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OF IMMEDIATE SELF IMAGE CONFRONTATION.

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CHANGES IN SELF CONCEPT AS A FUNCTION OF
IMMEDIATE SELF IMAGE CONFRONTATION

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BY

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CHANGES IN SELF CONCEPT AS A FUNCTION OF
IMMEDIATE SELF IMAGE CONFRONTATION

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.....	v
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM.....	1
II. METHOD.....	25
III. RESULTS.....	34
IV. DISCUSSION.....	48
V. SUMMARY.....	56
REFERENCES.....	58
APPENDIXES.....	65

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Summary of Characteristics of Subject Population.....	28
2. Summary of Characteristics for Experimental Private Sample.....	30
3. Summary of Characteristics for Control Private Sample.....	31
4. Summary of Characteristics for Experimental Public Sample.....	32
5. Summary of Characteristics for Control Public Sample.....	32
6. Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental Private Sample and the Control Private Sample for Real, Ideal, and Public Self.....	36
7. Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental Private Sample vs. the Control Private Sample for Real, Ideal, and Public Self.....	37
8. Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental Private Sample and the Control Private Sample for Self-Ideal Discrepancies.....	37
9. Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental Private Sample vs. the Control Private Sample for Self-Ideal Discrepancies.....	38

Table	Page
10. Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental Public Sample and the Control Public Sample for Real, Ideal, and Public Self.....	40
11. Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental Public Sample vs. the Control Public Sample for Real, Ideal and Public Self.....	41
12. Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental Public Sample and the Control Public Sample for Self-Ideal Discrepancies.....	41
13. Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental Public Sample vs. the Control Public Sample for Self-Ideal Discrepancies.....	42
14. Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental Public Sample and the Experimental Private Sample for Real, Ideal, and Public Self.....	44
15. Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental Public Sample vs. the Experimental Private Sample for Real, Ideal, and Public Self.....	45
16. Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental Public Sample and the Experimental Private Sample for Self-Ideal Discrepancies.....	45
17. Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental Public Sample vs. Experi- mental Private Sample for Self-Ideal Discrepancies.....	46

CHANGES IN SELF CONCEPT AS A FUNCTION OF IMMEDIATE SELF IMAGE CONFRONTATION

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM

This dissertation is an attempt to study the effects of immediate self image confrontation via video tape on the self concepts of undergraduate male students at the University of Oklahoma. Two experimental groups were utilized. One group was composed of individuals who privately watched a playback of their participation in a dyadic situation, while the second experimental group contained individuals who, with the experimenter, viewed a playback of their participation in a dyad. Control groups were employed for both experimental conditions.

It is expected that changes in self concept will occur in both experimental groups; however, between group differences in degree and type of change are expected.

One consequence of functioning on a conceptual level is that the human being, unlike species on lower levels of the phylogenetic scale, develops a group of attitudes and cognitions about himself. In effect, then, the individual views

himself as an object. This view is exemplified by a wide variety of self directed statements such as "I am forceful," "I am independent," "I am proud and self-satisfied," "I am always ashamed of myself," etc.

These various statements of self reference, whether cognitive or affective, form a gestalt that is frequently labeled as the self concept. This definition is not universal, however. Indeed, one would not expect identical definitions of a concept that is an important, sometimes central, variable in such diverse theories of personality as those formulated by Adler, Angyal, Freud, Fromm, Horney, Lecky, Lynd, Maslow, Mead, McClelland, Rogers, Sullivan, and Snygg and Combs. The foregoing list is not exhaustive, since only a few theorists (Eysenck, Sheldon, Miller and Dollard) do not use the self concept as a construct in their personality theories (Wylie, 1961).

Despite the widespread usage of the self concept as a hypothetical construct, the diverse definitions employed may be grouped into two categories (Hall & Lindzey, 1957). Self-as-process, one of these categories, includes definitions that delineate the self as a group of processes, for example, perceiving, thinking, or remembering. Among others, Bertocci (1945) offers a definition of self which may be classified in this category.

The remaining category, labeled self-as-object, is directly related to this study in that definitions belonging

in this group focus upon "the person's attitudes, feelings, perceptions, and evaluations of himself as an object" (Hall & Lindzey, 1957, p. 468). Of particular relevance are those conceptualizations within this group which stress the phenomenal self, i.e., the conscious self concept rather than the unconscious self concept. Major theorists in this tradition include Lecky (1945), Murphy (1947), Rogers (1951), and Snygg and Combs (1949).

Murphy, for example, views the self as the individual's perceptions of himself, i.e., "the individual as known to the individual" (1947, p. 966). In Rogerian theory (1951), the self is a differentiated portion of the phenomenal field and consists of a pattern of perceptions and values that are experienced as "I" or "me." Rogers describes his point of view as follows:

As a result of interaction with the environment and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of self is formed -an organized, fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the "I" or the "me," together with values attached to these concepts. [p. 498]

While not all the research and theory within the phenomenal self-as-object tradition need concern us here, the preceding comments by Rogers do contain reference to a topic pertinent to this study: the social nature of the self. This aspect of self has been a central thesis in many current personality theories and has roots in a psychological-sociological heritage which has been labeled role theory, action theory,

interactionism, the Chicago tradition and which includes such figures as William James (1890), J. M. Baldwin (1902), C. H. Cooley (1922), G. H. Mead (1934), Kimball Young (1952), and R. E. Park and E. W. Burgess (1924). To emphasize the social nature of the self implies that the self is, in part, a developmental product which arises out of social interaction. In Cooley's words, for example, "Each to each a looking glass reflects the other that doth pass." [p. 152] In other words, the individual's attitudes and cognitions about himself are products of his assessment of how significant others view him. This process is described in a lucid and engaging manner by Cooley (1922):

As we see our face, figure, and dress in the glass, and are interested in them because they are ours, and pleased or otherwise with them according as they do or do not answer to what we should like them to be; so in imagination we perceive in another's mind some thought of our appearance, manners, aims, deeds, character, friends, and so on, and are variously affected by it.

