



127
340
THS

CHANGES IN ACCEPTANCE OF SELF AND OTHERS
INSIDE AND OUTSIDE OF T - GROUPS

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
MARTA TERESA SUPPLY
1973



3 1293 10196 5659



ABSTRACT

CHANGES IN ACCEPTANCE OF SELF AND OTHERS INSIDE AND OUTSIDE OF T-GROUPS

By

Marta Teresa Suplicy

This study concerned how changes in Self-Acceptance (SA) and in the Acceptance of Others (AO) outside of a T-group laboratory related to changes inside the lab. From data assembled by Force (1969) when studying an intensive eight day sensitivity training lab, Hurley and Force (1973) found substantial outside gains on measures of SA and AO.

Fifty participants were formed into five T-groups each led by co-trainer teams. Five weeks before the lab and again about six months afterwards data packets including ten personality measures were posted to the participants. They were requested to pass nearly identical data packets to a personal "intimate" and to a job colleague of their choice at the prelab time, while at six months postlab similar packets were mailed to these parties. On the lab's second and seventh days the participants made various ratings of all members of their individual T-group, including themselves.

From Force's (1969) several measures, this study utilized the Okay--not Okay (Self and Others) rating scales,

Openness, Data Seeking, and Data Giving scales, and form X of the Person Description Instrument (Harrison and Oshry, 1965) which yielded semantic differential scales of Interpersonal Warmth and Acceptance, Power and Effectiveness in Work, and Activity and Expressiveness. The Interpersonal Warmth and Acceptance and the Self Ok--not OK measures both correlated significantly with a marker measure of the Acceptance-Rejection of Others: the Love-Hate factor of LaForge and Suczek's (1955) Interpersonal Check List. Similarly, the ICL's orthogonal Dominance-Submission factor was taken as a marker measure of Self-Acceptance, and found to correlate significantly with Force's six other scales. Both these SA and AO measures showed clear evidence of divergent and convergent validity. The sum of scores on the SA and AO component scales were used as the principal variables.

Product-moment correlations were determined between the Internal (Day 2 and Day 7) versus External (prelab and postlab) SA and AO measures. These data confirmed the independence of SA and AO in that 13 of the 48 SA and AO correlations of External versus Internal scores were significant as contrasted with only two of the 48 SA versus AO correlations. Consistently lower agreement between observers at postlab than at prelab was a puzzling feature of the External data.

Within the lab the pooled descriptions of participants by other T-group members were more stable than the participant's self-reports. Correlations between the

participant's self-reports of SA outside versus inside the lab were small. The T-group reports showed more agreement with the prelab and postlab SA data than did the self-reports, although the inverse pattern obtained for the AO correlations.

The Internal versus External AO correlations for participant's self-reports were notably higher than their SA counterparts, suggesting that the lab was less disruptive to AO. It seemed puzzling that Day 2 data for both T-group reports and self-reports tended to correlate more highly with the External reports than did Day 7 data.

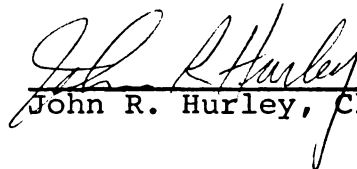
The relationships among the External and Internal measures of change (Table 4) were very limited. The External change data showed little agreement among participants, their intimates, and colleagues for SA or AO. There was fair agreement that External SA and AO gains were linked ($\underline{r} = .51$) when data from the three classes of External observers was pooled.

The Internal data showed substantial agreement ($\underline{r} = .64$) about SA changes between self-reports and the reports of the T-group units but little AO agreement ($\underline{r} = .12$). SA and AO changes were linked by both participants ($\underline{r} = .46$) and T-groups ($\underline{r} = .66$). The strongest relationship ($\underline{r} = .30$) between Internal and External changes was for SA as reported by all external observers versus within-lab reports from the participant's. Only three of sixteen correlations between Internal and External SA or AO gain scores surpassed the .10 level using the one-tailed test.

The increased linkage between SA and AO at postlab over-prelab and the larger Day 7 than Day 2 correlations of SA with AO, plus the larger intercorrelations among all measures of SA and AO at postlab than at prelab, deserve further attention. Also, the greater increment observed in SA than in AO suggests that more attention be given to lab programs which address these dimensions separately. The prelab assessment of participants positions on these dimensions could be used to assign the individual to a program designed to provide enrichment in that area.

Limitations of the raw gain score approach to the measurement of change became evident in this study. Suggestions were offered for the use of more sophisticated change measures as described by Cronbach and Furby (1970), and also, toward the development of more behaviorally oriented and nonstatistical approaches to the assessment of change.

Approved: 2/23/73



John R. Hurley, Chairman

Carl F. Frost

Bertran P. Karon

CHANGES IN ACCEPTANCE OF SELF AND OTHERS
INSIDE AND OUTSIDE OF T-GROUPS

By

Marta Teresa Suplicy

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Psychology

1973

To Eduardo
who made everything possible

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to Dr. John Hurley. Without his trust in my capacity I would not have had the opportunity of becoming a student here. I am thankful to his non-threatening way, patience and encouragement in dealing with my difficulties in the thesis and, more than anything else, I am grateful to his contribution to my discovery of self and growth as a person. I also wish to thank Dr. Carl Frost for introducing me to the university and serving on my committee.

Maria do Carmo Vale was of inestimable help. With love and a constant good humor she took excellent care of my children during my studying hours and relieved many of my guilty feelings.

I wish to thank Eduardinho and Andre for sharing, sometimes very gracefully, their mommy with so many books.

To Mom and Dad and Mena and Paulo for being such wonderful parents.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES.	v
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
 Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION.	1
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.	10
III. METHOD.	19
Design.	20
Trainers	21
Measures	21
Validity of Measures	26
IV. RESULTS	31
An Overview of the External and Internal Changes.	31
Relationships Among the External and Internal SA and AO Measures	33
Relationships Among External and Internal Measures of Change	39
V. DISCUSSION	42
Measures of SA and AO.	42
Changes in SA and AO	43
The Problems of Measuring Change	44
Suggestions for Future Research	46
VI. SUMMARY	50
BIBLIOGRAPHY	53
APPENDIX.	58

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Product-moment Correlations Between Components of SA and AO and the Two ICL Marker Variables.	27
2.	Product-moment Correlations Within the Components of SA and AO at Prelab and Postlab	28
3.	Internal versus External Product-moment Correlation of Self-Acceptance and Acceptance of Others	34
4.	Product-moment Correlations Among Change Measures (External and Internal)	40

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Interpersonal Competence.	4
2. Participants' Self-Reported Mean Scores on PDIX Scales at Four Points in Time (<u>N</u> = 46)	32

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"The major differences between mental illness and mental health are to be found in the characteristic frequency, intensity, and nature of interpersonal acts" (Adams, 1964, pp. 191-197). The central goal of the group movement seems to be the development of the capacity to interact constructively with others, i.e., the development of Interpersonal Competence. Empirical data, rather than theoretical speculations, suggest that the interaction between persons can be conceptualized within the following systematic frame of reference: the bipolar dimensions of acceptance versus rejection of the self and others.

In a review of the empirical studies dealing with the understanding of interpersonal conduct, Foa (1961) was impressed by the "strong convergence" of thinking and results toward a simple ordered structure for the organization of interpersonal behavior. He states that the findings "suggest a circumplex structure around the two orthogonal axes of Dominance-Submission and Love-Hostility" (p. 352). Foa wrote that an "interpersonal act is an attempt to establish the emotional relationship of the actor toward himself and toward the other person, as well

as to establish the social relationship of the self and other with respect to a larger reference group." Also, ". . . an action is meaningful toward the other in terms of dominance, submission, love, hostility, but it is likewise meaningful toward the self" (Foa, 1958; Foa and Zacks, 1959).

More recently Adams (1964) reviewed extensive empirical evidence which also suggests that the acceptance versus rejection of the self and acceptance versus rejection of others constitute the two salient dimension of interpersonal relationships. "Each type of behavior is meaningful toward the self and the other person (p. 195). In discussing the major second-order factors which he found to underlie intercorrelations among a wide variety of personality measures, Peterson (1965) observed that they ". . . appear to represent rather broad concepts of the self and others . . ." and ". . . one should speak of attitudes toward the self and other objects."

As viewed by Adams one pole of the Dominance-Submission axis is defined by acts of self-confident, assertive leadership and achievement in the face of obstacles and at the opposite pole are acts of passivity, submissiveness, and acquiescence. The Affection-Hostility axis reflects the degree of positive (warm, friendly, kind acts) or negative (critical, hostile, angry acts) affect manifested toward others.

"The Dominance-Submission axis defines the degree of acceptance or rejection of self while the Affection-Hostility axis defines the degree of acceptance or rejection of the other" (p. 195, italics added). Adams noted that these two dimensions have repeatedly been used in comprehensive schemas for categorizing all personality types since the time of Hyppocrates. It has been present in the formulations of Galen, Kant, Wundt, Herbart, and Pavlov among others. The polarities of love-hate, sex-aggression, and Eros-Thanatos, identified by Freud (Lear, 1957, pp. 71-72), are comparable to Foa's Affection-Hostility dimension. Schaefer (1959) found that these two dimensions account for many of the relationships among many narrower measures of maternal-child interaction.

In a similar vein, Berne (1966), sees four basic "life positions" for the individual. Each position has certain connotations of action and can be used to predict the behavior of the individual in an interpersonal situation.

