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ATTRIBUTIONS OF HOSTILITY AND DEPENDENCY RELATED TO DIVERGENT RATINGS OF SELF AND OTHERS

By

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ABSTRACT

ATTRIBUTIONS OF HOSTILITY AND DEPENDENCY RELATED TO DIVERGENT RATINGS OF SELF AND OTHERS

By

David Bennett Rosenberg

While participating in 11 small interpersonal groups, 56 undergraduates rated own and each other's conduct on behaviorally oriented scales of acceptance of self and others (Hurley,1989). Intrapersonal discrepancies (one's self-rating minus one's mean rating of peers) were separately derived for each scale. After groups' terminated, 47 participants described themselves and all same-group members on Lorr and McNair's (1965) Interpersonal Behavior Inventory (IBI).

Hypothesized linkages of each discrepancy with the IBI's two major unipolar factors were investigated. Self-acceptance based discrepancies correlated significantly with these IBI factors in over 80% of all significance tests as did 50% of the other-acceptance based discrepancies. Supporting Sullivan's (1953) view of personal security operations and suggesting considerable ego involvement in these ratings, persons who rated themselves above others tended to be regarded as more Hostile, while those who rated others above self tended to be viewed as more Dependent.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

ATTRIBUTIONS OF HOSTILITY AND DEPENDENCY RELATED TO DIVERGENT RATINGS OF SELF AND OTHERS

> "First, there is Peter as he wishes to appear to Paul, and Paul as he wishes to appear to Peter. Then there is Peter as he really appears to Paul--that is, Paul's image of Peter . . . and similarly there is the reverse situation. Further, there is Peter as he appears to himself, and Paul as he appears to himself. Lastly, there are the bodily Peter and the bodily Paul. Two living beings and six ghostly appearances which mingle in many ways in the conversation between the two" (Buber, 1957, p. 107).

Interpersonal Discrepancies

Psychologists have long believed that interpersonal discrepancies, or differences between an individual's self-perceptions and others' perceptions of that individual, provide rich clinical data (James, 1890; Freud, 1923; Sullivan, 1953; Carson, 1969). Cline (1970) asserted that "most kinds of mental and emotional illness involve fairly serious distortions or breakdowns in communication as well as in interpreting and evaluating social and interactional cues" (p.221). Empirical works have supported this assertion. In a study using advanced student nurses, McGreevy (1962) found that individuals with greater self vs. other discrepancies were viewed by clinicians as more defensive and maladjusted than those with lower discrepancies. Other researchers have reported similar findings (Spiegel, 1970; O'Leary and Donovan, 1974; Donovan and O'Leary, 1976). For example, Donovan and O'Leary (1976) found that patients who displayed markedly distorted self-perceptions "appeared to be significantly more anxious, obsessional, socially immature and alienated, less

insightful, and to have increased difficulties in their thinking and communication, skills" (p. 18) than those inpatients with less distorted self-images.

Although the study of interpersonal discrepancies has been traditionally linked to psychopathology, recent work by Taylor and Brown (1988) has challenged these beliefs and provided evidence that unrealistically positive self-evaluations are associated with mental health. Most of us are confronted with discrepancies at varying intensities throughout our daily living. Thus, a further understanding of these and related discrepancies would appear beneficial for the "normal" as well as the emotionally disturbed. A program at Michigan State University involving undergraduates who participated in small interpersonal groups for experiential learnings (SIGEL) has yielded pertinent data in this area. These groups channel students' attention toward a fuller understanding of their interpersonal behavior through various methods (i.e., appropriate self-disclosure of feelings and thoughts, empathic listening, and respectful confrontations) described in the assigned textbook Egan's (1976) *Interpersonal Living*.

The course description stated that the aim of SIGEL groups is "to build an atmosphere of concern and respect for each member's personhood while also attempting to respond both constructively and honestly to each participant's behavior within a here-and-now context." Twice each term, SIGEL participants rate self and each other group member on subscales representing interpersonal behavior's two principal dimensions; Acceptance versus Rejection of Others (ARO) and Acceptance versus Rejection of Self (ARS). Although more commonly labeled *affiliation* and *dominance* (Wiggins, 1982), these dimensions have been corroborated by many researchers[1]. The present

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[1]The ARS & ARO labels appear to better capture the underlying psychological processes (Adams, 1964; Hurley, 1976).

study also utilized SIGEL groups. More detailed information regarding the structure and nature of these groups can be obtained from Hurley (1986a; 1986b) and Hurley and Rosenberg (1990).

Employing data from earlier SIGEL groups, Dillavou (1978) found that members who rated their own behavior as significantly more favorable than it was rated by peers, denoted Self-Overraters, scored lower in cognitive complexity than their peers. This pattern extends into the social domain, as Hurley and Rosenthal (1978) found that mental health professionals who participated in a small experiential group viewed group-peers who were extreme self-overraters as lower in interpersonal skills than those who were viewed as extreme self-underraters. Recently, Flores (1987) confirmed this finding in a study involving sets of 100 female and 100 male undergraduates who participated in SIGEL groups. Hurley (1988) has also found that group members who rated themselves more modestly were viewed more favorably by their peers, while members with inflated self-ratings were regarded less favorably. Earlier researchers and theorists had generally considered only the amount of such discrepancies. The above small group studies appear to be among the first works to consider both the direction and the magnitude of discrepancies between one's ratings by self and others.

Social and cognitive psychologists have also contributed to the understanding of these phenomena. (Festinger, 1957; Norman, 1969; Bem, 1972; Alperson, 1975; Shrauger & Shoeneman, 1979; Funder, 1980; Higgins, 1987; Markus & Wurf, 1987). Higgins (1987) recently presented the most comprehensive theory of self-discrepancies to date. He stated that discrepancies between self-state representations (or intrapsychic representations) are related to various types of emotional vulnerabilities. A primary assertion of this theory is that the self is represented in three basic

provinces (actual, ideal, and ought), and each province can be viewed from two primary states or standpoints, your own and that of a significant other. The theory holds that discrepancies between pairs of either provinces or standpoints link to specific emotional states. For example, if there is a large discrepancy between an individual's actual and ideal self-image, the person will experience dejection-related emotions, while actual vs. ought discrepancies are purported to engender agitation-related emotions. Additionally, the magnitude of these discrepancies have been found to relate strongly to an individual's experience of specific negative emotions and their intensities. Higgins' work has further extended the literature by looking at how individuals' intrapsychic discrepancies impact their affective states. However there exists another type of personality discrepancy that researchers seem to have largely overlooked. This is the difference between how an individual perceives and feels about her/himself in relation to her/his perceptions and feelings regarding others. This class of discrepancies will be referred to as intrapersonal discrepancies.

Intrapersonal Discrepancies

Johnson (1981) observed that most of the commonly used personality questionnaires yield more information about the respondent than about his or her views of others. There appears to be a general agreement among personality theoreticians and researchers that people tend to make judgements about, describe, and generally evaluate others on traits that are central to themselves (Lemon & Warren, 1974; Shrauger & Patterson, 1974; Markus & Fong, 1982; Lewicki, 1983). Thus, marked differences between a person's self-ratings on a given dimension and his/her ratings of another on the same dimension seem likely to yield important information about the rater. Surprisingly little attention has been paid to discrepant intrapersonal

perceptions and their relation to interpersonal behavior. The present study seeks to elucidate some salient correlates of these discrepancies.