A self-ideal of this sort seems to have three principal elements: the imagination of our appearance to the other person; the imagination of his judgement of that appearance, and some sort of self-feeling, such as pride or mortification. The comparison with a looking-glass hardly suggests the second element, the imagined judgement, which is quite essential. The thing that moves us to pride or shame is not the mere mechanical reflection of ourselves, but an imputed sentiment, the imagined effect of this reflection upon another's mind. [p. 152]

Without belaboring the point with further quotations, it may simply be stated that several major theorists agree that the self is not innate, or a result of simple maturation, but

is instead a developmental product that is primarily molded by the organism's interaction with the social environment. A central thread which permeates this assumption is the idea that the individual learns to view himself as significant others do. Various theoretical papers and empirical investigations related to this point of view may be found in Biddle and Thomas (1966), Newcomb (1950), Lindsmith and Strauss (1956), Lindzey (1954), Rose (1962), and Shibutani (1961).

But the self, throughout life, remains social. To see oneself through another's eyes, to take the role of the other, not only plays a part in the development of the self, but is essential for effective, reality oriented interpersonal relationships.

Cooley (1932), Mead (1902), and Heider (1958) describe the acts of either participant in a dyadic relationship as the product of a complex interplay of acts and perceptions. Mead, for example, argued that to communicate one must be able to predict the response one's behavior would elicit from another. Accurate prediction, he thought, was based upon the ability to take the role of the other, i.e., to view oneself from the vantage point of another. In Mead's words, the argument develops as follows:

The socialized human animal takes the attitude of the other toward himself and toward any given social situation in which he and other individuals may happen to be placed or implicated; and he thus identifies himself with the other in

that given situation, responding implicitly as the other does or would respond explicitly, and governing his own explicit reaction accordingly. The socialized non-human animal, on the other hand, does not take the attitude of the other toward himself and toward the given social situation in which they are both involved because he is physiologically incapable of doing so; and hence, also, he cannot adjustively and co-operatively control his own explicit response to the given social situation in terms of an awareness of that attitude of the other, as the socialized human animal can. [p. 235]

Mead's presentation might be paraphrased as follows: Effective, realistic interpersonal relationships depend upon the individual being aware of himself, his meaning for others, and utilizing this information as a basis for subsequent acts.

Several contemporaneous writers present descriptions of interpersonal relationships which share at least some common ground with Mead's formulation. Social psychologists such as Cottrell (1942) and Secord and Backman (1965) frequently portray each person in a dyadic relationship as experiencing an interdependence between their own self and that of the other. Some psychologists, and especially phenomenologists such as MacLeod (1947), depict dyadic interaction in the context of a perceptual field in which the primary anchorage points are the respective selves.

Literature concerned with communication theory is also relevant. Berlo (1965), for example, describes interpersonal relations in a manner which again places a premium on the individual being aware of his meaning as a stimulus. He states:

All of us anticipate the future, we make predictions about the relationship between (a) certain behaviors on our parts, (b) subsequent behavior of other people, and (c) subsequent behaviors of our own. We do more than act and react. We develop expectations about others which affect our actions—before we take them.
[p. 48]

Self Perception, Interpersonal Relations,
and Mental Health

Mead and others, as we have seen, stressed the importance of being aware of oneself as a stimulus object. There is a considerable body of evidence, however, which indicates that some individuals are not aware of their social stimulus value. As a consequence, interpersonal relationships become distorted or ineffective.

Thus, an unrecognized trait such as hostility characteristic of an imaginary person, X, might conceivably prompt others to react in a hostile manner. Mr. X correctly predicts, then, that other people typically confront him with hostile behavior. His evaluation of others contains a kernel of truth, but is nevertheless a distortion in that it is based on a misperception or unawareness of his meaning as a stimulus object. The logic of this situation is captured by Ichheiser (1949) who maintains that the invariance of the reactions of others is explained by remembering that the perceiver himself is

...a very important factor in the total situation which determines and evokes the type of behavior the other person is expected to play in the given relation....It is our own presence which either

evokes or suppresses the manifestations of certain personality aspects of other people. [Pp. 28-29]

Perhaps more than any other psychiatric theorist, Sullivan (1953) has emphasized the deleterious impact of self misperception on interpersonal relations. In describing the hypothetical case of Mr. and Mrs. A he writes (Sullivan, 1950):

We have been content thus far in our discussion of hypothetical A and Mrs. A to refer to her showing some contempt for her husband, as a result of which he was in some obscure way hurt, slighted, humiliated, offended, angered, and moved to retaliation—although he was not aware of this, but instead felt weary. He experienced, lived, underwent, the hostile action; he manifested activity called out by it; but he was not clearly aware of either phase of this, rather avoided our efforts to correct his misinformation about it... [p. 102]

In the following pages, Sullivan continues to depict the further deterioration of this relationship based on a quagmire of misperception. It becomes clear that in some instances, an interpersonal world based on misperception is a world built on quicksand.

Self perception, as the foregoing material has implied, is also a factor in person perception. Maslow and Mittleman (1941), for example, point out that feelings of inferiority almost always result in an over-evaluation of the strength of other individuals.

Studies reviewed in Wylie (1961) tend to support a correlation between self acceptance and acceptance of others.