1. I am OK you are OK--this position is intrinsically constructive.
2. I am OK you are not OK--this individual will be essentially paranoid and suspicious.
3. I am not OK you are OK--depressive, self-punitive behavior.
4. I am not OK you are not OK--schizoid.

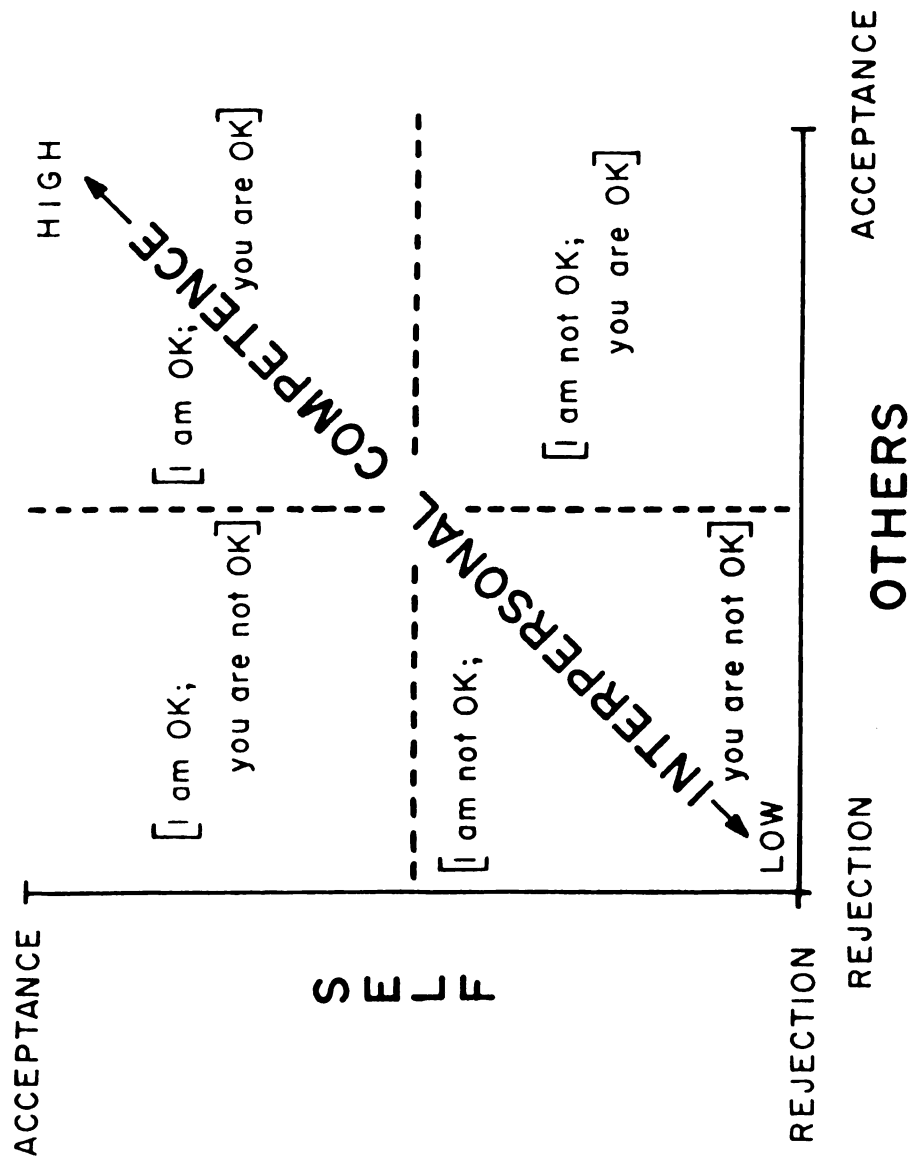


Figure 1.

These dimensions served as the foundation of Harris' (1967) popular do-it-yourself psychiatric text, I'm OK You're OK. Also, Berne's "positions" seem congruent with the four classic temperaments of Sanguine, Choleric, Melancholic and Phlegmatic. Lorr, Bishop and McNair (1965) confirmed the identity of four similar personality types in three samples of nonpsychotic patients in psychotherapy.

The works of Foa (1961), Schaefer (1961), Adams (1964), Peterson (1965), and Bierman (1969) show that one dimension plainly concerns responses to other persons.

Since Symonds (1939) named it rejection a diversity of similar labels have been created: affiliation-hostility (Freedman, Ossorio, Leary and Coffey, 1951); positive-negative (Chance, 1954); loving-rejection (Roe, 1957) and acceptance-rejection (Bierman, 1969).

Less agreement is found in the labeling of the second dimension. Symonds (1939) labeled it dominance-submission, as did Freedman et al. (1951). Chance and Bierman called it activity-passivity. Schaefer (1961) tagged this dimension as autonomy-control within the realm of maternal behavior but as extraversion-intraversion for social and emotional behaviors of children.

The precedents considerations led Hurley (1972) to suggest that Other-Acceptance/Rejection is a noncontroversial label for the first prepotent dimension. For the second dimension he notes that the behaviors represented by

the different labels appear to reflect a broad social and emotional acceptance of the self which facilitates outward expression (active, autonomous, dominant, extraverted, I am OK, etc.) as contrasted with the self-rejecting denial of such expressions (passive, controlled, submissive, introverted, I am not OK, etc.) associated with the opposite pole.

Hurley also observes that although LaForge and Suczek (1955) express no awareness of the Self-Acceptance/Rejection implications in their Interpersonal Check List, the positive self-references align exclusively with the Dominance ("self-respecting," "self-confident," and "self-reliant and assertive) pole but negative self-referent terms ("always ashamed of self," "self-punishing" and "lacks self-confidence") with the Submissive pole.

From these several bases, Hurley and Force (1971a) created a figure in which interpersonal competence and mental health are assumed to be directly reflected by the vector which bisects the quadrants of acceptance of self and others and rejection of the self and others, as reproduced in Figure 1. "This, the product of self acceptance rejection (Self-Acceptance) times other acceptance-rejection (Other-Acceptance) appear an appropriate and promising indicator of interpersonal competence" (p. 2).

As proposed by Adams, Foa and the above authors, interpersonal competence is encompassed by two orthogonal axis: Dominance-Submissiveness (Self-Acceptance), Love-Hostility (Other-Acceptance). An increase in self acceptance does not necessarily produce an increase in acceptance of others. This point is strongly supported by the data obtained by Hurley and Force (1971a) in an eight-days "human relations" laboratory. The fifty participants were described by self-report and by one intimate and one colleague on ten personality variables at five weeks prelab and six months postlab.

Through the analysis of the product-moment correlations among the ten measures for the participants, the intimates, and the colleagues, both prelab and postlab, Hurley and Force (1971b) found that the differences among the three sets of intercorrelations (participants versus intimates, participants versus colleagues, and colleagues versus intimates) did not permit rejection of the null hypothesis of no overall difference among these sets of correlations. Consequently, these prelab and postlab data were separately pooled. "Each pool yielded two identical clusters, Self-Acceptance and Other-Acceptance" (p. 5).

In the self-acceptance cluster each of the seven variables (Openness, Data Seeking, Data Giving, How Ok I Am, Power and Effectiveness in Work, Activity and

Expressiveness, and Dominance-Submissiveness) were positively intercorrelated at beyond the .05 level with all others except for prelab Power and Effectiveness. In the other-acceptance cluster the three variables (How OK I Think Others Are, Interpersonal Warmth, and Love-Hate) intercorrelated positively and significantly at both prelab and postlab. "Total scores on each cluster intercorrelated $-.06$ at prelab and $-.05$ at postlab. Over the seven months interval from prelab to postlab, the Self-Acceptance total scores correlated $.76$ ($p < .001$) and total Other-Acceptance scores correlated $.82$ ($p < .001$)" (pp. 5-6).

These findings further support the independence of the dimensions of acceptance-rejection of the self (Self-Acceptance) and of others (Other-Acceptance).

However, authors such as Horney, Maslow, Jourard, Yalom, Fromm, Gibb, Rogers, consider these two variables (Self-Acceptance and Other-Acceptance) as dependent upon each other. This dependency implies that other-acceptance emerges from self-acceptance and that there is a positive relation between the acceptance of self and the acceptance of others. This implication appears incongruent with the Hurley and Force (1971a, b) data. Hurley and Force found significant gains on both dimensions (Self-Acceptance and Other-Acceptance) but the overall gain in Other-Acceptance was much smaller (only 1/11) than that in Self-Acceptance.

Working with data from the same lab, this study is concerned with the changes in self-acceptance and acceptance of others within the lab experience.

The purpose of this study is to ascertain how changes observed inside (Internal) of the lab on these two dimensions are related to the External (postlab minus prelab scores) changes previously described by Hurley and Force.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The relationship between the individual's concept of self and his concept of others has been of concern to many authors, including Fromm, Horney, Jourard, Maslow, Gibb, Argyris, Yalom, Rogers and Sullivan. Additional writers and researchers have explored this topic in more specific ways by focusing on the relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others.

From the work of the above authors a dependency between acceptance of self and acceptance of others can be inferred. The works of Rubin, Omwake, Stock, and Sheerer empirically describe their understanding of a relationship between these two variables. Stock and Sheerer (1949) demonstrated that the way a person feels about himself relates positively to the way he feels about others. The studies conducted by Omwake (1954) and Rubin (1967) also support the idea that those who accept themselves tend to be acceptant of others and to perceive others as accepting themselves; those who reject themselves hold a correspondingly low opinion of others, and perceive others as being self-rejectant.