Intrapersonal discrepancies would appear manifested by at least two distinct interpersonal styles. The first style, other-disparagers, is characterized by those who rate themselves markedly more favorable than they rate their peers. While self-effacers, or the second style, are individuals who rate their peers as markedly more positive than they rate themselves. Although these styles appear to be opposite extremes of relating to others, each can also be viewed as one way of maintaining the individual's sense of personal worth. Sullivan (1953) suggested that "security operations" constantly monitor the individual's perceptions in efforts to protect her/his self-esteem (p. 373). Similarly, Markus (1980) noted that "countless studies indicate that the self works to maintain a good image of itself" (p. 125). These views have been empirically corroborated by Zuckerman (1979).

One way the self can maintain a positive self-view is to disparage others. Disparagement, or having "to protect your feeling of personal worth by noting how unworthy everyone around you is," represents a security operation alleged to be a "common phenomenon on the American scene" (Sullivan, 1953, p. 242). He further noted:

> If you have to maintain self-esteem by pulling down the standing of others, you are extraordinarily unfortunate in a variety of ways. . . When security is achieved that way, it strikes at the very roots of that which is essentially human—the utterly vital role of interpersonal relations (p. 242).

Disparagement is an aggressive posture. According to Webster's (1983) unabridged dictionary, to disparage is ". . . to match unequally . . . to lower in

esteem; to discredit . . . to speak slightingly of; to show disrespect for; to belittle" (p. 527). It is likely that those who are disparaged perceive such acts as unfavorable and hostile. Group members may feel especially irritated and/or threatened by disparagers, since the latter attempt to lower the formers' feelings of personal worth.

Individuals who favor disparaging styles have been associated with low self-esteem and high scores on measures of prejudice (Crocker & Schwartz, 1985). These relationships have been demonstrated through the empirical testing of downward comparison theory (Willis, 1981). This theory implies that people with low self-esteem, and who also feel threatened, are most likely to regard others unfavorably, especially outgroup members. These individuals also maintain enhanced views of ingroup members. To test this theory, Crocker, Thompson, McGraw, and Ingerman (1987) conducted a two-part experiment using students at Northwestern University. The results showed some support for downward social comparisons, although low self-esteem students displayed "a generalized negativity toward all targets" (Crocker et al., 1987, p. 911), regardless of in- or outgroup status. Thus, these findings only partially support downward social comparison theory, and better match Sullivan's notion of disparagement.

Self-effacement, which can be assessed by intrapersonal discrepancies, may also be construed as a defense against low self-esteem. Although Sullivan did not specify this style, Reyher (1981) operationalized a similar phenomenon which he labeled self-eclipsing or an approval-seeking security operation. Webster's (1983) unabridged dictionary defines abasement as "the act of humbling or bringing low" (p. 2). Individuals employing a self-effacing style probably see themselves as "beating the other guy to the punch." Markus & Wurf (1987) supported this notion by observing that "people may even be self-

denigrating in the service of self-enhancement." (p. 320). Hence, strategies like self-handicapping and self-defeating actions prior to a performance can serve "to provide a ready-made excuse for failure" (Markus & Wurf, 1987, p. 320).

Studies that have explored self vs. other phenomenon have often been flawed methodologically. In reviewing this literature, Wylie (1974) concluded that many studies employed measures which have inadequate or unexplored construct validity, solo raters, and methods which require many inferences by the rater regarding the target person. Others have also voiced conceptual and methodological concerns (Shrauger & Shoeneman, 1979). Recently, Kenrick and Funder (1988) asserted:

> research now indicates quite clearly that anyone who seeks predictive validity from trait ratings will do better to use (a) raters who are thoroughly familiar with the person being rated; (b) multiple behavioral observations; (c) multiple observers; (d) dimensions that are publicly observable: and (e) behaviors that are relevant to the dimension in question (p. 31).

This present study addressed these issues by using: (a) well-established measures of interpersonal behavior; (b) multiple raters; (c) ratings based on naturally occurring behavior in group sessions; (d) raters had full knowledge of who would be rating them and on the behaviors being rated; and (e) raters who were well-acquainted with each other.

Operational Definitions

Intrapersonal discrepancy scores will be derived from differences between how individuals rated self and their pooled group peers on brief scales of Acceptance vs. Rejection of Self (ARS) and Other (ARO). These scores were standardized (z-score) for each group to reduce the impact of groups having

atypically high or low rating norms. The three relevant rating styles derived from these discrepancy scores will be defined as follows:

Other-disparagers are individuals who positioned self in the upper third of the distribution of ratings separately on either ARS or ARO self-ratings, while their mean ratings of others fell in the bottom third of either measure.

Self-effacers are defined as individuals who placed self in the bottom third of the distribution of either ARS or ARO self-ratings, while their mean ratings of others placed them in the relevant distribution's top third.

The least discrepant raters are all individuals who did not fit either of the two previous definitions.

This study will examine the relationship between the above rating styles and these rater's self and peer-based scores on a well-accepted inventory of interpersonal behavior, the Interpersonal Behavior Inventory (IBI-4). The IBI-4 has been shown to be comprised of essentially three major factors; Affiliation, Hostility, and Dependency (Hurley, 1989). Hypothesized linkages between the Hostility and Dependency factors and the aforementioned intrapersonal rating styles are listed below. Additionally, this study will also consider the role of gender in relation to these intrapersonal discrepancies and IBI-4 factors.

Hypotheses (H)

H_1: Other-disparaging raters will be viewed by their peers as highest on the IBI-4's Hostility factor, above both least discrepant and self-effacing raters.

H_2: Self-effacers will be rated by peers as highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above other-disparagers and least discrepant raters.

H_3: Self-effacers will rate self highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above self-ratings of other-disparagers and least discrepant raters.

METHOD

Participants

The participants were 56 (17 male; 39 female) undergraduates at a large midwestern university enrolled in an upper-level psychology course: Small Interpersonal Groups for Experiential Learning (SIGEL) instructed by Professor John Hurley for each term of the regular academic year since Fall term, 1971. The present study employed data from all SIGEL groups for the Spring and Fall terms of 1983. These 11 groups consisted of 3 to 7 members, usually juniors or seniors (average age about 21 years) plus one or two leaders. Criteria for placement into the groups were as follows: (a) students were not to be well acquainted with any other member in their group, especially the leader(s); (b) the student's ability to meet at the scheduled times; and (c) balancing the male/female ratio in each group.

Nine groups were co-led and two were solo-led. Prior to leading a group, leaders participated as SIGEL group members and then spent a subsequent term in preparation for leadership. This latter term entailed weekly direct observations of SIGEL groups, readings and discussions of the small group literature, and participation in an advanced SIGEL group. Leaders (11 males; 9 females) ranged in age from 19 to about 30 with a mean age of approximately 24 years.

This study omitted members' ratings of leaders because SIGEL members tend to rate leaders quite positively. This may be true because SIGEL leaders are generally perceived as authority figures who are close in age to members. Similarly, SIGEL leadership selection and training may also play a role in this

phenomena. Lastly, low ratings of a leader by a member would likely be viewed by the leader as an invitation to confront the member for rating him/her unfavorably, and this may seem scary to members. Consequently, the leaders' intrapersonal discrepancy scores were excluded. However, leaders' ratings of members were retained to strengthen the data base which would have been weakened by excluding the ratings given by leaders who are often the most experienced and best-informed participants. All members' ratings of self and each other were included in subsequent analyses.