Excellent reviews of the literature on person perception may be found in social psychology texts such as Secord and Backman (1965), or in articles devoted solely to that area (Bruner & Tagiuri, 1954).

In a broader sense, self misperception is highly correlated with mental disorder (Rogers, 1951). The old addage "Know Thyself," has been a recurrent theme in literature, philosophy, and in the behavioral sciences. While self insight is not always regarded as a panacea, it is frequently accorded the status of a major path to self improvement (Buhler, 1962; Maslow, 1962).

Cameron (1947) argues that individuals who are aware of their social stimulus value from the standpoint of others have a minimal susceptibility to the various forms of psychopathology.

In a more restricted sense, the interpersonal theory of Gough (1948) postulates that the psychopath is deficient in role playing ability, and that he is unable to regard himself as a stimulus object or to identify with another's perspective. Experimental support for this assumption has been provided by Reed and Caudra (1957). They reported that nurses characterized as psychopathically oriented were less successful in predicting how others would describe them than non-psychopathically oriented nurses.

Mental patients, both psychotic and neurotic, may have disturbed body images, a concept less inclusive than the self

concept. According to English and English (1958), the body image is defined as

...the picture or mental representation one has of his own body at rest or in motion at any moment. It is derived from internal sensations, postural changes, contact with outside objects and people, emotional experiences and fantasies.
[p. 70]

While symptoms vary from patient to patient, the following phrases provide descriptive examples of body image distortion (Angyal, 1936): body does not seem to stay together, head and neck do not connect, body is continuous in space, food falls into a vacuum, sensation of emptiness, chest and back touch each other, arms creeping into chest, head sinking into body, parts of body are wood, and skin is papery.

The body image conceptualization was considered as early as 1911 by Head and Holmes, and by Pick in 1915. Recent investigations utilizing the Machover Draw-A-Person test (Swenson, 1957), Rorschach data (Fisher & Cleveland, 1958), the Rod and Frame task (Bennett, 1956), adjustable mirrors (Traub & Orbach, 1964), and photographs (Arnhoff & Damianopoulos, 1964) support the hypothesized relationship between mental illness and disturbed body concepts.

Self Confrontation

We have reviewed material concerning the relationship between accurate self perception, interpersonal relations, and mental health. The evidence presented indicated that individuals might benefit if they could obtain direct feedback rela-

ting to their behavior.

Simulation techniques have been employed to create self confronting situations (Guetzkow, 1962; Stewart, 1966a, b). For example, in an effort to stimulate cultural self awareness Stewart and Pryle (1966) utilized simulation techniques in an attempt to make individuals aware of themselves as stimulus objects and aware of what their frame of reference had to do with eliciting certain reactions from others. In their training techniques, Americans assigned to overseas duty are confronted in a role situation with a "contrast American," that is, with a mirror image of himself.

Bowman (1949) attempted to develop insight by employing role enactment situations based on the methods developed by Moreno (1934).

Fortunately, recent technological developments (audio-visual tape equipment) have made it possible to construct situations wherein the individual may view himself as others do. Thus, in an atmosphere free of praise or blame, the individual's own image and activities are projected before him on a screen. In a sense, the subject by being confronted with his own image is maneuvered to the side of reality and forced to assume a critical position vis-a-vis what he observes, i.e., his own behavior.

In short, it appears relatively clear that self image confrontation provides a tool for testing certain theoretical propositions, and a new modality with possible therapeutic

significance (Cornelison, 1963). At this time, however, the area of self confrontation is in its infancy, i.e., the diverse potentialities of this technique, while recognized, have not been systematically explored.

A few preliminary studies have been conducted, however. Nielson (1963, 1964) has found self confrontation to be a highly involving experience for college students. Indeed, the view of themselves left none of them untouched. Illsley, one of the participants, reacted to his self image in the following manner (Nielson, 1964):

Oh, brother, I don't want to see this; it it was terrible. Oh God! I just kept stuttering, I never said anything: I just stuttered. Oh, it was so horrible. (Laughing) I sure am embarrassed. My God! I thought it was horrible. I know I'll never go to Hollywood now...Oh, God! I get- you can hear my accent. I just think it was horrible. I mean, I was just tied in knots; all I could do was stutter...It didn't seem this bad to me then, but it seems horrible now. Terrible. I don't want to talk about it. Too embarrassing to talk about it. That's about all I can say. I kept fidgeting with my tie. You can see I bit my fingernail. I rubbed my nose. I grabbed hold of the chair almost three of four times...It's just amusing, that's all. It's embarrassing, it's amusing, that's all. It's so embarrassing. I'm mad at all of you to make such a spectacle of myself. I don't want to continue with these tests anymore. I don't know what else to say... I was confused. I must have been terrible confused. I kept stuttering... [p. 128]

While viewing themselves, some subjects recognized manifestations of forceful emotions, and yet these emotions were not experienced during the interaction itself. Other subjects reported having had strong emotional reactions during

the interaction, but these internal states were not outwardly visible. So, self confrontation techniques appear to reveal the relationship between inner states and what is actually communicated.

Research exploring the impact of mirror images on institutionalized mental patients (Elkisch, 1957) provides a precedent for the first studies of self confrontation in hospital settings. Despite serious methodological limitations, the early studies of self confrontation offer some evidence indicating that this experience elicits physiological change (Dickson & Ray, 1965; Murray, 1963; Verwoerd, Nowlen, & Angello, 1965).

Behavioral changes have also been reported. For example, resident psychiatrists found that video tape vividly exposed flaws in their interviewing techniques (Moore, Chernell, & West, 1965), while another study reports that counselor's self ratings tended to converge with their supervisor's rating of them following self image confrontation (Walz & Johnston, 1963).

