of 678 the patient became apparent. The patient also 679 described the reactions of the objects more posi- 680 tively at the end of the analysis, but these 681 changes could not be statistically established. 682 The component "subject-related wishes and 683 reactions of the subject" reveals that over the 684 course of the therapy, the patient was able to 685 expand her freedom of action and acquire new 686 competencies, and her depressive symptoms 687 decreased. Starting in therapy phase VII, Amalia 688 X (out of XXII) was in a position to perceive and 689 express aggressive wishes, and starting in ther- 690 apy phase XV, these gain relevance in action. 691

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Particularly, when this was contrasted with the dominant feelings of dissatisfaction and fearfulness at the inception of the therapy, the change in 694 Amalia X became apparent. 695

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Alongside the basic theme manifested in each of the absolute highest frequency categories ("nuclear conflict"), each of the therapy phases also showed typical categories that characterize thematic foci in the sense of French's focal conflicts and that operationalized by the CCRT-LU Thus, the CCRT-LU method makes it possible to structure this material by content.

In contrast with a clinical description, which uses metaphorical language to highlight a theme according to the subjective assessment of the clinical judges, investigation of the therapy phases by the CCRT-LU method makes a more differentiated (and less subjective) analysis of the themes possible, which is observed in therapy phase III. In the clinical description, the "bad mother" takes center stage, while in the CCRT-LU evaluation, other aspects emerge: "I feel good" (regarding the patient's newly gained/ regained freedom of action). While the clinical description is limited to the transference configuration, the CCRT-LU method makes it possible to access interpersonal aspects inside and outside of the therapeutic relationship.

The CCRT method distinguishes different dimensions of relationship elements. This can be a reported reaction (R) that happened or the wish of the patient (W). Reactions are divided into the reaction of other relationship objects (RO) or of the patient—subject (RS). The hierarchical system of CCRT-LU goes a step further: ROS are the reactions of objects towards the subject, while RSO is the opposite; ROO or RSS are self-reactions of objects or subjects.

The strengths, as well as the limits, of the CCRT-LU method stem from its confinement to reports on relationship experiences by the patient herself. In other words, the investigation remains limited to those relationship experiences that the patient perceived and verbalized. The method provides no direct way of focusing on unconscious material or of assessing mechanisms at particular transcript points. However, the patients follow—often uncon- 740 sciously—the repetitive schemas when describ- 741 ing the course of relationships. Hence, the 742 evaluation remains very close to the clinical 743 material, though it does reflect intrapsychic processes in the narratives of the interactions.

In the case of Amalia X, one central relation- 746 ship pattern was found, which was represented by the most frequent CCRT-LU categories and 748 could be seen as a "basic theme" or Freud's 749 "Klischee" (Freud 1912):

- W: Amalia X wants to be understood by others. 751
- RO: Others are unreliable, dominant, and 752 refusing.
- RS: She, by herself, responds with anxiety and 754 feelings of guilt and draws herself back.

Moreover, the CCRT-LU category system 756 allows for the determination of specific relationship patterns with different objects, including the 758 instant, repetitive schemes of Amalia X, the 759 teacher, with her school class (Albani 760 et al. 2008):

- WOS: She wants to be accepted and respected 762 by her pupils.
- WSO: She will be a good teacher for them.
- ROS: The pupils are undisciplined and do not 765 respect her. 766
- RSO: She manages to discipline the class 767 successfully. 768
- RSS: When reflecting upon this at home, she 769 is depressed and disappointed by herself.

Apart from this, we captured object specific 771 relationship patterns by using alternative methods 772 of analysis (for detailed descriptions, see Pokorny 773 For instance, similarities descriptions between her relationships with her 775 father, her analyst, and her partner were found.

In this way, parallels between the patient's 777 descriptions of her relationship with the therapist 778 and other objects can be examined by using the 779 CCRT method. Thus, the method makes it possi- 780 ble to capture structural aspects of the clinical 781 transference concept. Nevertheless, the interactive aspects of the work on transference and the 783 concomitant countertransference are not captured by the CCRT method.

In regard to the CCRT method itself, it is not 786 possible to clarify how therapeutic changes arise. 787

On the whole, the relationship between the patient and her therapist seems to have been satisfying and positive for her—no other relation-790 ship is described with such a high rate of positive 791 reactions towards the object of interaction. 792

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This study shows that the CCRT method makes it possible to capture clinically relevant interpersonal aspects of the psychoanalytic process from the patient's point of view, which supports the Ulm process model. The analyst's contribution, however, is reflected only in the patient's narratives regarding her relationship with the therapist. Use of the CCRT method provides a way to structure the clinical material, develop clinical hypotheses, and check therapeutic focus during the course of therapy. This method is easily learned for clinical application, and the time that is required in formulating the psychodynamic connections for clinical use is minimal. Therefore, the method can accompany treatment over time.

The CCRT method can also be used to analyze manifest dream contents along the treatment process, which we demonstrated in a study on the psychoanalytic case of a patient with an anxiety neurosis who was called "Franziska" (Albani et al. 2001a, b). Differences between relationship patterns from episodes in dreams and from narratives apart of the dream session could be demonstrated. Relationship patterns in dream episodes revealed wishes more explicitly, and the most frequent responses were characterized by wish fulfillment and satisfying relationship experiences. However, narratives' objects were described as being distant and reluctant, and the patient felt anxious and nervous.