Groups convened during a period of about nine weeks, meeting twice weekly for 90-minutes, plus two 12-hour (uninterrupted) marathon sessions usually held near the third and seventh weekend of the term, totaling roughly 50 hours of group interaction. At the end of each term, members were strongly encouraged to anonymously rate this course on scales ranging from exceptionally bad (1)--below average (3)--average (5)--above average (7)--to exceptionally good (9). Returns from about 98% of all group members for the past five years on the item , "Describe SIGEL's value to you, as compared with other Department of Psychology courses" yielded mean ratings between "above average" and "exceptionally good." Similar ratings were obtained when members were asked how they would describe SIGEL to other students unfamiliar with the SIGEL course. A very high rate of attendance at SIGEL's small group meetings, 96.7% for the past five years, also suggests that the course was well received by the students.

Measures and Procedure

Acceptance vs. Rejection of Self & Other (ARS & ARO)

Several prior studies (Hurley, 1976; Hurley & Rosenthal, 1978; Hurley, 1986a; Hurley, 1989; Small & Hurley, 1978) have established the construct

validity of the ARS and ARO interpersonal measures. Evidence for their convergent and divergent validity has been demonstrated through expected patterns of correlations with prototypical measures of *dominance* and *affiliation* (Wiggins, 1982). For example, Gerstenhaber (1975) found that the LOV factor, akin to *affiliation*, of LaForge and Suczek's (1955) Interpersonal Checklist (ICL) linked significantly to ARO ($r = .55$, $p \leq .001$) but not at all to ARS ($r = .00$). Conversely, the ICL's DOM factor, akin to *dominance*, correlated .70 with ARS ($p \leq .001$) but nonsignificantly to ARO ($r = .18$). In an unpublished study (Hurley, 1983) partly using data from the present sample, 47 SIGEL group members described self and all other same-group members on Lorr and McNair's (1965) Interpersonal Behavior Inventory (IBI) after 50-hours of group interaction. It was found that members' mean peer-based ratings on ARS (midway, and near group's end) correlated positively (Time 1 = .41 & Time 2 = .63) with peer-based ratings on IBI's five-scale Dominance factor, but linked inversely (Time 1 = -.39 & Time 2 = -.44) with IBI's four-scale Intropunitive factor. Similar ratings on ARO, which did not link significantly to either of these factors, correlated strongly (Time 1 = .73 & Time 1 = .74) with the IBI's six-scale Affiliation factor.

The following 10-point, bipolar, semantic differential scales assessed ARS: *Shows feelings--Hides feelings, Expressive--Guarded, Active--Passive,* and *Dominant--Submissive.* ARO's components were: *Warm--Cold, Helps others--Harms others, Gentle--Harsh,* and *Accepts others--Rejects others.* All participants completed rating booklets (See Appendix A pp. 38-39) containing these scales twice during each group. The initial scale presented in these booklets, *Liked--Disliked,* did not contribute to ARS or ARO but provided the rater an opportunity to express strong feelings that might otherwise interfere with his/her ability to rate accurately. Previous findings by Smith (1979) partially supported this tactic. After *Liked--Disliked,* the booklet alternated ARS and

ARO subscales (as shown above) until all were presented (starting with *Shows feelings--Hides feelings* and ending with *Accepts others--Rejects others*). The scales' favorable and unfavorable anchors were irregularly staggered to reduce the influence of response sets.

During SIGEL's weekly class lecture, attended by members of all groups, the instructor thoroughly reviewed the mechanics and implications of these ratings while also emphasizing that members' ratings had no impact on course grades. Additionally, participants were informed that the ratings would be most useful if they were filled-out candidly. Each group elected a data coordinator whose duties included responsibility for distributing, collecting, and scoring the rating booklets (these functions were closely monitored by SIGEL's instructor). This further separated the ratings from lectures and grades.

Raters were instructed to mark the space that "best represents your personal impression of each member's actual behavior within all group sessions up to now" for each scale. The instructions also stated that it "will be most useful if you use the full range of possible ratings" and that "these ratings will be fully shared with all group members later." The marked spaces were translated into scores ranging from 0 to 9 for each subscale, yielding a possible range of scores from 0 to 36 for both ARS and ARO.

The initial administration of these booklets was after each group's first postmarathon session, following about 23 hours of group interaction. About one week later each person received a full set of all ratings given and received in their group for review and discussion at that group's next meeting. Following roughly another 20 hours (or after a total of about 43 hours) of small group interaction, the ratings were readministered and subsequently shared and reviewed as before.

Interpersonal Behavior Inventory (IBI)

Circumplex models of interpersonal behavior surfaced in the literature near the 1957 publication of Leary's seminal work, *Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality.* Building on this, and the work of others (i.e., Schutz, 1958; Schaefer, 1959; Foa, 1961), Lorr and McNair (1963) developed the IBI in an attempt to better assess the circular ordering of 13 categories of interpersonal behavior. Subsequent IBI revisions (Lorr & McNair, 1965; Lorr, Bishop, & McNair, 1965; Lorr & McNair, 1966) have added two more categories (15 total). The IBI's original Yes-No format was also changed to a four-point scale: (1) Not at All, (2) Occasionally, (3) Fairly Often, and (4) Quite Often.

Although the IBI was initially developed from psychotherapist's ratings of their patients, Lorr and McNair (1965) found that relatively untrained normal raters reproduced the IBI's circular ordering of variables and its major factor structure. In a comprehensive and scholarly review of the literature on interpersonal measures, Wiggins concluded that "on both substantive and psychometric grounds, the Interpersonal Behavior Inventory appears to be a useful device for assessment of patient characteristics and evaluation of therapeutic outcomes" (p. 15).

Lorr and Suziedelis (1969) sought to ascertain the underlying structure of the IBI's specific scales and also to determine its higher-level factors. They used three populations--nonpsychotics (clients being seen in treatment for at least 4 months; $n = 525$), college undergraduates (whom they labeled normals; $n = 290$), and neurotics (clients in "once-a-week treatment"; $n = 60$). A friend or acquaintance of at least one year filled-out an IBI-4 that described each undergraduate. The patient's psychotherapist completed an IBI-4 for the nonpsychotics and neurotics. The results indicated that the IBI-4's 15 scales

formed five unipolar factors. However, other evidence suggests fewer factors can account for the IBI-4's underlying structure (Bochner & Kaminski, 1974; Hurley, 1989).

In a partial replication of the above study, Bochner and Kaminski (1974) found that only three factors accounted for the variance among the IBI-4's 15 scales in a sample of 267 undergraduates at Michigan State University. They labeled these factors: 1) Hostility--Affection, 2) Dominance, and 3) Submissiveness. Unlike Lorr and Suziedelis (1969), Bochner and Kaminski used only one population, nonclinical undergraduates at Michigan State University. Furthermore, each of their subjects provided two sets of ratings; self and an acquaintance they "liked very much." Unlike the works of Lorr and Suziedelis (1969) and Bochner and Kaminski (1974), the present study employed multiple raters (4 to 8) of each target person and obtained ratings from naturally occurring behaviors during small group sessions.