Numerous other studies report anecdotal evidence suggesting that self confrontation provides a corrective experience for professional staff (Benchoter & Eaton, 1965; Schiff & Reivich, 1964; Suess, 1966; Wilmer, 1967c).

Other studies report results based on the reaction of various populations of mental patients. It has been established that even severely regressed individuals are able to

recognize and react to their photographed self-images (Miller, 1962), although some cases of denial have been reported (Dickson & Ray, 1965; Sampson, Ray, Pugh, & Clark, 1962). Self confrontation is frequently followed by a marked improvement in the behavior and appearance of psychotic subjects (Cornelison & Arsenian, 1960; Cornelison & Tausig, 1964; Geertsma & Reivich, 1965; Kagan, Krathwohl, & Miller, 1963; Stoller, 1967a; Ward, 1964). Even severely regressed chronic schizophrenics have responded by correcting bizarre mannerisms and by terminating long periods of withdrawal with attempts at re-establishing interpersonal relationships (Stoller, 1967b).

Self confrontation techniques have also been employed quite successfully in the treatment of alcoholics (Nielson, 1964), in improving the social skills of mentally retarded young adults (Ricker, 1963), in group therapy with adolescents (Wilmer, 1967c), and in marital therapy (Alger & Hogan, 1967).

Systematic differences have not been established between groups in type or intensity of response. Moore, Chernell, and West (1965), though, have published preliminary evidence which indicates that schizophrenics tend to select and correct isolated segments of their behavior, while dependent patients exhibit a more global, dramatic reaction.

To summarize: Studies reviewed so far point toward the beneficial impact of self image confrontation. Still, none

of these studies claim to have controlled all the relevant variables, and some are best classified as anecdotal.

Boyd and Sisney (1967), however, have conducted a rigorous, well controlled study. Using psychiatric inpatients, they found that "interpersonal concepts of the self, the ideal self, and the public self became less pathological and less discrepant with one another following self image confrontation..." [p. 291] Changes in self concept were measured with the Leary Interpersonal Check List.

Problem

The present study is derived from the recent research conducted by Boyd and Sisney (1967). In their study, 14 hospitalized mental patients at the Veterans Administration Hospital, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, were given a standardized 10 minute interview. The interview contained questions related to S's feelings concerning other patients, himself, his family, the experiment itself, and the experimenters. Experimental S's watched an immediate playback of the interview, while control S's viewed a taped segment of a daytime television show.

The Leary Interpersonal Check List was administered three times: prior to and following the experimental treatment, and again two weeks later. Analysis of these test scores revealed that the experimental group had made significant changes in self concept. Specifically, three hypo-

theses were supported: (1) Self concepts became less pathological as defined by Leary; (2) The discrepancy between self, ideal self, and public self (self-as-subject-imagines-others-see-him) decreased; and, (3) The discrepancy between self and public self decreased.

In short, the foregoing study has provided evidence which indicates that self confrontation produces changes in the self concept of hospitalized mental patients. This study is a further attempt to evaluate the impact of self confrontation on the self concept.

In this dissertation, the subject sample was drawn from a male, undergraduate population. This sample dictates a type of data analysis which does not parallel the Boyd and Sisney (1967) method.

First, differences between self and public self are not hypothesized, since it has been repeatedly demonstrated that discrepancies between the real self and public self are almost non-existent in normal populations (Miyamoto & Dornbusch, 1956; Reeder, Donohue, & Biblarz, 1960; Backman & Secord, 1962; Moore, 1963).

In this study, self-ideal self discrepancies are used as one measure of therapeutic effectiveness. A decrease in the discrepancy between the self and the relatively stable ideal self is frequently employed as a measure of therapeutic effectiveness (Rogers, 1951; Wylie, 1961). Since self-ideal self discrepancies are smaller in normals, a significant de-

crease in magnitude of discrepancy scores will provide some support for the effectiveness of self image confrontation as a therapeutic tool.

The other measure of therapeutic effectiveness employed in this study involves a shift of group means on the Love and Dominance dimensions of the Leary Interpersonal Check List from more to less pathological.

Experimental subjects viewed a video tape recording of their participation in a dyad in one of two conditions: privately, or with the experimenter. A control group was employed for each experimental condition.

Viewing the playback alone is assumed to be less threatening. According to Rogerian (1951) theory, then, these subjects should demonstrate the most change. The converse would be true for subjects who watched the video recording in a more threatening atmosphere, i.e., with the experimenter.

While not strictly analogous to this study, there is some experimental evidence which suggests that the two experimental groups will react differentially to the experimental treatments. Gerard (1961) and Mischell (1958) found that when subjects were provided with negative feedback they resisted changing their self evaluation in the public condition to a greater extent than they did in the private condition.

On both theoretical and empirical grounds, then a differential reaction to the experimental treatments is

expected. However, due to the impact of video tape confrontation (See Pp. 10-15), it is anticipated that both experimental groups will demonstrate some change. The expected nature of the changes is toward less pathology.

Experimental Alone Group vs. Control Alone Group

Experimental Alone Group subjects are pretested on a self concept scale, given a standardized 10 minute interview, and then allowed to privately view a recording of the interview. A posttest follows immediately afterward.

The Control Alone Group undergoes an identical sequence of events, with one exception. Instead of watching a playback of the interview, they are asked to privately view 10 minutes of home produced movies of Colorado.

Experimental Public Group vs. Control Public Group

Experimental Public Group subjects are pretested on a self concept scale, given a standardized 10 minute interview, and then asked to view with the experimenter a playback of the interview. A posttest follows immediately afterward.