These authors, although homogeneously understanding self-acceptance and acceptance of others as dependent variables, hold divergent viewpoints as to which of these two variables precedes the other. Sullivan, Yalom, Rogers, Miller, Argyris, and Maslow seem to consider the acceptance by others as an essential requisite for the development of self-regard. They emphasize that self-concept develops as the result of direct experience with the environment and may also incorporate the perceptions of others. Writing about Rogers, Mischel (1971) points out that "the interpretation of the self--as strong or weak, for example--affects how one perceives the rest of one's world" (p. 94). Maslow postulates that a child must feel accepted so that he can be spontaneous, curious, exploratory, and move toward growth. Parents must maintain such an atmosphere of love and safety so that the child is not forced to choose between the needs of others and his own self. By being able to move towards self-actualization the child will be more acceptant of others which should also facilitate movement toward further growth by these others.

Gibb, Fromm, Omwake, Horney, and Jourard seem to describe self-acceptance as preceding acceptance of others. They all assert that the person who does not love himself is incapable of loving others.

A refinement on Miller's self-identity theory is presented by Sherwood (1965). He understands that self-identity (self-evaluation) is made up of cognitions based upon the individual's perceptions of how others perceive him. Sherwood's major proposition is that the individual's self-identity is a function of subjective public identity which is, in turn, a function of objective public identity. He calls subjective public identity the perceptions by P^1 of his objective public identity; he calls objective public identity the perceptions by referent O_s of P_s . Sherwood's results showed self-identity to be dependent upon the individual's subjectively held version of the peer group's actual ratings of him. As subjective public identity and subjective public evaluation change, there is a tendency for self-identity and self-evaluation to change in the same direction. Sherwood states that these patterns of change in self-identity are dependent upon: (a) the differential importance of various peers for the individual; (b) the extent to which peer perceptions were communicated to him; and (c) the individual's degree of involvement in the group.

Jourard seems preeminent among those who have focused their attention on the relationship between the

¹ O is used to designate a person other than the person under discussion, who is designated P .

self and others. Jourard (1963) states that ". . . alienation from one's real self not only arrests one's growth as a person; it also tends to make a farce out of one's relationship with people" (p. 26). He points out that "The greater the discrepancy between my unexpurgated real self and the version of myself that I present to others, then the more dangerous will other people be for me" (p. 26).

Jourard (1964) identifies self-disclosure as symptom of personality health. By stating that "when a person has been able to disclose himself utterly to another person, he learns how to increase his contact with his real self" (p. 5), Jourard is assuming that this closeness to the self leads to an increase in self-acceptance. By stating that "no man can come to know himself except as an outcome of disclosing himself to another person" (p. 5). Jourard suggests a dependency between self-acceptance ("know himself") and acceptance of others ("disclosing himself").

Maslow (1968) distinguished between deficiency motivation and growth motivation. He posits that everyone has basic needs for safety and security, belongingness and affection, respect and self-respect, and self-actualization. Deficiency motivation serves to satisfy these needs; it avoids illness but does not create positive mental health. Growth is the process which brings

a person toward ultimate self-actualization. It is tension-seeking in character.

Maslow believes that self-actualizing people have the following characteristics:

1. Superior perception of reality.
2. Increased acceptance of self, of others and of nature.
3. Increased spontaneity, expressiveness; aliveness.
4. Increased problem-centering (i.e., on a task).
5. Increased detachment and desire for privacy.
6. Increased autonomy and resistance to enculturation.
7. Greater freshness of appreciation, and richness of emotional reaction.
8. Higher frequency of peak experiences.
9. Increased identification with the human species.
10. Changed or improved interpersonal relations.
11. More democratic character structure.
12. Greatly increased creativity.
13. Increased honesty, awareness, freedom, and trust.

Maslow states that "what healthy people choose is on the whole what is 'good for them' in biological terms certainly, but perhaps also in other senses" ["good for them" here means "conducting to their and others' self actualization"] (p. 169). Since self-actualizing people live towards self-actualization, we can assume that a

step toward self-actualization implies an increase in all 13 characteristics, among them acceptance of self and others (#2).

Horney (1939) and Fromm (1963) make a distinction between narcissistic and more mature self-love. They assert that, rather than being identical, the two dimensions are opposites. "According to my view, a person with narcissistic trends is alienated from self as well as from others, and hence, to the extent that he is narcissistic he is incapable of loving either himself or anyone else" (Horney, 1939, p. 100).

Horney and Fromm suggest that an individual who is narcissistic loves neither himself nor the others. They also contend that an individual must love himself in order to be able to love others, "The love for my own self is inseparably connected with the love for any other being" (Fromm, 1956, p. 49). "Granted that love for one-self and for others in principle is conjunctive. . . ." (Fromm, 1956, p. 50).

Fromm states that his ideas on self-love "cannot be summarized better than by quoting Meister Eckhart on this topic: 'If you love yourself, you love everybody else as you do yourself. . . .'" (Fromm, 1956, p. 53). This view implies that love of others is dependent upon the love of the self.

Yalom (1971) seems to agree with Fromm's statement that "only after one is able to love himself is he able to love others," but importantly adds "that only after he has once been loved and accepted will he be able to love himself" (Yalom, 1971, p. 46).

By asserting that an individual who does not love himself is incapable of loving others, Horney, Fromm, and Yalom describe a strong bond between self-acceptance and the acceptance of others.

Interpersonalist authors such as Sullivan (1953) and Rogers (1951) agree with the above point by stating that self-acceptance must be preceded by acceptance of others. Sullivan considers the self as a build up of the "reflected appraisals of others" (p. 117). He sees the process of self-evaluation as beginning in early childhood as verbal labels are acquired. Rogers (1951) believes that "as a result of interaction with the environment and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of self is formed" (p. 498).

Close to this view is Miller's analysis of identity and self-esteem. He emphasizes the interdependence between self-esteem (the individual's evaluation of his identity) and public esteem (the group's evaluation of the worth of that aspect of his identity germane to that particular group). Self-esteem refers to the individual's conception

of what he is really like, what he is really worth, and is indissolubly linked to his experience in social relationships (Yalom, p. 46).

Argyris (1962) also seems to view acceptance of self as dependent upon the acceptance of others. He suggests that in order to receive nonevaluative feedback the individual must be accepting of his self and others. "As his acceptance of self and others increases, his need to make evaluative feedback tends to decrease" (p. 190).

Writing about unresolved feelings of fear and distrust Gibb (1964) states, "They are apparently rooted in lack of acceptance of the self and consequent lack of acceptance of others" (p. 284). This statement clearly proposes a dependency between the two variables.

Rubin (1967) demonstrated the importance of self-acceptance for the acceptance of others in the abstract sense in a research which studied fifty individuals before and after an intensive two-week T-group laboratory. He found out that increased self-acceptance, measured by a sentence completion test, was significantly correlated with increased acceptance of others, measured by a questionnaire focusing on changes in racial prejudice.

Sheerer (1949) demonstrated changes in acceptance of the self and correlated changes in the acceptance of others occurring in ten counseling cases during client centered therapy. Similar results were obtained by

Stock (1949) in the analyses of ten cases conducted according to the principles of nondirective therapy. Her results also indicate that a definite relationship exists between the way an individual feels about himself and the way he feels about other persons.

Katharine Omwake (1954) attempted to test the assumption that there is a positive relation between the acceptance of self and acceptance of others in a normal population. She used three unpublished tests which agreed closely for attitudes toward self-acceptance; those for attitudes toward others agreed less well.¹ The results supported her hypothesis that there is a marked relation between the way an individual sees himself and the way he sees others.

¹The tests are: Berger's (1952) scale for Self-acceptance and Acceptance of others, Phillips (1951) questionnaire on Attitudes Toward the Self and Others and the Index of Adjustment and Values by Bills, Vans and McLean (1951).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study used the data collected by Elizabeth Force for her Ph.D. dissertation at Michigan State University. The data came from an intensive eight day sensitivity training lab whose goal was the enhancement of the participants' interpersonal competence. This end was pursued through pointing up one's strengths and limitations in interpersonal communicative skills and emphasizing feedback.

All subjects were recruited through the State of Michigan Training Laboratories, Inc. There were fifty participants, 33 males and 17 females. Their occupational breakdown was: five pastors or priests, one curriculum consultant, two professors, four school counselors, five school principles, one art coordinator, one psychiatrist, two caseworkers, eleven students in psychology or social work, two housewives, one director of marketing, fourteen junior or senior high school teachers and two school superintendents. The fee for participants was \$200 tuition plus \$65 for room and board. Partial scholarships were granted to five graduate students and faculty members. Sponsoring organizations payed more than half of the participants fee.

Also included in the study was a potential group of 100 observers. This group was picked by the participants to include one intimate and one colleague for each participant.

Design

Data packets containing ten personality measures were distributed by mail to all lab participants, both about five weeks before the lab and again about six months afterwards. At these times, the participants were requested to pass nearly identical data packets to a personal "intimate" and to a job colleague of their choice. All data packets were posted directly to the researchers rather than being returned to the participants. Prelab packets were received from 48 Participants, 48 Intimates and 46 Colleagues. Postlab packets were returned by 48 Participants, 41 Intimates and 38 Colleagues. The content of these data packets was not made available to T-group trainers.

Within the lab, the fifty Participants were assigned to ten member T-groups in a manner which minimized the degree of prior acquaintance and tended to balance the male-female ratio within each T-group.

On the second and seventh days during the lab-period the Participants were requested to make various ratings of all members of their individual T-groups including themselves. The rating scales included Openness (O), Data Seeking (DS), Data Giving (DG), Okay-not Okay (Self and Others),

Self-Disclosure (SD), Feedback-Seeking (FS), Liking (L), Time (T) spent with S and the Person Description Instrument X (PDIX). For the PDIX each member rated himself and only four members of his T-group--the two he liked best and the two he liked the least.