Utilizing data including that of the present sample, Hurley (1989) factor analyzed IBI-4 ratings of 76 SIGEL group members, again finding only three primary factors. Labeled after the specific IBI-4 scale most central to each factor, these were: 1) bipolar Affiliation (affiliation, nurturance, agreeableness, sociability, minus scales inhibition, and detachment), 2) unipolar Hostility (hostility, competitiveness, exhibition, dominance, and mistrust), and lastly, 3) unipolar Dependency (dependency, abasiveness, submissiveness, and deference). Hurley's factor structure was used in the present study primarily due to sample similarities.

Participants voluntarily completed the IBI-4 for all members of their group including self at the end of the term. In an effort to discourage "good subject" behavior, the participants were reminded that these IBI-4 responses would not impact their grades. In addition to the standard IBI-4 instructions, members were

told to base impressions solely on their in-group observations (see Appendix B p. 40). These ratings were completed and returned within one month of the group's termination.

Statistical Analyses

All hypotheses were tested using one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA). Then, if the ANOVA produced a significant F ($p \leq .05$), the differences between the means were analyzed using Tukey's method of multiple comparisons. Each hypothesis was separately tested using the data from the 23- and 43-hour ratings for intrapersonal discrepancies on ARS and ARO. Additionally, a summary score, which aggregated the two rating occasions, was also tested. Thus, six one-way ANOVAs were made for each hypothesis ($ARS_{23\ hour}$; $ARS_{43\ hour}$; summary ARS, or 23- plus 43-hour ratings; and the three parallel ARO ratings). This served to detect differences that may have been limited to either a specific dimension or to a single occasion.

Also examined were Pearson product-moment correlations between each person's six intrapersonal discrepancy scores (self-rating minus the individual's mean rating of all other group members excluding leaders) and the three salient IBI-4 factors. All means and standard deviations for ARS and ARO intrapersonal discrepancies are reported in Appendix C (p. 41). Statistical significance tests used the .05 level and employed nondirectional rejection regions for the ANOVAs and multiple comparisons. The one-tailed rejection region was used for all correlations since direction was predicted by the hypotheses.

RESULTS

Reliability

May (1988) has reported that peer- and self-based (23- & 45-hour) Cronbach alpha's ranged from .84 to .93 for Acceptance versus Rejection of Self (ARS), and from .77 to .93 for the Acceptance versus Rejection of Others (ARO). The present data, using self-based ratings, yielded Cronbach alpha's of: ARS = .82 and ARO = .81 after 23 hours of group interaction, and ARS = .84 and ARO = .88 after 43 hours.

This study also reflects prior works (Hurley, 1986; Hurley, 1989, Hurley & Rosenberg, 1989) that have found these ARS and ARO measures to be relatively independent. The present interscale correlations were .27 (self-based) and .13 (peer-based) after 23 hours of group interaction, and rose to .44 and .36 (self and peer-based, respectively) after 43 hours. Thus, at this latter time, each dimension accounted for only about 19% of the others' variance for self-ratings and 13% for peer-based ratings.

Present Versus Normative Samples

Table 1 shows the results of all *t*-tests performed between this study's

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Insert Table 1 about here

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sample and normative data for both the ARS and ARO measures (Flores, 1987), and also for the IBI factors (Lorr & Suziedelis, 1969). The Flores (1987) study

TABLE 1

Group Members' Mean Ratings Received from Peers on Acceptance vs. Rejection of Self (ARS) & Others (ARO)

	Flores 1986 (N = 200)		Present Study (N = 56)			
ARS	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	d	t
23-hour	22.2	6.5	21.7	6.3	.5	.54
43-hour	25.0	5.1	24.5	5.7	.5	.67
ARO						
23-hour	25.8	4.1	26.2	3.9	.4	.89
43-hour	27.5	3.6	27.3	4.4	.3	.48

Peer-based Interpersonal Behavior Inventory (IBI) Norms vs. Present Study

	1968 Norms (N= 290)		Present Study (N= 56)			
Factor Scores	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	d	t
Affiliation	98.5	N/A	95.3	13.8	3.2	1.1
Hostility	87.6	N/A	94.9	17.7	7.3	1.3
Dependency	112.4	N/A	126.1	17.2	13.7	2.2 [$p \leq .05$]

was chosen because of its large size (N = 200) and gender balance (100 men & 100 women). Mean differences between the present sample and Flores' sample for the ARS and ARO measures did not exceed .5 on a scale which ranged from 0 to 36. Thus, no statistically significant differences between the samples were found.

Similarly, statistically significant differences were not found between the sets of means for the IBI's Affiliation factor (mean difference = 3.2 with a scale range from 58 to 232) and Hostility factor (mean difference = 7.3 with a scale range from 47 to 188). However, a statistically significant difference was obtained on the IBI's Dependency factor ($p \leq .05$ two-tailed; mean difference = 13.7 with a scale range of 35 to 140) in which the present sample averaged 13.7 points higher than the original norms. The meaning of this difference is unclear, and may be related to the dated norms for the IBI (the original data was collected over 20 years ago). Additionally, the present study utilized about five times as many raters for each participant yielding much more stable means than the Lorr and Suziedelis (1969) study. For the purposes of this study, the present sample appears reasonably representative of the normative data.

Hypotheses

The ANOVAs and multiple comparisons for each hypothesis are summarized in Tables 2 and 3 respectively (ANOVA's are presented fully in Appendix D, pp. 42-46).

Insert Table 2 about here

TABLE 2

Results from Analyses of Variance for all Hypotheses*

	Hypothesis 1		Hypothesis 2		Hypothesis 3	
ARS	F	p	F	p	F	p
23 hour	**5.3**	**.008**	**3.3**	**.05**	**3.2**	**.05**
43 hour	**6.8**	**.002**	**4.8**	**.01**	2.1	.13
Summary	**6.2**	**.003**	**7.8**	**.001**	1.1	.33
ARQ						
23 hour	.18	.82	.05	.96	2.3	.12
43 hour	.52	.60	.26	.78	1.9	.16
Summary	.22	.81	.33	.72	2.0	.14

H_1: Other-disparaging raters will be viewed by their peers as highest on the IBI-4's Hostility factor, above self-effacers and least discrepant raters.

H_2: Self-effacers will be rated by peers as highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above other-disparagers and least discrepant raters.

H_3: Self-effacers will rate self highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above self-ratings of other-disparagers and least discrepant raters.

* ANOVA results are fully reported in Appendix D (pp. 42-46).

Insert Table 3 about here

H1: Other-disparaging raters will be viewed by their peers as highest on the IBI-4's hostility factor, above both least discrepant and self-effacing raters. The findings fully confirmed this hypothesis for ARS discrepancies, but not for ARO based discrepancies. The ANOVAs for $ARS_{23\ hour}$ and $ARS_{43\ hour}$ were both significant ($p \leq .01$), with other-disparagers rated significantly higher (Tukey $p \leq .05$) than self-effacers for Hostility each time. Similarly, the summary ARS score also yielded a significant F ($p \leq .01$). Other-disparaging raters were rated highest on the Hostility factor; significantly (Tukey $p \leq .05$) above self-effacers, but not significantly higher than least discrepant raters.