The Control Public Group undergoes an identical sequence, with one exception. Rather than watching a recording of the interview, they are asked to watch with the experimenter 10 minutes of home produced movies of Colorado.

The Leary Interpersonal Check List (LaForge & Suczek, 1955; Leary, 1956; Leary, 1957) meets the instrumentation requirements of this study. Test norms are primarily based on psychiatric outpatients. Interpretations of data based on

a college population, then, must be made with considerable caution.

The Leary Interpersonal Check List (ICL) is a device with which individuals may rate their real self, ideal self, and public self in terms of various interpersonal attitudes and behavior. The test consists of 128 items. Each subject is requested to check those items which describe him, and to leave spaces after items which do not describe him. Each item is assigned a pathology, or "intensity" value on the basis of two criteria: (1) whether the item was judged good, neutral, or bad within the subject's cultural context by psychologists; and (2) the frequency with which the item had been checked in earlier administrations, i.e., the lowest pathology score was assigned to items checked by 90% of the subjects, while the highest pathology score was assigned to items checked by 10% of the subjects.

The ICL is divided into a sixteen variable classification scheme. The variables are: self-effacing, masochistic, docile, dependent, cooperative, over-conventional, responsible, hypernormal, managerial, autocratic, competitive, narcissistic, aggressive, sadistic, rebellious, and distrustful. These variables may be reduced to two factors, Dominance and Love.

Results are analyzed using the point summary method. Formulas derived from trigonometric relationships yield a Dominance score and a Love score. Each score is expressed in

standard score units, mean = 50.

Leary (1965) has argued that Dominance (Dom) and Love (Lov) are the two most significant dimensions in the ICL. The contention has been supported by factor analytic studies reported by Briar and Bieri (1963).

Wiggins (1961) reported three factors: Love, Hate, and Dominance-Submission.

LaForge (1963) reported four factors: Dom, Lov, Ain (average intensity of items checked), and Nic (number of items checked). He reasoned that when other investigators report three orthogonal factors, it was because they had not included Ain or Nic in their analysis.

In short, the available factor analytic studies provide considerable support for Leary's assumption that Lov and Dom are the basic dimensions of the ICL.

There is considerable agreement in the literature on the centrality of the Lov and Dom dimensions in interpersonal behavior. While the literature will not be reviewed here, excellent summaries may be found in Foa (1961) and Adams (1964).

The ICL cannot be presented for more than it is; a limited phenomenological report. Still, reliability studies are quite encouraging. Two-week test-retest scores for 77 obese women were grouped by octants, and the average r was $+.78$ (LaForge & Suczek, 1955). Using Kuder-Richardson formula 20, reliabilities of $.95$ for the whole ICL was reported

by Armstrong (1958). Based on 235 subjects, Wiggins (1961) found split-half reliability coefficients which averaged .70 for the octants.

Validity studies are also quite encouraging. Numerous studies argue for the construct validity of the ICL. LaForge (1963) and McDonald and Gynther (1965) report that males rate themselves as more dominant, while females rate themselves as more loving.

Many other studies report that the ICL is related to other variables, and hence discriminates between criterion groups. For an excellent review of the literature, see Spencer (1968).

The theoretical and empirical evidence reviewed in the foregoing pages have led the author to postulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1

When compared with the control private sample, the real self group means for the experimental private sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 2

When compared with the control private sample, the ideal self group means for the experimental private sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will not demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 3

When compared with the control private sample, the public self group means for the experimental private sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 4

When compared with the control private sample, mean self-ideal self discrepancies for the experimental private sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward convergence.

Hypothesis 5

When compared with the control public sample, the real self group means for the experimental public sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 6

When compared with the control public sample, the ideal self group means for the experimental public sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will not demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 7

When compared with the control public sample, the public self group means for the experimental public sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 8

When compared with the control public sample, mean self-ideal self discrepancies for the experimental public sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward convergence.

Hypothesis 9

When compared with the experimental public sample, the real self group means for the experimental private sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 10

When compared with the experimental public sample, the ideal self group means for the experimental private sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will not demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 11

When compared with the experimental public sample, the public self group means for the experimental private sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward normality.

Hypothesis 12

When compared with the experimental public sample, mean self-ideal self discrepancies for the experimental private sample on the Lov and Dom dimensions of the ICL will demonstrate a greater change toward convergence.

The level of significance designated for acceptance of

each hypotheses was .05.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Selection of Subjects

40 male undergraduate students enrolled in University of Oklahoma Psychology I classes were used as subjects.

The following statement was read to the classes involved:

My name is Chuck Gasswint. I am affiliated with the University of Oklahoma Psychology Department, and with the University of Oklahoma Medical Center.

My reason for being here today is to ask for volunteers to participate in some research which we are conducting. The research is social psychological in nature. It will involve tasks which I think you will find stimulating and enjoyable. To avoid influencing the results of this very important study, I would prefer not to comment further on the purpose or nature of it. However, I would like to repeat again that participation in this study should prove interesting and stimulating for you.

The experiment will take place in two parts. The first part of the experiment will be conducted in class today. You will be asked to fill out a questionnaire concerning the way you feel and behave toward other people. Those of you who take the test in class today will be asked to sign up for another session to be held later this week. The second session will require about one hour of your time.

The experiment involves males only. So, females may leave as well as those males who do not wish to participate.

(To remaining students): I will circulate sign up sheets at this time. Please note and

record the information on the bottom of the sheet concerning the day and place of the experiment. Also, please note the time which you signed up for.