The Interpersonal Check List (ICL), the written description of change item, and the Instrument Change Scales, which were used as either prelab, postlab or both prelab and postlab were excluded from these within lab ratings due to time limitations. Also, the measures of T, L, SD, and FS were used only within the lab. Within the lab, a nine point rating scale was used for the OK scales instead of the seven point scale used before and after the lab.

Trainers

Throughout all these T-group sessions the trainers worked in pairs. The pairings were generally made to link individuals with different backgrounds and across sexes. Each pair consisted of a senior partner and, generally, a less experienced cotrainer. All senior trainers were Ph.D. and the cotrainers included two Ph.D.'s and three persons with education at least equivalent to the M.A. degree level.

Measures

Force's criteria for selecting instruments was based on their predicted ability to reflect communicative and interpersonal changes as the lab progressed, and to

reflect changes which transferred to the back home situation.

OK_s and OK_o Scales

These two scales were derived from Eric Berne's (1966) theory of four positions in reference to self and others. They measure one's general positive or negative perception of oneself and others. Each consists of a bipolar scale anchored by "okay" versus "not okay" separated by nine point scale (within the lab) or a seven point scale (prelab and postlab) (see Appendix A, p.). Scores at the low end of the scale reflect "not okay" perceptions, while high scores reflect "okay" perceptions.

In order to score the test Force translated the checked responses into their numerical equivalents and recorded on a summary sheet. Decimals were used to more accurately identify responses when appropriate.

This instrument was used to detect the changes in one's perception of oneself and others. Force's (1969) findings contain the only information about the validity and reliability of these two measures. She found rather limited prelab to postlab (about seven months) stability in these measures across the three classes of observers as indicated by the following product-moment correlations: For OK_s $r_p = .29$, $r_I = .57$, and $r_C = .53$; for OK_o $r_p = .11$, $r_I = .38$, and $r_C = .33$. Plainly these measures did not show nearly the stability over this interval as

the more complex and established ICL measures (.83) and (.79). Force (1969) concludes that "less consistency can be expected from the simple rating scales" (p. 63). Within the lab the Day 2 Versus Day 7 stability coefficient of these measures, based upon the Participant's self-reports were: $OK_S = .24$ and $OK_O = .13$. The corresponding correlations for T-group reports were: $OK_S = .62$ and $OK_O = .32$.

General Behavior Rating Scales (O, DS, and DG)

This instrument consists of three scales: openness, data seeking and data giving. The openness and data seeking scales were developed by Hurley (personal communication, 1968) and revised by Force (1969) in order to include a measure of data giving.

This instrument measures how open the individual is in terms of here and now experiences in the group, how much data he seeks and how much data he gives to other members of the group. It consists of separate nine point scales for openness, data seeking, and data giving, with low scores indicating low degrees of each variable, the high scores indicating high degrees of each variable (see Appendix A, p.).

At prelab and postlab Participants were asked to rate themselves considering a broader environment (groups, people at work, intimate relations, etc.) than at within-lab, where they were asked to rate themselves focusing exclusively

upon more delineated behaviors of only other members of their own T-group. These instructional differences between the External (prelab and postlab) and Internal (Day 2 and 7) administrations were explicitly given for the O, DS, and DG rating scales. While this instructional difference was not used for the next test instrument (the PDIX), scores on the latter instrument may also have been indirectly influenced by the general response set involved by these other instructions.

The Person Description Instrument Form X (PDIX)

The PDIX was developed by Harrison (1962, 1965, 1966) to study interpersonal perception in small groups or organizations. It consists of three scales: Interpersonal Warmth and Acceptance (IWA), Power and Effectiveness in Work (PEW), and Activity and Expressiveness (A&E), each based on nine bipolar items. The poles were separated by numbers 1-6 with nine dots between each number to permit decimal scoring (see Appendix A, p.).

Although Harrison and Oshry's (1965) prior work suggested that these scales were factorially independent, in Force's study the latter two scales (PEW and A&E) correlated significantly with each other and also with ICL Dom, a marker for SA. Consequently, both were identified with the SA dimension.

This measure was expected to detect changes as the lab progresses, and also to check on whether these were

maintained after the lab. In order to score the PDIX the nine items for each scale were separately summed.

Within the lab the Participants received the same instructions as outside the lab (prelab and postlab) for describing themselves on the PDIX. However, the T-group reports were derived from a special instruction requesting each member to use the PDIX to describe "the two persons in your T-group whom you like most and also the two whom you like least." Unless at least two other T-group members described the individual on Day 2 or Day 7, this measure was considered incomplete for that person. Clearly there was a considerable likelihood that either positive or negative bias would influence these T-group reported PDIX scores.

The Interpersonal Check List (ICL)

This test was used as a source of marker measures for SA and AO. It consisted of an 132 item inventory--based on Leary's theory (LaForge and Suczek, 1955; LaForge, 1963)--of sixteen basic variables with eight items for each variable. The items are marked "true" or "false" with respect to the person being rated although only the "true" items contribute directly to the scoring. The sixteen variables are subsumed under two main axes and/or diagonal factors, of dominance-submission (Dom) and love-hate (Lov). It seems very well validated (Lange, 1970).

This instrument was employed as a means of studying how people's general relation styles changed over the course

of the lab and was administered only at prelab and postlab. It was scored conventionally (LaForge and Suczek, 1955). Due to the time required by the ICL, it was not administered within the lab.

Validity of Measures

The Hurley and Force (1971) study presented the prelab and postlab intercorrelations among all personality variables used in this study. Because these data are highly relevant to the present work, they are reviewed here in some detail.

The product-moment correlations between components of SA and AO and the two ICL marker variables, abstracted from Table 4 of Hurley and Force (1971) are shown in Table 1.

All the correlations between the marker variable ICL Dom and components of SA (OK_s , O, DS, DG, PEW, and A&E) were significant, both at prelab and postlab, as were the four correlations between the marker variable ICL Lov and the two components of AO (OK_o and IWA).

These correlations between the SA and AO measures and the marker variables strongly support the convergent validity of the SA and AO measures. Divergent evidence of validity is also clear in the much lower incidence (3 of 12) of significant correlations of the six SA components with ICL Lov and of the OK_o and IWA measures with ICL Dom.

The product-moment correlations among the components of SA and AO at prelab and postlab are shown in Table 2 which was also abstracted from Hurley and Force (1971).

TABLE 1.--Product-moment Correlations Between Components of SA and AO and the Two ICL Marker Variables.^a

	Marker Variables					
	ICL Dom			ICL Lov		
	Prelab	Postlab	Prelab	Postlab	Prelab	Postlab
Components of SA						
How OK I am		(OK _S)	36*	34*	08	17*
Openness		(O)	26*	26*	19*	06
Data Seeking		(DS)	19*	29*	21*	02
Data Giving		(DG)	28*	25*	-02	-13
Power and Effectiveness in Work		(PEW)	39*	40*	-10	07
Activity and Expressiveness		(A&E)	43*	35*	-03	15
Components of AO						
How OK others are		(OK _O)	01	11	29*	23*
Interpersonal Warmth and Acceptance		(IWA)	05	14	56*	41*

^aNote: All decimal points omitted. The N's were 142 at prelab and 127 at postlab. These samples included all available returns from the 50 participants, the 50 intimates, and 50 colleagues. These data were abstracted from Hurley and Force (1971), Table 4, p. 49.

*p < .05 two-tailed.

TABLE 2.--Product-moment Correlations Within the Components of SA and AO at Prelab and Postlab.^a

	SA						AO	
	OK _s	0	DS	DG	PEW	A&E	OK _O	IWA
Components of SA								
OK _s		32*	17*	24*	20*	29*	42*	25*
O	39*		44*	39*	05	42*	14	11
DS	35*	50*		42*	02	27*	03	19*
DG	25*	53*	47*		22*	32*	-06	12
PEW	27*	17*	36*	22*		16*	19*	33*
A&E	32*	51*	39*	28*	31*		-00	03
Components of AO								
OK _O	58*	15	14	03	22*	10		41*
IWA	42*	19*	27*	-02	53*	27*	32*	

^aThese correlations were also extracted from Hurley and Force (1971), Table 4, p. 49. All prelab data (N=142) are above the diagonal, all postlab data (N=127) are below.

*p < .05, two-tailed.

Above the diagonal in Table 2, the prelab data show 13 significant correlations, out of the 15 possible, among the SA measures. The two non-significant correlations were between PEW versus O (.05) and PEW versus DG (.02). The only correlation between AO measures (OK_O versus IWA) was significant both at prelab (.41) and postlab (.32). All of the 15 postlab SA correlations were significant and generally higher (only 1 of 15 was lower) than their prelab counterparts.

The correlations among the SA and AO component measures were higher than the correlations between SA and AO measures. Thus, only four of the latter 12 correlations were significant at prelab. However, three of these four correlations (OK_S vs. OK_O , IWA vs. PEW, IWA vs. A&E) were derived from the same type of instrument and shared an indeterminant amount of covariance attributable to this methodological artifact. At postlab 7 of the 12 SA versus AO correlations were significant. The two largest of the latter correlations (.58 and .53) were derived from the same instrument and were spuriously inflated. These findings clearly support both the convergent and discriminant validity (Campbell and Fiske, 1959) of both the SA and AO components.