Individuals whose intrapersonal rating style was other-disparaging were also rated higher than self-effacers after the 23-hour ARO ratings, but after 43-hours, the self-effacers were rated highest. For summary ARO, other-disparagers were viewed by their peers as highest on Hostility, followed by least discrepants, then by self-effacers, although none of these ARO-related differences achieved statistical significance.

H2: Self-effacers will be rated by peers as highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above both other-disparagers and least discrepant raters. The results partially supported this hypothesis. All three ARS related ANOVA's attained statistical significance ($ARS_{23\ hour}$, $p \leq .05$; $ARS_{43\ hour}$, $p \leq .01$; and summary ARS, $p \leq .01$). Self-effacers, as measured by summary ARS, were rated highest on the Dependency factor, followed in order by least discrepant raters and by other-disparagers.

TABLE 3

Multiple Comparisons Between Intrapersonal Rating Styles and IBI-4 Means[1]

H_1: Other-disparaging (O-D) raters will be viewed by their peers as highest on the IBI-4's hostility factor, above self-effacing (S-E) and least discrepant (LD) raters.

Rating occasion	Comparison (Mean)	Mean Difference	Tukey
ARS			
23 hour	O-D (103.6) minus S-E (86.0)	17.6	**4.6***
23 hour	O-D (103.6) minus LD (94.6)	9.0	2.4
43 hour	O-D (104.1) minus S-E (84.6)	19.5	**5.2***
43 hour	O-D (104.1) minus LD (95.4)	8.7	2.3
Summary	O-D (104.7) minus S-E (86.1)	8.6	**4.9***
Summary	O-D (104.7) minus LD (94.8)	9.9	2.4

H_2: Self-effacers (S-E) will be rated by peers as highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above other-disparagers (O-D) and least discrepant (LD) raters.

Rating occasion	Comparison (Mean)	Mean Difference	Tukey
ARS			
23 hour	S-E (130.7) minus O-D (118.2)	12.5	3.2
23 hour	S-E (130.7) minus LD (129.6)	1.1	<1
43 hour	S-E (135.0) minus O-D (118.7)	16.3	**4.3***
43 hour	S-E (135.0) minus LD (125.0)	10.0	2.6
Summary	S-E (132.3) minus O-D (114.3)	18.0	**5.1***
Summary	S-E (132.3) minus LD (130.9)	1.4	<1

H_3: Self-effacers will rate self highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above self-ratings of other-disparagers and least discrepant raters.

Rating occasion	Comparison (Mean)	Mean Difference	Tukey
ARS			
23 hour	S-E (129.8) minus O-D (112.3)	17.5	**3.5***
23 hour	S-E (129.8) minus LD (123.6)	6.2	<1

[1] Summary score means are not equivalent to the mean of 23-hour plus 45-hour ratings. They represent the highest, middle, and lowest thirds of the aggregated distribution.

The difference between self-effacers and other-disparagers attained statistical significance ($p \leq .05$), while the difference between self-effacers and least discrepants did not. This pattern also held for 23- and 43-hour ARS ratings with self-effacers rated higher than other-disparagers, and above, although not significantly so, the least discrepants. No ARO based ANOVA was statistically significant. However, in each instance self-effacers were rated highest, twice followed by least discrepants and other-disparagers (summary and 23-hour ARO), and once followed by other-disparagers and least discrepants ($ARO_{43\ hour}$).

H3: Self-effacers will rate self highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above self-ratings of other-disparagers and least discrepant raters. Only one of the three ARS related ANOVAs was significant ($ARS_{23\ hour}$, $p \leq .05$). Summary ARS self-effacers were rated higher than least discrepants and other-disparagers, although this difference was not statistically significant. For $ARS_{23\ hour}$, self-effacers were rated significantly higher ($p \leq .05$) than other-disparagers. Although the pattern was the same at $ARS_{43\ hour}$, the differences were not statistically significant. No ARO based ANOVA was statistically significant, although the pattern of these means fit the hypothesis. Thus, effacers self-ratings were always higher than self-ratings for either least discrepants or other-disparagers.

Correlations Between All Measures

Table 4 presents all correlations between ARS and ARO intrapersonal discrepancy measures and the three IBI-4 factors. Two-thirds (44 of 66) of Table 4's correlations achieved statistical significance and about 70% of these (31 of 44) were positive. Gender was omitted from Table 4 because it

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Insert table 4 about here

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participated in only one statistically significant relationship. Self-rated hostility was linked inversely ($p \leq .01$) to gender, indicating that men's self-perceptions included more hostility than did womens'.

All 15 correlations involving the six ARS and ARO discrepancy measures were positive, and over two-thirds achieved statistical significance. Each measure's 23-hour discrepancy correlated significantly ($p \leq .001$) with the same index at 45-hours. Thus, individuals who displayed intrapersonal discrepancies relatively early on tended to maintain these discrepancies later in the group. Of the four intersource and interoccasion correlations, only one attained statistical significance. $ARS_{23\ hour}$ discrepancies accounted for about 13% ($r = .36$) of the variance in $ARO_{23\ hour}$ discrepancy scores. At 45-hours, ARS discrepancies accounted for only 4% of ARO discrepancy scores. The correlation between summary scores on each measure also attained statistical significance ($r = .29$, $p \leq .05$), providing further evidence of the relative independence of these indices. As expected, both summary scores correlated significantly ($p \leq .001$) with all of its own components.

Among the IBI-4 factors, eight of 15 correlations achieved statistical significance ($p \geq .05$). Showing strong to modest intersource agreement, each same-factor rating by self vs. peers attained statistical significance: Affiliation $r = .71$ ($p \leq .001$ one-tailed); Hostility $r = .29$ ($p \leq .05$ one-tailed); and Dependency $r = .48$ ($p \leq .001$ one-tailed). The two remaining significant correlations were negative, linking peer-based Affiliation inversely with Dependency, both peer-based ($r = -.29$, $p \leq .05$ one-tailed) and self-based ($r = -.34$, $p \leq .05$ one-tailed).

TABLE 4

Correlations Between Intrapersonal Discrepancies on ARS and ARO with IBI-4 Factors

		ARS			ARO			IBI-4 Factor Scores					
		23-hour	45-hour	Sum	23-hour	45-hour	Sum	AFF (P)	AFF [S]	HOS (P)	HOS (S)	DEP (P)	DEP (S)
	23-hour		.65	.91	.36	.11	.27	.34	.27	.44	.00	-.35	-.27
ARS	45-hour	.65		.91	.25	.20	.25	.33	.35	.54	.12	-.37	-.25
	Sum	.91	.91		.33	.17	.28	.37	.34	.54	.07	-.40	-.28
	23-hour	.36	.25	.33		.60	.90	.49	.36	.05	-.15	.04	-.25
ARO	45-hour	.11	.20	.17	.60		.89	.42	.40	-.09	-.15	.00	-.26
	Sum	.27	.25	.28	.90	.89		.51	.43	-.02	-.17	.03	-.29
	AFF (P)	.34	.33	.37	.49	.42	.51		.72	-.05	-.11	-.27	-.34
	AFF [S]	.27	.35	.34	.36	.40	.43	.72		.05	.06	-.15	-.15
IBI-4	HOS (P)	.44	.54	.54	.05	-.09	-.02	-.05	.05		.29	-.25	-.27
	HOS [S]	.00	.12	.07	-.15	-.15	-.17	-.11	.06	.29		-.15	.27
	DEP (P)	-.35	-.37	-.40	.04	.00	.03	-.27	-.15	-.25	-.15		.48
	DEP [S]	-.27	-.25	-.28	-.25	-.26	-.29	-.34	-.15	-.27	.27	.48	