After circulation of the sign up sheets, the Leary Interpersonal Check List was administered (Appendix A). Using standardized instructions, subjects were asked to rate their real self, ideal self, and public self (self-as-subject-imagines-others-see-him).

Volunteers were contacted by phone the evening before the experiment proper and reminded of their appointment.

Apparatus and Materials

Two conference rooms in the Education Building at the University of Oklahoma provided the experimental setting for all subjects. One of the rooms served exclusively as an interviewing room, the other as a testing room.

The interviewing room, furnished with a long walnut table and chairs, provided a rather formal atmosphere. The testing room, however, was furnished with conventional school desks and one table, and this provided a somewhat less formal environment.

The interviews were filmed with a Diamond Electronics Videcon camera equipped with a 25-100 mm. zoom lens. Recordings were made with a 1" Ampex Closed Circuit Television System.

Interviews were viewed on a 21" Setchell-Carlson monitor.

Scenes of Coloardo projected for control subjects were projected with an 8 mm. Bell and Howell (Model 357Z).

The Leary Interpersonal Check List was used as the pretest and posttest measure for all subjects.

Procedure

The general design of this study involves four groups: (1) an experimental and control private sample, and (2) an experimental and control public sample. Subjects were randomly assigned to treatment conditions.

The experimental private sample was given a pretest, an interview, and then asked to privately watch a playback of the interview. A posttest followed immediately afterward. The control private sample underwent an identical sequence, with one exception. They viewed scenes of Colorado rather than the interview. The experimental public sample was given a pretest, an interview, and then requested to watch with the experimenter a recording of the interview. A posttest was administered immediately afterward. The control public sample underwent an identical sequence, but again with one exception. They viewed scenes of Colorado with the experimenter instead of a recording of the interview.

Subjects were requested to fill out an information form. Characteristics of the sample were derived from that form and are presented in Table 1.

Experimental Private Sample vs. Control Private Sample

Pretesting for all subjects was done two days before

Table 1

Summary of Characteristics of Subject Population

Total = 40	Age Range = 18-21
Males = 40	Mean Age = 18.8
Females = 0	Mean Semester in College = 1.9
Single = 38	Mean Grade Point Average = 2.56
Married = 2	Mean Number of Members in Immediate Family = 4.8

Source: Questionnaire. (Appendix B)

the experiment (see page 26).

When subjects arrived, a few moments were spent in an attempt to gain rapport. Then subjects were escorted to the interviewing room and seated. Following Wilmer's (1967a, b, c, d, e) suggestion, none of the camera or recording equipment was disguised. All equipment was placed 10 feet directly in front of the subjects. The following comments were made:

Our purpose for asking you here today is to ask your opinion on matters relating to O.U., and also to ask you a few questions concerning people you like and dislike, and people who like and dislike you.

Our discussion will be taped. However, the tape will not be replayed for your friends, your enemies, or for anyone else. So, you needn't feel inhibited. Feel free to 'speak your mind.'

If there are no further questions, we will begin.

If there were no questions, the interview was begun.

The interview contained questions concerning Oklahoma University, and questions concerning the individual's knowledge of why he liked and disliked others, and why they liked or disliked him (Appendix C).

Following the interview, the monitor was placed within the subject's view; and the following comments were made:

Since we have already taped this interview, I think you would find it an interesting experience to watch a recording of it. I have some other things to do, so you may stay and watch it alone. When it is over, please come out, and you will be taken to another room to complete the experiment. Thank you for coming. We appreciate your time and effort.

When subjects finished viewing the playback, they were escorted to the testing room. At that time, a confederate of the experimenter administered the posttest. Again, subjects were asked to rate their real self, their ideal self, and their public self.

After the posttest, subjects were asked to write down what the purpose of the experiment was. They were also asked if they found anything about the experiment disturbing.

Finally, the following request was made:

Please do not discuss this experiment with any of your friends or classmates. We believe that if other subjects come to the experiment with expectations, the study will be ruined. If the data is analyzed in time, we will return to your class and explain the study. Thank you for your cooperation.

Subject characteristics for this sample may be found in Table 2.

Table 2

Summary of Characteristics for Experimental Private Sample

Total = 10	Age Range = 18-21
Males = 10	Mean Age = 18.7
Females = 0	Mean Semester in College = 1.5
Single = 10	Mean Grade Point Average = 2.5
Married = 0	Mean Number of Members in Immediate Family = 4.9

Source: Questionnaire. (Appendix B)

The control private sample was treated in exactly the same manner as the experimental private sample, with one exception. After the interview, the following comments were made:

Now, I'd like you to relax and view some scenes of Colorado. I have some other things to do, so you may stay and watch it alone. When it is over, please come out, and you will be taken to another room to complete the experiment. Thank you for coming. We appreciate your time and effort.

The remainder of the procedure paralleled that undergone by the experimental private group.

Subject characteristics for this sample may be found in Table 3.

The experimental public sample underwent the same sequence of pretest and interview as the previous two groups described. However, after the interview the following com-

Table 3

Summary of Characteristics for Control Private Sample

Total = 10	Age Range = 18-21
Males = 10	Mean Age = 18.8
Females = 0	Mean Semester in College = 2.2
Single = 10	Mean Grade Point Average = 2.6
Married = 0	Mean Number of Members in Immediate Family = 5.0

Source: Questionnaire. (Appendix B)

ments were made:

Since we have already taped this interview I think you would find it an interesting experience to watch a recording of it. We can watch it together; and when it is over, I'll take you to another room to complete the experiment.

On the way to the testing room, subjects in this group were thanked for their time, effort, and cooperation.

Subject characteristics for this sample may be found in Table 4.