Although these data bear directly only upon the validity of the External measures, they seem so clearly positive that similar evidence for the validity of the Internal (within-lab) measures seems unnecessary. Aside

from the ICL marker measures, all within-lab variables were taken from these external measures.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

An Overview of the External and Internal Changes

Because of variations in the personality measures (like the seven point within-lab OK_s and OK_o scales versus the nine point scales used at prelab and postlab) and differences in some of the instructions used externally and internally, only the participants self-reported scores on the three PDIX scales--Interpersonal Warmth and Acceptance (IWA), Power and Effectiveness in Work (PEW), and Activity and Expressiveness (A&T)--yielded closely comparable information at all four time periods (prelab, Day 2, Day 7, and postlab). Thus, a graph of the scores of these scales at the four times provides a perspective on the relative size of changes as assessed Externally (postlab minus prelab scores) and Internally (Day 7 minus Day 2 scores) in an appropriate time frame. Based upon the 46 participants who furnished these data at each of these occasions, Figure 1 shows the pattern and magnitude of the differences. The mean External change on these three measures was 5.54 as compared with the smaller mean Internal change of 2.61. Plainly the External changes, assessed over an interval of 32 weeks tended to exceed the Internal changes assessed over

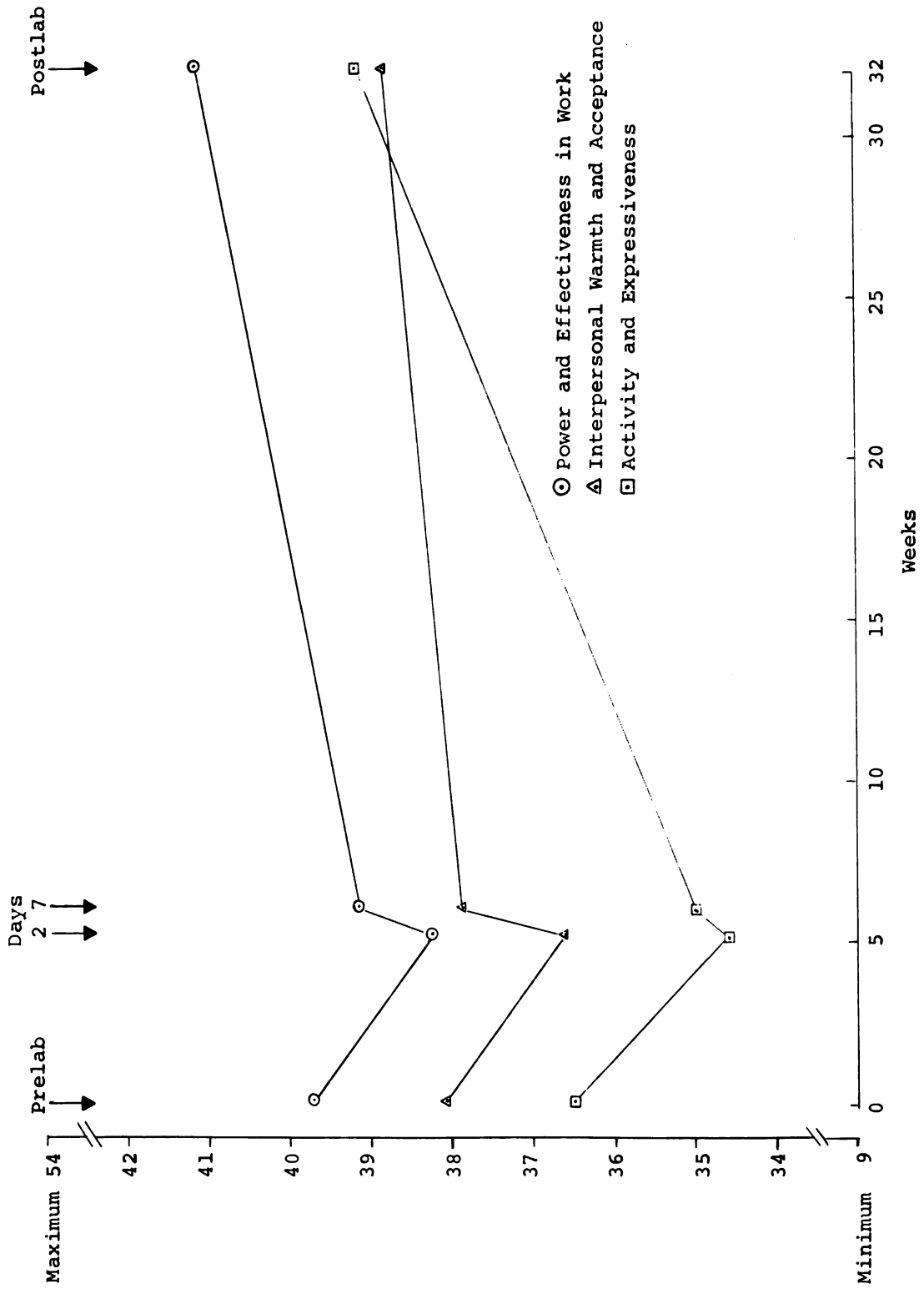


Figure 2.--Participants' Self-Reported Mean Scores on PDIX Scales at Four Points in Time ($N = 46$).

a five day interval. The sharp drop in scores associated with the early phase of the lab suggests that these early lab experiences considerably shook the participants self-descriptions.

There are also other important differences among the measures of External and Internal change. The six component SA measure generally yielded larger change scores than did the two component AO measure. Additionally, Participants reported greater External changes on both SA ($\bar{X} = 7.17$) and AO ($\bar{X} = 1.49$) than did either their Intimate ($\bar{X}_{SA} = 2.71$; $\bar{X}_{AO} = -0.49$) or Colleagues ($\bar{X}_{SA} = 0.93$; $\bar{X}_{AO} = 0.78$). Contrarily, the Internal changes reported by Participants ($\bar{X}_{SA} = 0.20$; $\bar{X}_{AO} = 1.67$) were substantially less than those reported by T-groups ($\bar{X}_{SA} = 5.42$; $\bar{X}_{AO} = 3.36$). Given these appreciable variations in the reports of different observers, in the External versus Internal instructions, and some shifts in the measures of change, it appears that only quite modest relationships can be anticipated between the External and Internal SA and AO variables.

Relationships Among the External and Internal SA and AO Measures

All product-moment intercorrelations among the SA and AO measures are given in Table 3.

Relationships Within the External Measures (left margins of Table 3)

The agreement among observers (P versus I, P versus C, I versus C) was considerably higher at prelab for both

TABLE 3.--Internal versus External Product-Moment Correlation of Self-Acceptance and Acceptance of Others.

[illegible]

*p < .05 using the two-tailed test.
†All decimal points omitted.

SA and AO (.39, .38, and .47 versus .06, .05, and .28; .23, .31, and .38 versus .24, .24, and .19). The most stable External linkages between prelab and postlab were those of Colleagues (.58) followed by Participants (.56) and Intimate (.45). Differences between prelab and postlab correlations were more notable for AO than for SA measures. AO correlations among observers were higher than those of SA at prelab but lower than SA at postlab.

Between SA and AO all prelab correlations ($P = .22$, $I = .35$, and $C = .18$) are lower than their statistically significant postlab counterparts ($P = .40$, $I = .45$, and $C = .48$). Clearly SA and AO were more closely intertwined at postlab than they were at prelab. These increased postlab agreements between SA and AO may be attributable to enhanced self-awareness generated by feedback experiences within the lab. This topic will be pursued at the discussion section.

Perhaps the most puzzling aspect of these External data is why the postlab agreement among observers is so consistently lower than these observers' agreement at prelab. Another important question is why were the postlab SA versus AO correlations for each observer group are higher than their prelab counterparts? Within each time period (prelab and postlab) however, the correlations within the SA and AO measures were quite similar.

Relationships Within the Internal Measures (Table 3 top margin)

The T-group reports show a greater agreement between Day 2 and 7 than the Participant reports for the same days for both SA (.57 vs. -.05) and AO (.61 vs. .42). Also Day 7 linkages between Participant reports and T-group reports was much higher than for Day 2 for both SA (.59 vs. .-02) and AO (.59 vs. .26).

Between SA and AO, the correlations for Participant reports on Day 2 (-.04) and Day 7 (.05) were considerably lower than their T-group's counterparts (Day 2, $r = .30$; Day 7, $r = .56$). The only departure from the pattern of greater stability among the T-group reports than for Participant reports was the slightly higher (not significant statistically) Day 2 SA versus Day 7 AO for Participants (.38) than for T-groups (.19). The six other correlations among T-group reports all exceed the corresponding linkages among Participant Reports. These higher T-group correlations are not surprising since all were based on the answers of nine persons versus the solo Participant reports.

External versus Internal Linkages
(Note Boxes in Table 3)

The product-moment correlation between the Participants' prelab versus within-lab SA was minimal (.06) on Day 2 but significant (.41) on Day 7. Because the Participant's SA was more stable (.56) over the six months prelab to postlab interval, this low prelab versus Day 2

correlation reinforces the earlier impression that self-descriptions were considerably shaken by experiences early in the lab. Generally the data from Intimates and Colleagues support this impression for the only significant SA linkage between the internal scores of Participants and the external scores of others was on Day 7 for Colleagues (.37). This was below the prelab versus postlab SA linkages for both Intimates (.45) and Colleagues (.57). Generally, however, the correlations between the Participants' prelab and postlab SA scores and Participants' within-lab SA scores were small.