N = 56 For ARS & ARO & Peer-Based IBI-4 Factors

$r = .22$ $p \leq .05$ one-tailed $r = .27$ $p \leq .05$ two-tailed

$r = .31$ $p \leq .01$ one-tailed $r = .35$ $p \leq .01$ two-tailed

$r = .42$ $p \leq .001$ one-tailed $r = .44$ $p \leq .001$ two-tailed

N = 47 For All IBI-4 Self-Based Ratings

$r = .24$ $p \leq .05$ one-tailed $r = .29$ $p \leq .05$ two-tailed

$r = .34$ $p \leq .05$ one-tailed $r = .38$ $p \leq .05$ two-tailed

$r = .45$ $p \leq .05$ one-tailed $r = .48$ $p \leq .05$ two-tailed

Thus, more affiliative persons were seen as less self-abasing by both peers and self.

Table 4's 36 remaining correlations concerned linkages between the two types of intrapersonal discrepancies and the three IBI-4 factor scores. Two-thirds (24 of 36) of these correlations attained statistical significance, and about 60% were positive. Accounting for half (12 of 24) of the statistically significant relationships, all discrepancy measures linked positively and significantly to both self- and peer-based Affiliation. These correlations suggest that members who viewed themselves as more self- and other-accepting than their peers tended to be generally perceived as relatively Affiliative.

Self-ratings on Dependency correlated negatively and significantly with all ARS and ARO discrepancies. However, peer-rated Dependency linked negatively and significantly only with ARS discrepancies. Thus, members who displayed a self-effacing intrapersonal rating style were also viewed by their peers and self as more Dependent. The remaining three significant correlations were negative and linked Hostility with all ARS discrepancies. This suggests that members who place themselves above others on self-acceptance also generally regarded themselves as more Hostile than others.

DISCUSSION

The representativeness of the present sample was evaluated due to its modest size and the unique small group context. Mean differences between the present sample and Flores' (1987) sample of 100 men and 100 women previously enrolled in the same psychology course never exceeded .5 ($p > .10$) on scales ranging from 0 to 36 and t-tests revealed no significant intersample differences on the measures of self- and other-acceptance. Hurley (1989) noted that the IBI-4 norms were absent from the literature as they were omitted from the original article revising the IBI (Lorr & Suziedelis, 1969), and also in a later examination of the IBI's factor structure (Bochner & Kaminski, 1974). The present IBI-4's Hostility and Affiliation factors showed no statistically significant differences from the available normative data, although the Dependency factor did differ significantly (mean difference = 13.7, $p \leq .05$). The 20-year gap since the establishment of these norms, and the methodological differences (one rater vs. five raters per target) likely contributed to this finding. The present data appears reasonably representative of IBI-4 factor scores, given its methodological advantages, and that two of the three IBI-4 factors did not differ significantly from earlier reports.

This study's central findings supported the assertion (hypothesis 1) that individuals who rate themselves markedly above others will be viewed as relatively hostile by those others. Group members who rated themselves considerably more favorably than they had rated others were viewed by these peers as more hostile. This was especially true for individuals who manifested other-disparaging intrapersonal discrepancies on the self-acceptance scale. They were viewed by their peers as significantly ($p \leq .05$) more hostile than

others both midway through the group, and near its end. The other-acceptance scale yielded similar differences although these were not always statistically significant.

Results from the second hypothesis regarding self-effacing intrapersonal discrepancies also followed the expected pattern, although fewer of these relationships attained statistical significance. Members who exhibited self-effacing ARS and ARO based discrepancies were rated by peers, and by self, as highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor. All ARS discrepancies were significant for peer-based ratings, but for self-ratings, only the summary ARS discrepancy attained significance.

It had not been anticipated that intrapersonal discrepancies along the ARS and ARO dimensions would relate differentially with the IBI-4's personality factors. However, no ANOVA pertaining to other-acceptance or ARO discrepancies attained statistical significance, while over two-thirds (7 of 9) of the ARS related-discrepancies did ($p \leq .05$). Intrapersonal discrepancies apparently play a larger role when an individual sees him/herself as more assertive (i.e., expressive, active) vs. submissive (i.e., passive, guarded), as opposed to more or less "nice" (i.e., warm, gentle) than his/her peers. Alternatively, it may be that the ARO discrepancies link to variables not fully represented by the IBI-4 major factors. For example, individuals who rate self higher than others for warmth and acceptance may be seen by their peers as more compliant or superficial.

One area of study that has relevance to the present work is Brown's (1986) concept of the "self-other bias." Brown had individuals rate themselves and others on various trait adjectives and the findings suggested a "pervasive tendency to cast the self in more positive and less negative terms" in relation to others (p. 370). However, Brown also identified three variables which he

believed would limit the magnitude of this "self-other bias." He suggested that the bias decreases as you become better acquainted with the person to be rated. Conversely, he asserted that this bias would likely increase with greater ambiguity of the trait to be rated. Finally, Brown noted that "it is likely that requiring individuals to appraise themselves and others publicly would reduce the magnitude of the self-other bias" (p. 373). All of these features seem pertinent to the present study, as all individuals were well-acquainted, the "traits" were relatively unambiguous, and it was known in advance that all ratings would be shared publicly within the group. These considerations suggest that the "self-other bias" would be diminished in the present circumstances.

Nevertheless, the present findings appear to partially support the self-other bias. Individuals in the present population did rate themselves higher than they rated others on self-acceptance (ARS mean discrepancy = 3.3). However, a considerably smaller difference (ARO mean discrepancy = -.13) for the other-acceptance scale was found. This interscale difference was statistically significant ($t = 2.00$, $p \leq .05$ one-tailed test). Closer inspection revealed that the self-other bias tended to decrease as group participants became better acquainted ($ARS_{23\ hour}$ mean discrepancy = 1.9; self vs. other $t = 2.00$, $p \leq .05$ one-tailed test: $ARS_{43\ hour}$ mean discrepancy = 1.5; self vs. other $t = 1.64$, $p > .10$ one-tailed test). Thus, there was modest support for the self-other bias on measures of self-acceptance (people may tend to disparage others), however, for scales of other-acceptance the self-other bias faded and its direction reversed in the present sample.

One possible explanation is that these college students were concerned with appearing "nice" or "social" and were therefore less likely to rate others as more toward cold, harsh, unhelpful, and rejecting. Additional insight into this

question could be gained from looking at intrapersonal discrepancies on the major IBI-4 factors. It may be that a self-other bias exists for the prosocial scales that comprise the Affiliation factor, but not for the antisocial scales in the Hostility factor. Further research in this area is needed to more meaningfully understand these differences.