The control public group underwent the same pretest and interview as the previous three groups. Following the interview, however, the following comments were made:

Now, I'd like you to relax and view some scenes of Colorado. We can watch them together; and when they are over, I'll take you to another room to complete the experiment.

On the way to the testing room subjects in this sample were also thanked for their time, effort, and cooperation.

Table 4

Summary of Characteristics for Experimental Public Sample

Total = 10	Age Range = 18-21
Males = 10	Mean Age = 18.7
Females = 0	Mean Semester in College = 1.7
Single = 9	Mean Grade Point Average = 2.7
Married = 1	Mean Number of Members in Immediate Family = 5.0

Source: Questionnaire. (Appendix B)

They then finished the experiment in the identical manner as the other group.

Subject characteristics for this group may be found in Table 5.

Table 5

Summary of Characteristics for Control Public Sample

Total = 10	Age Range = 18-21
Males = 10	Mean Age = 19.0
Females = 0	Mean Semester in College = 2.2
Single = 9	Mean Grade Point Average = 2.4
Married = 1	Mean Number of Members in Immediate Family = 4.3

Source: Questionnaire. (Appendix B)

In summary, the procedure for all four groups was iden-

tical except for the conditions under which the playback or movie were viewed.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Tests of significance are based on changes that occur between samples. Differences between samples are determined by comparing the pretest-posttest (posttest minus pretest) mean difference change scores for each sample. On the Lov dimension, a positive change score reflects a shift in the group means toward a higher Lov score and less pathology. A negative change reflects a shift in the group means toward a lower Lov score and more pathology. On the Dom dimension, a positive change score reflects a shift in the group means toward a lower Dom score and less pathology. The logic of the foregoing system is more readily apparent if it is recalled that college males typically score below the normal point (50) on the ICL Lov scale, and that they typically score above the normal point (50) on the Dom scale. Group means on the Lov and Dom dimensions for the real self, ideal self, and public self may be found in Appendix D.

Tests of significance were calculated on two levels: (1) the Love (Lov) score, and (2) the Dominance (Dom) score. Raw data for all subjects may be found in Appendix E.

The tests of significance calculated were based on the

following procedure.

1. Pretest-posttest difference scores were computed for each subject. A single mean difference score pretest and posttest was then obtained for each sample, and an independent t value (Walker & Lev, 1953, Pp. 153-154) was calculated between the experimental and control groups. This procedure was followed on both the Lov and the Dom dimensions for the real self, the ideal self, and the public self.

2. The experimental private group was compared to the experimental public group using an independent t value (Walker & Lev, 1953, Pp. 153-154). Again, this procedure was followed on both the Lov and the Dom dimensions for the real self, the ideal self, and the public self.

3. Self-ideal self discrepancies were calculated on the pretest and the posttest. The difference between the pretest and the posttest discrepancy score yielded a single discrepancy score, and an independent t value (Walker & Lev, 1953, Pp. 153-154) was calculated between the experimental and control groups.

4. An independent t value was also calculated to compare the pretest-posttest self-ideal self discrepancies for the experimental public sample and the control public sample.

Experimental Private Sample Versus Control Private Sample

Table 6 summarizes the means of the sample differences on the Lov and Dom dimensions for the real self, the ideal

self, and the public self.

Table 6

Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental Private Sample and the Control Private Sample for Real, Ideal, and Public Self

	Experimental Private Sample n=10	Control Private Sample n=10
1. LOV		
Real Self	+6.2	+1.7
Ideal Self	+1.0	-0.3
Public Self	0.0	+3.3
2. DOM		
Real Self	+0.1	+1.9
Ideal Self	-3.0	-2.2
Public Self	-0.7	+0.3

Note: Plus indicates a change toward more loving, or more dominant, while minus indicates a change toward less loving or less dominant. More Loving implies less pathology, while more dominance implies more pathology.

Table 7 summarizes the independent t values obtained for the differences between the experimental private sample and the control private sample.

Table 8 summarizes the means of the sample differences on the Lov and Dom dimensions for self-ideal self discrepancies.

Table 9 summarizes the independent t values obtained between the experimental private sample and the control private sample.

Table 7

Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental
Private Sample vs. the Control Private Sample
for Real, Ideal, and Public Self

Experimental Private Sample n=10	vs.	Control Private Sample n=10	t	P
1. LOV				
Real Self			+3.0	.005 - .0005
Ideal Self			+0.8*	.6 - .5
Public Self			+1.62	.10 - .05
2. DOM				
Real Self			+1.43	.10 - .05
Ideal Self			-0.44*	.8 - .7
Public Self			-0.48	.7 - .6

* - Two-tailed

Table 8

Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental
Private Sample and the Control Private Sample
for Self-Ideal Discrepancies

	Experimental Private Sample n=10	Control Private Sample n=10
1. LOV		
Self-Ideal	-3.2	-1.8
2. DOM		
Self-Ideal	-2.3	-4.1

The real self on the Lov dimension indicated a significant difference in change scores at the $p < .005$ level. This

Table 9

Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental
Private Sample vs. the Control Private Sample
for Self-Ideal Discrepancies

Experimental Private Sample n=10	vs.	Control Private Sample n=10	t	P
1. LOV Self-Ideal			-0.72	.25-.20
2. DOM Self Ideal			-0.93	.20-.10

implies that the video confrontation may provoke a change toward less pathology in the real self of experimental subjects on the Lov dimension. Two other t values reflect trends. A difference ($p < .10$) in change scores of the public self on the Lov dimension reflects the experimental group's resistance to changing the public self as compared to the control group's shift toward more loving and less pathology. Changes in the real self on the Dom dimension ($p < .10$) reflect a slight experimental group shift toward more dominance and more pathology as compared with a greater control group shift toward more dominance and more pathology.