The T-group reports show somewhat more agreement between the External and Internal data for SA than did the Participant's reports (4 significant correlations versus 2), although the inverse pattern obtains for the seven statistically significant AO correlations between External and Internal measures. There are three significant SA correlations between prelab and the T-group report (Participants Day 2 = .30 and Day 7 = .43; Intimates Day 2 = .38). Only for Colleagues did the prelab SA reports fail to agree significantly with the T-groups' perceptions.

The Internal versus External AO correlations for Participants' self-reports were notably higher than their SA counterparts, especially for prelab versus within-lab on Day 2 (.32 vs. .06) and for post lab versus Day 2 (.36 vs. -.10). The exception was for Day 7 (.38 vs. .41) when the SA correlation was higher than AO.

Since the Participants' AO reports correlated significantly on three of four occasions during the prelab to within-lab to postlab interval, as contrasted with only one significant SA correlation, it seems that the lab was less disruptive to AO. Except for Intimates on Day 7 when ($\underline{r} = .29$), the Colleagues and Intimates scores show no agreement with the Participants within-lab scores on AO.

For both the T-group reports and the Participant reports, the Day 2 data tended to correlate significantly with the External reports more often (10 versus 3) than did the Day 7 reports. This pattern was somewhat stronger within the T-group (6 to 1) than within the Participant reports (4 to 2). However, the postlab data correlated significantly with the T-group reports only on Day 2 ($\text{SA}, \underline{r} = .31$).

For SA versus AO

The Participants, who showed somewhat higher External correlations for SA ($\underline{r} = .56$) than AO ($\underline{r} = .39$), had four significant correlations out of eight for AO and one out of eight for SA for the External versus Internal data. So, while SA was more externally stable for Participants, the correlations between the External versus Internal data were more stable for AO. Of the 96 correlations between External and Internal measures in Table 3, statistical significance was attained by nine of the 32 which related to Participants external reports, versus four of 32 for Intimates, and only two of 32 for Colleagues.

The 13 statistically significant Internal versus External correlations out of 48 within the SA and AO measures clearly exceeded the two significant correlations of the 48 possible SA versus AO linkages. Chance seems a reasonable explanation for the two of 48 SA versus AO correlations which reached statistical significance.

These findings plainly offer additional support for the view that SA and AO are generally independent of each other. They also show meaningful if limited associations between the External and Internal measures.

Relationship Among External and Internal Measures of Change

All product-moment correlations within and between the change scores are presented in Table 4.

A one-tailed test of significance was used with all change data since it was anticipated that all External and Internal measures of the same type of change (SA and AO) would be positively correlated. Partly because of the well-known unreliability of change measures (Harris, 1963) and also due to the variety of observers and assortment of measures the .10 significance level was adopted.

The External change data (left hand margin of Table 4) show little agreement (.09, .25, .15) across observers (P, I, and C) on SA. The AO findings are similar and the only statistically significant linkage was between Colleagues and Intimates (.37). The three observer classes showed somewhat greater agreement about the linkage of SA gains to

AO gains Externally, since two of these three correlations (Participants' $\underline{r} = .31$, $\underline{p} < .05$, and Intimates $\underline{r} = .37$, $\underline{p} < .05$) were significant. This linkage of SA with AO gains was clearly heightened when the data from the three observer classes was pooled ($\underline{r} = .51$, $\underline{p} < .01$).

The Internal data (top margin of Table 4) show a substantial correlation (.64) between Participants and T-group reports of SA changes, but very little agreement ($\underline{r} = .12$) for AO shifts. Both Participants and T-groups agreed, however, that changes on SA and AO were linked: Participants' $\underline{r} = .46$; T-group's $\underline{r} = .66$.

The strongest relationship between Internal and External changes was for SA as reported by all external observers (P + I + C) versus the Participant's within-lab report ($\underline{r} = .30$, $\underline{p} < .05$). This was supported by the SA linkage of T-group within-lab reports and Colleague's external report ($\underline{r} = .22$, $\underline{p} < .10$). Only one significant correlation ($\underline{r} = .22$, $\underline{p} < .10$), based on Participant reports, was found between external and internal gains on AO.

CHAPTER V

DICUSSION

Measures of SA and AO

The validity of the SA and AO measures which seemed reasonably well established by their Tables 1 and 2 correlations with the ICL marker measures (Dom and Lov) was generally confirmed by the six external versus internal SA and seven similar AO correlations in the boxes of Table 3 as compared with only two significant correlations of SA with AO. Even the murky Table 4 change data support this picture, since 75% (12 of 16) of the possible correlations of External versus Internal changes or SA or AO were positive as compared with only 50% (8 of 16) of the possible SA versus AO correlations.

At prelab the three observer classes (P, I, and C) showed greater agreement with each other on SA (mean $\bar{r} = .31$) and AO (mean $\bar{r} = .41$) than their SA and AO scores correlated (mean $\bar{r} = .25$). These relationships were surprisingly different at postlab (mean $\bar{r}_{SA} = .19$, mean $\bar{r}_{AO} = .13$, and mean $\bar{r}_{SA \text{ vs. } AO} = .44$). Thus, the observers of External change showed decreasing agreement about SA and AO but increasing agreement that SA and AO correlated. A somewhat similar pattern occurred among the Internal reports. Thus,

the correlations between SA and AO for Participants' reports were $-.04$ on Day 2 and $.05$ on Day 7 while for T-group reports this correlation was $.30$ on Day 2 but $.56$ on Day 7.

It appears that increasing contact with these personality instruments and increasing familiarity with the persons being rated on them resulted in decreased independence of the SA and AO scores, both for the External observers and for the T-groups. The reason for this shift is obscure.

An increasing amount of agreement between the participant's self-descriptions and the T-groups' view of them from Day 2 ($r_{SA} = -.02$ and $r_{AO} = .26$) to Day 7 ($r_{SA} = .59$ and $r_{AO} = .59$) is also evident. This on-going experience tended to produce increasing congruence between how the person was described by the self and by others. Since the prelab and postlab descriptions of the participants did not generally correlate more highly with their Day 7 than Day 2 reports, the consequences of this increasing within-lab congruence also remain unclear. Of 24 postlab versus within-lab correlations of SA and AO measures, merely three were significant and only one of these was on Day 7.

Changes in SA and AO

There was very little External agreement about changes in SA or AO among the three classes of observers. Internally, however, there was substantial agreement ($r = .64$) on SA changes between the reports of Participant's and T-groups but little ($r = .12$) for AO changes. In this

perspective it is not surprising that only three of the 16 correlations across the External and Internal measures of SA and AO gains reached the .10 level and that only one of these (SA : pooled observers versus Participants' report) surpassed the .05 level. Thus, only very limited support was found for the hypothesized linkage between the Internal and External changes.

The most striking aspect of these change data (see Table 4) was the substantial linkages of SA with AO changes. Thus, for pooled observers this $\underline{r} = .51$ while it was .46 for Participant's within lab reports and .66 for the corresponding T-group reports. Both internally and externally there was a clear tendency to ascribe SA and AO shifts of similar magnitude to the same individual despite the low prelab correlation (mean observer group $\underline{r} = .25$) between SA and AO scores.

The Problems of Measuring Change

This study used a "raw gain" approach to assess change. However, this approach--based upon subtracting pretest scores from posttest scores--has been widely criticized (Cronbach and Furby, 1970). Because "raw gain" scores are systematically related to pretest and posttest scores as well as to any random error of measurement, they often lead to fallacious conclusions.

The "measurement of change" has long been a puzzle to psychometrists although it seems to be receiving increased

attention in recent years. Harris (1962) has edited a volume of conference papers that adds to the subject. DuBois (1957) recommended a "residual gain" score as a substitute for the "raw gain" score. She suggests that the gain be residualized by expressing the posttest score as a deviation from the posttest-on-pretest regression line, and then by "partialling-out" the portion of the posttest information that is linearly predictable from the pretest. Tucker, Damarin and Messick [TDM] (1966) called attention to the "true residual gain" which they refer to as a "basefree measure of change."

Cronbach and Furby expressed restrictions about TDM's "basefree measure of change." First, they criticize TDM as being unclear, that their measures are "primarily intended for correlational work." That is, TDM have no intention of interpreting "basefree" scores for individuals. Such scores are intended only as an intermediate step toward correlations. Second, they believe that TDM's equations offer an estimator that does not give the best least-squares estimate of individual "basefree" scores because they seek instead estimates that correlate zero with the person's "true status" at that time. Cronbach and Furby advance that, in general, one "who wants to interpret correlations, covariances, or regression slopes ought not to work from estimated scores." They conclude that the TDM's formulas generate fallible values on the equations and errors. They suggest a straight-forward manipulation of the matrix of observed covariances for X, Y, and Q (Cronbach and Furby, p. 76).

It is Cronbach and Furby believe that where true scores for individuals are desired, the multiple regression procedures outlined on their paper make use of more information than do procedures hitherto advanced. Also, they claim that "there seems to be no occasion to estimate true gain scores. . . ." "Where correlations and regression functions relating true gains or true residual gains to other variables are desired, a calculating routine is available that makes it unnecessary to estimate gain scores for individuals." Summarizing, Cronbach and Furby, strongly advise against the use of gain scores, their usefulness and reliability, no matter how they may be adjusted or refined.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research could avoid some of the present study's limitations by using the same instructions at the different times the tests are taken. The change measures used in this study did not provide a clear picture, partly because different instruments and instructions were used in the lab's External and Internal period (e.g., within the lab, a nine point rating scale was used for the OK scales instead of the seven point scale used before and after the lab). Also, the General Behavior Ratings given at prelab and postlab instructed the observers to rate participants considering their behavior in a broad world (intimate relationships, work relationships, etc.) while within-the-lab they were asked to focus exclusively upon the behavior of fellow group members. It is difficult to evaluate how

much of the outside instruction influenced the ratings inside the lab.