19.4.3 Clinical-Guided Judgments

Our third approach to the identification of the-825 matic foci refers to the application of scaled 826 assessments of clinical concepts in the case of 827 the patient Christian Y (Kächele 2009). The basis 828 of our study consisted of 11×5 sessions, which 829 were selected at intervals of 50 sessions. The 830 status of the treatment was evaluated by the systematic description of the process on the basis of the five-session periods. This joint clinical discussion of the research group was preceded by a 834 classification of the 55 sessions, in random order, 835 in accordance with the following clinically relevant concepts, which had to be rated on fivepoint Likert scales with regard to their intensity 838 and degree of consciousness:

- = Positive transference
- = Negative transference 841 = Separation anxiety 842

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- = Castration anxiety 843
- = Guilt anxiety
- = Shame anxiety 845 = Diffuse anxiety 846
- = Insight 847 = Working alliance 848

Evaluation of this guided clinical rating was 849 carried out by three judges; the therapist was one

of these judges. By using the factor analysis, the 851 following five factors were identified:

Factor 1: Working alliance (assessed by rater B 853 and C) 854

Factor 2: Positive transference as a defense 855 against separation anxiety

Factor 3: Diffuse anxiety with aggressive 857 transference 858

Factor 4: Working alliance (assessed by the 859 analyst)

Factor 5: Shame and guilt anxiety

On the basis of our detailed clinical knowl- 862 edge and of the understanding of the course of 863 treatment that was achieved by the research 864 group in the systematic description study, we 865 tentatively formulated four focus-related periods 866 of treatment (we call them "periods" here to distinguish them from "phases" described above):

Period 1 (sessions 1–5, 51–55, 101–105): main- 870 tenance of defense

Period 2 (sessions 151–155, 201–205): intensifi- 872 cation and access to consciousness of the early 873 positive object relation in the transference

Period 3 (sessions 251–255, 301–305, 351–355): 875 alternation of pregenital-positive clinging 876 transference and aggressive distancing in the 877

Period 4 (sessions 401–405, 451–455, 501–505): 879 consolidation of the aggressive transference

Observed	Predicted period					
period	1	2	3	4	Total	Correct
1	12	0	2	1	15	80 %
2	2	6	1	1	10	60 %
3	3	4	5	3	15	33 %
4	5	1	0	9	15	60 %
Total	22	11	8	14	55	58 %

Table 19.1 Classification matrix of the discriminant analysis in the case of Christian Y

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Period 1 is characterized predominantly by a friendly attitude on the part of the patient, who approaches the analytical process with a great deal of interest and seemingly good defenses, which is judged based on the verbal exchange within the sessions. The problem of separation emerges only incipiently in the transference; the aggressive transference is predominantly unconscious and not very intense. Feelings of guilt and shame alternate in their intensity.

Period 2 is characterized predominantly by the mobilization of the separation problem in the analytic situation; aggressive aspects of the transference are manifested only in individual sessions.

In period 3, the therapeutic aim of reactivating aggressive impulses in the transference, which underlines the severe anxieties, is achieved for the first time; at the same time, the alternation with a symbiotic-clinging position is marked.

In period 4, one can discern a perceptible decline of the friendly, conciliatory object relation, which is replaced by an openly negative aggressive transference.

It should be noted that this study was performed when the treatment was not yet completed; therefore, future periods are to be expected when the entire course of analysis that lasts for approximately 1,200 sessions is studied.

The clinically derived focus formulations were then checked by a formal algorithm. By using the five factors of the rating investigation, discriminant analysis was used to calculate linear functions by which the membership of the individual session within the four periods can be predicted (see Table 19.1). In this way, each of the 55 h is assigned by the discriminant analysis 918 to one of the four periods. The comparison of the 919 predicted and real period membership confirmed 920 the relative homogeneity of each of the four 921 periods in terms of the sessions that were 922 assigned to them. 923

The overall rate of the correct prediction, 924 58 %, is 2.3 times higher than the 25 % that is 925 expected by random rating. With the exception 926 of period 3, we find a dominating type of session 927 in each period; the results of period 3 clearly 928 indicate that all four types of sessions are parsed 929 over this period, which indicates that there was 930 no stable topical preference. Let us note that this 931 prediction was based on the values of the five 932 factors only, which correspond clinically to the 933 focal schemes, which we created based on our 934 joint clinical discussion. 935

Conclusion

The empirical approaches mentioned in this 936 chapter are just a few examples from the field 937 of single-case methodologies that have been 938 developed over the last few decades. A future 939 step in our endeavor regarding the develop- 940 ment of descriptive tools for the identification 941 of focally determined phases in analytic 942 treatments is based on the combination of 943 the clinically derived, through the use of sys- 944 tematic and controlled judgment procedures, 945 ratings of clinically relevant concepts with a 946 more stringently definable computer-assisted 947 analysis content tool (Kächele and 948 Mergenthaler 1983; Mergenthaler 1985; 949 Kächele 1986). We would underscore that 950 the empirical attempt to test psychoanalytic 951 process theories needs descriptive tools that 952 are capable of mastering the large amount of 953 data that is involved in such a task.

We are convinced that psychoanalytic pro- 955 cess research has to start from the clinical 956 experience, which can lead to the introduction 957 of new observational tools that can be checked 958 in regard to their appropriateness. Once we 959 are able to go beyond clinical descriptions, 960 we may be in a better position to decide 961 which model of process fits the data best. 962 Then, the clinical issue can be solved 963

regarding what the relationship between the various phases of treatment may be and what its relevance for the ultimate treatment outcome is.

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