The correlations between the IBI-4 factors and the ARS and ARO measures yielded mixed findings. Supporting the notion of disparagement expressed by Sullivan (1953; 1970), and others (Crocker & Schwartz, 1985; Crocker et. al., 1987), individuals with greater intrapersonal discrepancies on self-acceptance were viewed as relatively hostile by their peers. Significant negative correlations between discrepancies on self-acceptance with peer-based ratings on the Dependency factor (i.e., scales of dependence, abasement) suggested that individuals with self-effacing intrapersonal rating styles are viewed as more Dependent by their peers. In addition, peers also viewed raters whose style was toward self-effacing (on the self-acceptance measure) as more hostile than others. While it may be true that these self-effacers are attempting to "beat the other guy to the punch," they may also be throwing a few punches in this process. Evidence for this was reflected in the significant negative correlations between the IBI-4's Dependency and Hostility factors. Group members who rated themselves (or were rated by peers) as more toward dependent and abasing tended to be viewed by their peers as higher in hostility.

There was surprisingly little overlap between intrapersonal discrepancies on self- and other-acceptance. Thus, discrepancies on self-acceptance or ARS accounted for about 13% of the variance of those on other-acceptance or ARO after 23-hours of group interaction and only about four percent after 45-hours. The relative independence of these measures ought to be considered in the

design and methodology of future studies. The IBI-4 factors of Affiliation, Hostility, and Dependency showed moderate agreement between ratings by pooled peers and self. Each of these intersource correlations attained statistical significance (Affiliation = .72, $p \leq .001$; Hostility = .29, $p \leq .05$; Dependency = .48, $p \leq .01$). This agreement was significantly stronger for the prosocial Affiliation factor than for the relatively neutral Dependency factor and the antisocial Hostility factor.

Results from the present set of correlations also produced some puzzling findings. Among these were the positive and significant links between IBI-4's self- and peer-based Affiliation factor (i.e., scales of affiliation, nuturance, etc.) with all intrapersonal discrepancy scores. Thus, individuals who rated themselves above their peers on measures of self- and other-acceptance were also viewed as more affiliative by both self and peers. One possible explanation for this relationship is that these individuals were actually more accepting of themselves and others, resulting in more affiliative group behaviors.

The present work has addressed the methodological flaws inherent when examining "trait" ratings and discrepancy phenomenon (Wylie, 1974; Kenrick & Funder, 1988). This study also utilized a natural environment from which the participants had nearly 50 hours of group interaction to make well-informed ratings about their self and peers. However, several limitations must be noted. First, the sample size was relatively small. Each category of intrapersonal discrepancies (Other-Disparaging, Least Discrepant, and Self-Effacing) was obtained by dividing the distribution of the total sample into thirds (yielding only 18 or 19 persons per category). Although this enhances confidence in the present finding's generalizability, this process may not give a very clear picture of more extreme disparagers or effacers (e.g., the bottom 5% of the distribution).

Another area of concern is that the participants were students enrolled in an upper level psychology course at a large midwestern university. Generalizing these results to other populations appears premature. Most importantly, there appears a general lack of knowledge specifically addressing intrapersonal discrepancies. Further work in this area might profitably focus on the role of these discrepancies in other areas of life (i.e., job settings, intelligence, judging the quality of works of art, music etc.).

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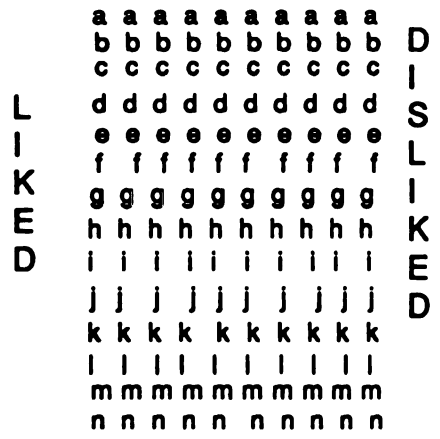
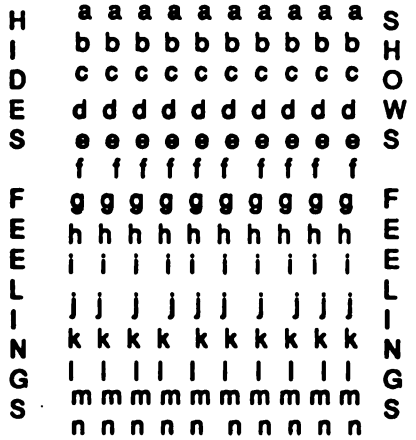
LIST OF APPENDICES