Further research might focus on obtaining change data with more reliable statistical procedures than raw scores, such as the suggestions of Cronbach and Furby (1970), it should also consider the initial level of Participants' SA and AO. It is speculative how their initial level of SA and AO might have affected changes (Fleishman, 1966)..

There is a strong evidence (Hurley and Force, 1971b) that differences between T-groups and trainers powerfully influenced the subsequent gains or losses of the members when considered by T-group units. Hurley and Force study (which used the same data used in this study) had the most surprising finding of a .94 product-moment correlation between the participants' ratings of the effectiveness of their T-group trainers, as a unit, and the six month later multi-observer-multimethod change scores. Thus, it is impressive how change in interpersonal competence was associated with how effective the T-group members had rated their trainers. Subsequent research could consider Hurley and Force findings of significant correlations of changes with T-groups memberships.

The knowledge (Mischel, 1969, 1971) that people tend to generalize fragmentary impressions about themselves and others, underlines the limitations of studies which rely only upon general questionnaires. It also indicates the desirability of focusing on specific behaviors in order to

get more reliable data. Tests which ask if the individual is responsible or irresponsible (in a scale from 1 to 6) or enthusiastic or unenthusiastic and so on, get a "general perception," which, considering the bulk of research regarding behavior specificity (Mischel, 1968; Peterson, 1968) tends to reflect the individual's stereotype of himself or others with little correspondence to specific different situations. Wherever possible, questionnaires would obtain more reliable information if structured with specific questions.

Nonstatistical approaches to the measurement of change should also be considered. An objective approach would be to ask individuals to develop five or more change items representing such areas as relationship with wife or intimate, own children, co-workers, sex, people one has superficial but routinely contact with (mailman, cashiers, neighbors, children's neighbors, own fantasies, etc.). Items should be very situation specific; e.g., increase of SA for John could be somewhat like this: "John (name of individual making up the list) will answer back when his wife says he will be late for work." Each individual would be asked to develop a very idiosyncratic set of items, meaningful only towards his person and his specific problems. Individuals will probably include items on their lists of SA and AO that might not appear very relevant to these dimensions. These could be discussed by the patient and the therapist until a satisfactory agreement is obtained.

The important occurrence, however, is for each individual to think about what SA and AO means for him in specific behavioral terms, and make plausible goals to work on instead of beautiful but less meaningful and hard to assess abstractions such as "be happier with self," "not be aggressive," etc. Change would be obtained by assessing at postlab, how many goals had been reached (concretely).

This way of measuring change would also be part of the treatment of "producing change," since the instrument used (making up the list himself, thinking and discussing it, establishing goals, assessing change) to assess the change enhances the perception of the problem by both patient and therapist permitting it to be investigated, delimited, and dealt with (Bandura, 1969).

An inferential approach to measuring change would be coding descriptions accounts at prelab and postlab. Each individual and observers would write down how they perceive themselves in several areas and different judges would code their descriptions. Prelab and postlab description could also be compared and changes identified. A problem with this approach would be that the lab experience might shift the baseline perceptions of the individuals. E.g., individuals who thought of themselves as very open at prelab could re-evaluate their perception due to lab processes and perceive themselves at postlab as not such a self-disclosing person as at prelab (Walker, Shack, Egan, et al., 1972).

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY

Of the 16 Table 4 correlations between changes on Self-Acceptance or the Acceptance of Others as assessed inside and outside of the lab, only three achieved the ten level of statistical significance. Thus, the principal hypothesis of positive linkage between changes in SA and AO inside and outside of the lab received only modest support. The strongest of these linkages was an $r = .30$ ($p < .05$, one-tailed) between SA gain scores as assessed outside the lab by pooled data from 32 participants, 32 of their intimates, and 32 of their job colleagues, versus within-lab shifts as reported by only the participants. Only nine percent of these raw gain score shifts inside and outside of the lab were predictable from each other.

These findings and the pertinent literature make it clear that change measures more sophisticated than the present raw gain scores deserve exploration. While "base free measures of change" have been proposed (Tucker, Damarin, and Messick, 1966), Cronbach and Furby (1970) have often severely criticized such approaches. Suggestions were offered for the development of less statistically-oriented measures of change, including the clearer specification of the behavior at issue and

more direct measures of the amount of change. Because Hurley and Force (1973) found SA and AO changes to be highly related to T-group units, it may also be important to provide for such units when analyzing change data.

Additional evidence of the independence of Self-Acceptance and Acceptance of Others is especially clear in Table 3 where 13 of the 48 correlations between External versus Internal measures of SA and AO are statistically significant as contrasted with only two of 48 SA versus AO correlations. This independence was less clear in the comparisons of External with Internal gain scores on SA and AO in Table 4, although 75 per cent (12 of 16) of the correlations between changes in SA or AO were positive as compared with only 50 per cent (8 of 16) of the correlations between shifts in SA versus AO.

Some puzzling evidence of an increasing bond between the SA and AO measures at postlab versus prelab and also at Day 7 versus Day 2 was noted. The measures for these shifts was unclear and further investigation of this phenomenon seems indicated.

Generally, greater increases were noted in SA than in AO. While this might be partially attributed to variations in the instruments and to assess such changes, it may also be useful to devise lab programs which separately address themselves toward growth along each of these dimensions. Prelab assessment of each participant would facilitate their placement in a program oriented toward the enhancement of their area of greatest need.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, B. "Mental illness" or interpersonal behavior? American Psychologist, 1964, 19, 191-197.
- Argyris, C. Interpersonal competence and organizational effectiveness. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin-Doisey, 1966.
- Bandura, A. Principles of behavior modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.
- Berger, E. M. The relation between expressed acceptance of self and expressed acceptance of others. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1952, 47, 778-782.
- Berne, E. Principles of group treatment. New York: Oxford University Press, 1966.
- Bierman, R. Dimensions of interpersonal facilitation in psychotherapy and child development. Psychological Bulletin, 1969, 72, 338-352.
- Campbell, D. T. and Fiske, D. W. Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. Psychological Bulletin, 1959, 56 no. 2, 81-105.
- Chance, E. Father's perception of self and first-born child. In Stolz, L. M. (ed.), Father relations of war-born children. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1954.
- Cronbach, L. J., and Furby, Lita. How we should measure "change" or should we? Psychological Bulletin, 1970, 74, no. 1, 68-80.
- DuBois, P. H. Multivariate correlational analysis. New York: Harper, 1957.
- Fleishman, E. A. Human abilities and acquisition of skill. In Bilodeau, E. A. (ed.), Acquisition of skill. New York: Academic Press, 1966.
- Foa, U. G. The contiguity principle in the structure of interpersonal relations. Human Relat., 1958, 11, 229-238.
- _____. Convergences in the analysis of the structure of interpersonal behavior. Psychological Review, 68, 341-353.

- Foa, U. G., and Zacks, S. A. A stochastic facet theory of social interaction in the dyad. Technical Note April 1959, Israel Institute of Applied Social Research, Contract no. AF 61 (052)-121.
- Force, E. Personal changes attributed to human relations training by participants, intimates and job colleagues. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1969, 188 pp.
- Freedman, M. B.; Ossorio, A. G.; Leary, T. F.; and Coffrey, H. S. The interpersonal dimension of personality. Journal of Personality, 1951, 20, 143-161.
- Fromm, E. The sane society. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1955.
- _____. The art of loving. New York, Harper and Row, 1956 (published by Bantam Books, 1963, New York).
- Gibb, J. R. Climate for trust formation. In Bradford, L. P.; Gibb, J. R.; and Berne, K. D. (eds.), T-group theory and laboratory method: Innovation in re-education. New York: Wiley, 1964, 279-309.
- Harris, C. W. Problems in measuring change. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison; Milwaukee; and London, 1963.
- Harris, T. A. I'm OK- You're OK. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.
- Harrison, R. The impact of the laboratory on perceptions of others by the experimental group. Chapter II in Agyris, C., Interpersonal competence and organizational effectiveness. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin-Dorsey, 1962.
- _____. Personal style, group composition, and learning. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1965, 1, 286-301.
- _____. Cognitive change and participation in a sensitivity-training laboratory. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1966, 30, no. 6, 517-520.
- Harrison, R. and Oshry, B. Report to SAED of GESAED-BUHRC training study. Unpublished manuscript prepared for the Small Aircraft Engine Department of General Electric by the Boston University Human Relations Center, 1965.
- Horney, K. New ways in psychoanalysis. New York: W. W. Norton, 1939.

- Hurley, J. R. and Force, E. J. A multiobserver-multimethod study of interpersonal competence and T-groups. Unpublished manuscript, Michigan State University, 1971a, 61p.
- _____. T-group gains in acceptance of self and others. International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 1973, 23, in press.
- Jourard, S. M. Personal adjustment. 2d ed; New York: Macmillan, 1963.
- _____. The transparent self. New York: VanNostrand, 1964.
- LaForge, R. Research use of the ICL. Oregon Research Institute Technical Report, vol. 3, 4, Oct. 1963.
- LaForge, R. and Suczeck, R. F. The interpersonal dimension of personality: III. An interpersonal check list. Journal of Personality, 1955, 24, 94-112.
- Lange, D. E. A validation of the orthogonal dimensions underlying the ICL and the octant constellations assumed to be their measure. Journal of Projective Techniques and Personality Assessment, 1970, 34, 519-523.
- Leary, R. Interpersonal diagnosis of personality. New York: Ronald Press, 1957.
- Lorr, M.; Bishop, P. F.; and McNair, D. M. Interpersonal types among psychiatric patients. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1965, 70, 468-472.
- Maslow, A. H. Toward a psychology of being. 2d ed; New York: VanNostrand, 1968.
- McNemar, Q. Psychological statistics. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1972.
- Miller, D. R. The study of social relationships: situation, identity, and social interaction. In Sigmund Koch, Psychology: a study of a science, vol. 5. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963, 639-737.
- Mischel, W. Continuity and change in personality. American Psychologist, 1969, 24 1012-1018.
- _____. Introduction to personality. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1971.

- Omwake, K. T. The relation between acceptance of self and acceptance of others by three personality inventories. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1954, 18, 443-446.
- Peterson, D. R. Scope and generality of verbally defined personality factors. Psychological Review, 1965, 72, 43-59.
- Phillips, E. L. Attitudes toward self and others: a brief questionnaire report. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1951, 15, 79-81.
- Roe, A. Early determinants of vocational choice. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1957, 4, 212-217.
- Rogers, C. R. Client centered therapy. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1951.
- Rubin, I. The reduction of prejudice through laboratory training. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1967, 3, 29-50.
- Schaefer, E. S. A circumplex model for maternal behavior. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1959, 226-233.
- _____. Conveying conceptual models for maternal behavior and child behavior. In Glidewell, J. C. (ed.) Parental attitudes and child behavior. New York: C. Thomas, 1961.
- Sheerer, E. T. An analysis of the relationship between acceptance of and respect for self and acceptance of and respect for others in ten counseling cases. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13, 169-175.
- Sherwood, J. J. Self identity and referent others. Sociometry, vol. 28, 1, March 1965.
- Stock, D. An investigation into the interrelations between the self-concept and feelings directed toward other persons and groups. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13, 176-180.
- Sullivan, H. S. The interpersonal theory of psychiatry. New York: W. W. Norton, 1953.
- Symonds, P. M. The psychology of parent-child relationships. New York: Appleton-Century, 1939.
- Tucker, L. R.; Damarin, F.; and Messick, S. A base-free measure of change. Psychometrika, 1966, vol. 31, 4, 457-473.

Walker, R.; Shack, J.; Egan, G.; Sheridan, K.; and Sheridan, E. Changes in self-judgments of self-disclosure after group experience. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1972, 8 (2), 248-251.

Yalom, I. D. The theory and practice of group psychotherapy. New York: Basic Books, 1970.

APPENDIX

GENERAL BEHAVIOR RATINGS (Pre and Post Lab)

Please read the following instructions carefully and rate yourself on the three variables. When making these ratings, try to not confine yourself to thinking only of close or intimate relationships, but also consider how you are in groups, with people at work, etc.

OPENNESS: Focus on how much you share your reactions, thoughts, and feelings with other people. If you typically offer a very limited or disguised presentation of yourself to others, rate yourself low on openness. If you typically share yourself fully and authentically with others, rate yourself higher on openness. Place an X on the scale below at the point which best illustrates your Openness.

OPENNESS:

MINIMALLY

AVLRAGE

MAXIMALLY

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....

DATA SEEKING: Focus on how often you seek to obtain authentic reactions and information about how other people experience you. Consider whether you elicit and encourage the reactions of others to you. Often people block others from providing such feedback by being threatening, being too timid, keeping in the background, or disguising interpersonal difficulties. Place an X on the scale below at the point at which best illustrates your Data Seeking.

DATA SELKING:

MINIMALLY

AVERAGE

MAXIMAL λ

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9

DATA GIVING: Focus on how often you give authentic reactions and information to others about how you experience them. Consider how often you give feedback to others about how you experience their thoughts, feelings, or behaviors. Place an X on the scale below at the point which best illustrates your Data Giving.

DATA GIVING:

MINIMALLY

AVERAGE

MAXIMALLY

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9

RATINGS OF BEHAVIORS (Within Lab)

You are asked to rate all the members of your group, including yourself, on several different dimensions of behavior using the definitions given below. For some of these ratings, you will be asked to focus exclusively upon the specified behaviors of these persons within this group. In these instances, exclude your impressions of how these people act elsewhere, including all outside the group contacts, whether casual or intimate; also exclude your impressions of how they act "back home." It is essential that you use the full range of ranks permitted (1 through 9) in making each rating. First, think of the individuals who represent the most and least of the described behavior in your group, and assign the extreme numbers (9 and 1) to them. Then work from each extreme towards the middle making sure that you assign each number to at least one person in your group, although the same rank may be assigned to more than one person.

First of all, rank the members of your group from 1 through 9 according to how much you like them. Above the lines given below, write the initials or first names of all persons in your group, and below this line enter a number from 1 through 9, with 1 indicating the person you like most, and so on up to 9--which indicates the person you like least.

Next, rank the members of your group from 1 through 9 according to how much time you have spent with them outside this group. Again, list the initials of all group members in the spaces provided below; also do the same for the three subsequent ratings. Then assign a number from 1 to 9 as you did before with 1 indicating the person you have spent the most time with outside the group, and so on up to 9--which indicates the member you spent the least time with.

OPENNESS: Focus on how fully each person has shared, within this group, personal reactions, thoughts, and feelings with the other group members. The emphasis is on "here and now" interaction, such as how one felt when confronted, challenged, or ignored by others in this group; "back home" experiences, or "childhood traumas" are largely irrelevant except when directly related to "here and now" interactions. Persons who have offered very limited or disguised presentations of themselves should be rated low. Those who have fully and authentically shared themselves, should be rated higher. Remember to use the full scale of 1 (minimally open) to 9 (maximally open). Proceed as before in listing names and ranks, but using the scale illustrated below:

OPENNESS		AVERAGE		MAXIMAL				
MINIMAL								
1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....	6.....	7.....	8.....	9

DATA SEEKING: Consider how fully each person in your group has sought to obtain authentic reactions and information about how the other group members have experienced them within this group. One of our goals has been to supply and process fresh information concerning how each individual relates to others. How fully has each person sought to elicit and encourage others to share their reactions and views of him? Persons may block others from providing data in many ways, including a threatening manner, being too timid, by keeping in the background, or even by disguising their interpersonal difficulties. Again, the focus is on the "here and now," so consider only how fully each person has sought to obtain a better grasp of how he or she relates to others within this group. Please utilize the full scale of 1 (minimal data seeking) to 9 (sought maximal data) as illustrated below:

DATA SEEKING:**MINIMAL****AVERAGE****MAXIMAL**

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9

DATA GIVING: Reflect on how fully each person has attempted to give authentic reactions and information to others about how he experiences them within this group. How fully has each person sought to give feedback to others about how they experience their thoughts, feelings, or behaviors? Again, the focus is on "here and now," so consider only how fully each person has attempted to give others a better grasp of how they experience them in this group. Also remember that sometimes a lot of words tend to be confusing, so persons who are especially clear in their communication may give more data in a few words than others give in many words. Persons who tend to hold back such data should be rated below average. Please apply this measure as illustrated below:

DATA GIVING:**MINIMAL****AVERAGE****MAXIMAL**

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9

THE PERSON DESCRIPTION INSTRUMENT--INTERNAL
Coded to Identify Variables

The bipolar scales given below are to elicit your impressions of how _____ has behaved in recent weeks. Encircle the (write in name) point on each scale which best represents your impression of _____'s behavior.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---------|---------------------|
| ○ NONDEFENSIVE | '.....' | DEFENSIVE |
| Δ LOW ABILITY | '.....' | HIGH ABILITY |
| ● SHOWS FEELINGS | '.....' | HIDES FEELINGS |
| ○ TACTLESS | '.....' | TACTFUL |
| Δ INFORMED | '.....' | UNINFORMED |
| ● RESERVED | '.....' | OUTSPOKEN |
| ○ SYMPATHETIC | '.....' | UNSYMPATHETIC |
| Δ INCOMPETENT | '.....' | COMPETENT |
| ● ENTHUSIASTIC | '.....' | UNENTHUSIASTIC |
| ○ THREATENING | '.....' | NONTHREATENING |
| Δ LOW STATUS | '.....' | HIGH STATUS |
| ● EMOTIONALLY EXPRESSIVE | '.....' | UNEMOTIONAL |
| ○ CONSIDERATE | '.....' | INCONSIDERATE |
| Δ UNINFLUENTIAL | '.....' | INFLUENTIAL |
| ● QUIET | '.....' | LOUD |
| ○ ACCEPTS OTHERS | '.....' | REJECTS OTHERS |
| Δ LOW PRESTIGE | '.....' | HIGH PRESTIGE |
| ● DEMONSTRATIVE | '.....' | UNDEMONSTRATIVE |
| ○ FLEXIBLE | '.....' | INFLEXIBLE |
| Δ IRRESPONSIBLE | '.....' | RESPONSIBLE |
| ● ACTIVE | '.....' | PASSIVE |
| ○ REJECTS SUGGESTIONS | '.....' | ACCEPTS SUGGESTIONS |
| Δ THOROUGH | '.....' | CARELESS |
| ● NONCOMMITTAL | '.....' | COMMITTS SMALL |
| ○ ACCOMMODATING | '.....' | STUBBORN |
| Δ LAZY | '.....' | HARDWORKING |
| ● PARTICIPATES MUCH | '.....' | PARTICIPATES LITTLE |

○=Internal Warmth and Acceptance; Δ=Power and Effectiveness in Work

●=Activity and Expressiveness.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



31293101965659