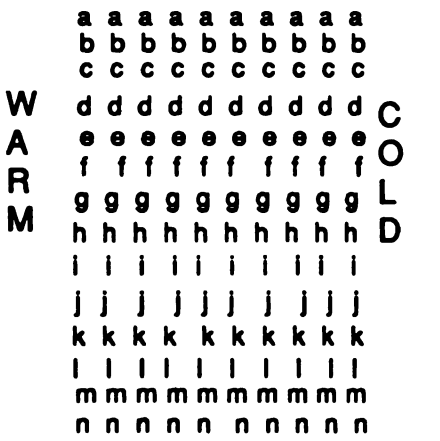
APPENDIX A

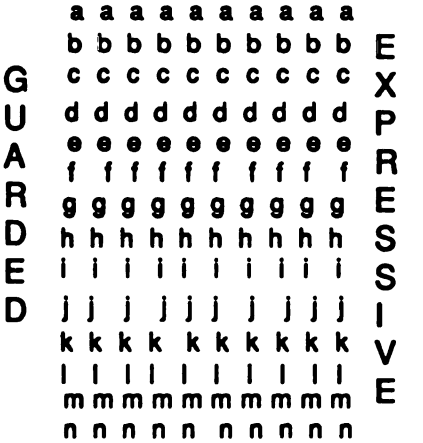
RATINGS OF BEHAVIORS IN GROUPS

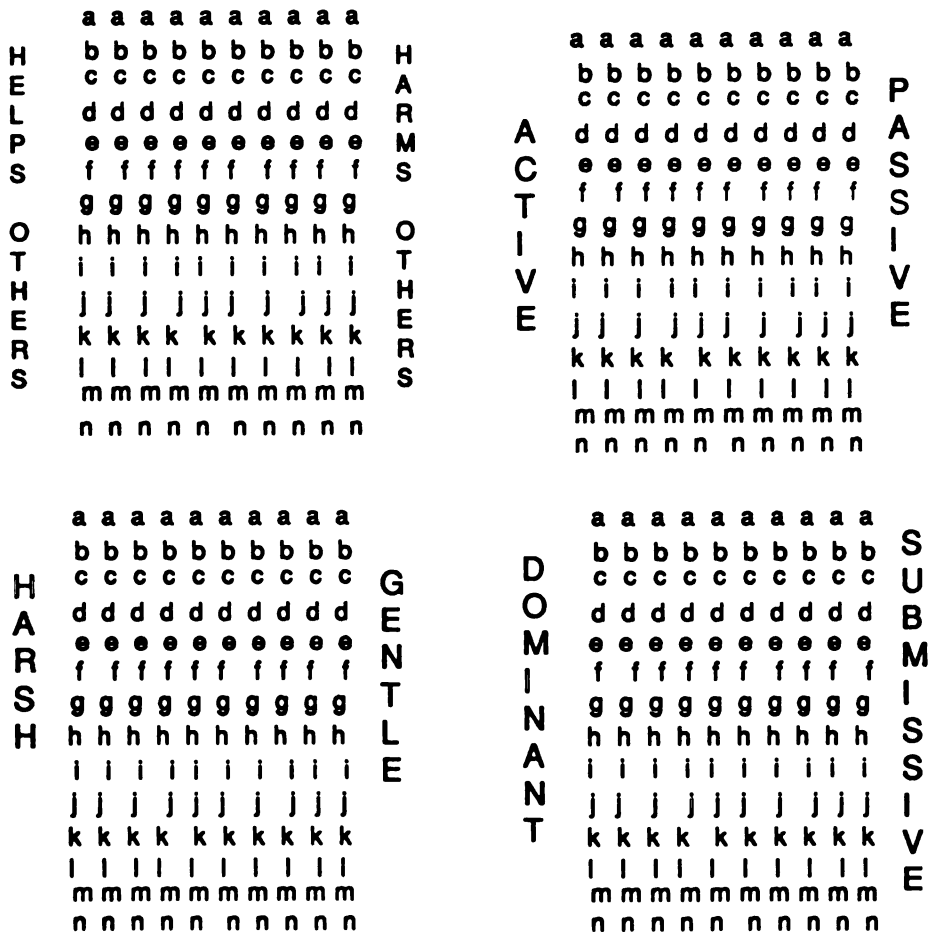
INSTRUCTIONS: On this minibooklet's last page note that all group members' names have been listed. Encircle your own name. Starting with the following page, encircle the letter between the extremes of each scale that best represents *your personal impression of each members' actual behavior within all group sessions up to now.* These ratings will be most useful if you use the full range of possible ratings for each scale.
Rate all group members, including self and leader(s). These ratings will be fully shared with all group members later. Complete all ratings on each page before turning ahead to the next. Unlike other scales which address behavior, the Liked versus Disliked scale solicits your personal responses.







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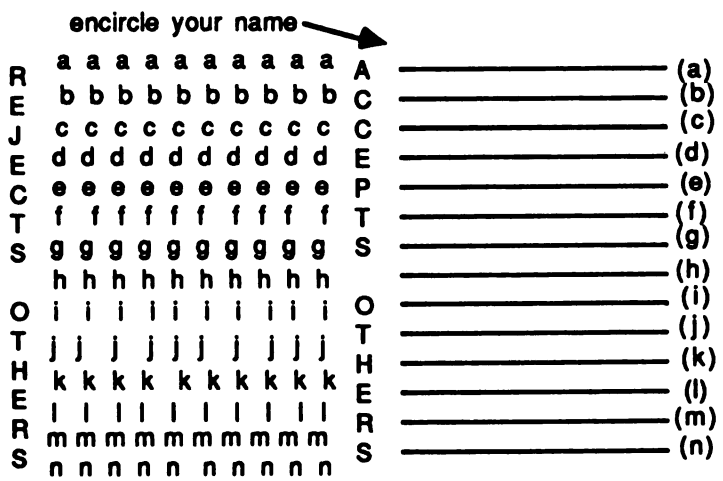
encircle your name
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ACCEPTS OTHERS
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APPENDIX B

Interpersonal Behavior Inventory-4 (Instructions)

Base your rating primarily on observed behavior.
Consider what interpersonal behaviors you have observed and what the person says. Discount anecdotes reported by others, or other second-hand information.

Rate what is most characteristic.
Behavior manifested varies with the persons involved and with the individual's role. Rate what is most typical of the person.

Consider the individual's reactions to you.
In arriving at a judgement consider the individual's attitude and interactions to you along with other information.

Avoid inferences.
As much as possible base your ratings on directly observable behavior.

Consider each behavior individually.
Make no effort to present a consistent portrait. People may manifest, for good reasons, seemingly contradictory behaviors.

Rate quickly.
If you cannot decide, go on to the next item and come back later to those items you skipped.

Rate every statement.
If you feel uncertain about a judgement, record your best guess. Be sure to judge every statement.

APPENDIX C

Means and Standard Deviations for Intrapersonal Discrepancies (self-ratings minus ratings given) on ARS and ARQ

ARS	Mean	SD
23-hour	1.85	7.0
43-hour	1.45	6.7
Summary	3.30	11.8

ARQ	Mean	SD
23-hour	.12	4.7
43-hour	-.25	3.9
Summary	-.13	7.3

APPENDIX D

Full Descriptions of ANOVA's

H_1: Other— disparaging raters will be viewed by their peers as highest on the IBI-4's hostility factor, above both least discrepant based or self-effacing raters.

$ARS_{23\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	2876.6	1438.3	5.3	.008
Within groups	53	14413.1	271.9		
Total	55	17289.7			

$ARS_{43\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	3539.3	1769.7	6.8	.002
Within groups	53	13750.4	259.4		
Total	55	17289.7			

$ARS_{Summary}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	3278.7	1639.4	6.2	.003
Within groups	53	14010.9	264.4		
Total	55	17289.6			

$ARO_{23\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	127.6	63.8	.20	.82
Within groups	53	17162.0	323.8		
Total	55	17289.6			

$ARO_{43\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	335.0	167.5	.52	.60
Within groups	53	16744.3	322.0		
Total	55	17079.3			

$ARO_{Summary}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	140.3	70.1	.21	.81
Within groups	53	17149.4	323.6		
Total	55	17289.7			

H2: Self-effacers will be rated by peers as highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, above other-disparagers and least discrepant based raters.

$ARS_{23\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	1786.5	893.3	3.3	.05
Within groups	53	14470.6	273.0		
Total	55	16257.1			

$ARS_{43\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	2473.0	1236.5	4.8	.01
Within groups	53	13784.2	260.1		
Total	55	16257.2			

$ARS_{Summary}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	3694.3	1847.1	7.8	.001
Within groups	53	12562.9	237.0		
Total	55	16257.2			

$ARO_{23\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	27.3	13.7	.05	.96
Within groups	53	16229.8	306.2		
Total	55	16257.1			

$ARO_{43\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	156.9	78.4	.26	.78
Within groups	53	15994.7	307.6		
Total	55	16151.6			

$ARO_{Summary}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	198.9	99.4	.33	.72
Within groups	53	16058.3	303.0		
Total	55	16257.2			

H_3: Self-effacers will rate self highest on the IBI-4's Dependency factor, higher than both other-disparagers and least discrepants rate self.

$ARS_{23\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	2499.9	1250.0	3.2	.05
Within groups	44	17024.0	386.9		
Total	46	19523.9			

$ARS_{43\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	1761.1	880.5	2.2	.13
Within groups	44	17762.9	403.7		
Total	46	19524.0			

$ARS_{Summary}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	953.0	476.5	1.1	.33
Within groups	44	18571.0	422.1		
Total	46	19524.0			

$ARO_{23\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	1828.0	914.0	2.3	.12
Within groups	44	17695.9	402.2		
Total	46	19523.9			

$ARO_{43\ hour}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	1574.8	787.4	1.9	.16
Within groups	44	17714.7	412.0		

Total	46	19289.5			

ARO$_{Summary}$

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	2	1656.7	828.3	2.0	.14
Within groups	44	17867.3	406.1		
Total	46	19524.0			