Differences in self ideal discrepancy change scores were not significantly different between the experimental and control groups.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis received some support. On the

Lov dimension, the real self reflected a significant difference in change scores at the $p < .005$ level. This reflects a shift within the experimental private sample toward less pathology as compared with a minor change toward less pathology within the control private sample. There was a trend on the Dom dimension which reflects a minor change toward more pathology within the experimental private sample as compared with a larger change toward increased pathology within the control private sample.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis received some support. On both the Lov and Dom dimensions, the ideal self reflected no significant differences in change scores.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis was not supported. However, there was one trend on the Lov dimension which reflected no change in the public self within the experimental private sample as compared with a shift toward less pathology within the control private sample. This, of course, is a direct contradiction of the predicted results. On the Dom dimension, there were no significant differences in change scores.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis was not supported. A comparison of the experimental private sample and the control private sample indicated no significant differences in self-ideal self discrepancy change scores.

Experimental Public Sample Versus Control Public Sample

Table 10 summarizes the means of sample differences on the Lov and Dom dimensions for the real self, the ideal self, and the public self.

Table 10

Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental
Public Sample and the Control Public Sample
for Real, Ideal, and Public Self

	Experimental Public Sample n=10	Control Public Sample n=10
1. LOV		
Real Self	+0.4	+1.4
Ideal Self	-1.9	+2.4
Public Self	+3.7	+1.3
2. DOM		
Real Self	-0.9	+1.1
Ideal Self	0.0	+0.4
Public Self	+0.6	-0.6

Note: Plus indicates a change toward more loving, or more dominant, while minus indicates a change toward less loving or less dominant. More loving implies less pathology, while more dominance implies more pathology.

Table 11 summarizes the independent t values obtained for the differences between the experimental public sample and the control public sample.

Table 12 summarizes the means of the sample differences on the Lov and Dom dimensions for self-ideal self discrepancies.

Table 11

Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental
Public Sample vs. the Control Public Sample
for Real, Ideal, and Public Self

Experimental Public Sample n=10	vs.	Control Public Sample n=10	t	P
1. LOV				
Real Self			+0.63	.6-.5
Ideal Self			-2.35*	.05-.025
Public Self			+1.28	.20-.10
2. DOM				
Real Self			-1.02	.20-.10
Ideal Self			+0.25*	1.0-.9
Public Self			+0.55	.6-.5

* - Two-tailed

Table 12

Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental
Public Sample and the Control Public Sample
for Self-Ideal Discrepancies

	Experimental Public Sample n=10	Control Public Sample n=10
1. LOV		
Self-Ideal	-0.1	-0.1
2. DOM		
Self-Ideal	+1.5	-0.7

Table 13 summarizes the independent t values obtained
between the experimental public sample and the control sample.

Table 13

Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental
Public Sample vs. the Control Public Sample
for Self-Ideal Discrepancies

Experimental Public Sample n=10	vs.	Control Public Sample n=10	t	P
1. LOV Self-Ideal			0.0	1.0-.9
2. Dom Self-Ideal			+0.97	.20-.10

Inspection of Table 11 reveals one significant difference. A difference in change scores at the $p < .025$ level reflects the experimental group's shift toward less loving and more pathology on the ideal self as compared with the control group's shift toward more loving and less pathology.

None of the t values for self-ideal self discrepancy change scores were significant.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis was not supported. On both the Lov and Dom dimensions, the real self reflected no significant differences in change scores.

Hypothesis 6

The sixth hypothesis was not supported. On the Lov dimension, the ideal self reflected a significant difference in change scores at the $p < .05$ level. This reflects a shift within the experimental public sample toward more pathology

as compared with a shift toward less pathology within the control public sample. As changes in ideal self were not hypothesized, this directly contradicts experimental expectations. There were no significant differences in change scores on the Dom dimension.

Hypothesis 7

The seventh hypothesis received no support. On both the Dom and Lov dimensions, there were no significant differences in change scores.

Hypothesis 8

The eighth hypothesis was not supported. A comparison of the experimental public sample and the control public sample indicated no significant differences in self-ideal self discrepancy change scores.

Experimental Public Sample Versus

Experimental Private Sample

Table 14 summarizes the means of sample differences on the Lov and Dom dimensions for the real self, the ideal self, and the public self.

Table 15 summarizes the independent t values obtained for the differences between the experimental public sample and the experimental private sample.

Table 16 summarizes the means of the sample differences on the Lov and Dom dimensions for self ideal self discrepancies.

Table 14

Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental
Public Sample and the Experimental Private Sample
for Real, Ideal, and Public Self

	Experimental Public Sample n=10	Experimental Private Sample n=10
1. LOV		
Real Self	+0.4	+6.2
Ideal Self	-1.9	+1.0
Public Self	+3.7	0.0
2. DOM		
Real Self	-0.9	+0.1
Ideal Self	0.0	-3.0
Public Self	+0.6	-0.7

Note: Plus indicates a change toward more loving, or more dominant, while minus indicates a change toward less loving or less dominant. More loving implies less pathology, while more dominance implies more pathology.

Table 17 summarizes the independent t values obtained between the experimental public sample and the experimental private sample for self-ideal self discrepancies.

Inspection of Table 15 reveals one significant t value and two trends. A t value significant at the $p < .005$ reflects the greater change toward higher scores and less pathology on the Lov dimension for the real self within the experimental private group as compared with a slight shift toward more love and less pathology within the experimental public group. One of the trends reflects the fact that the experimental public group did not shift their ideal self on the dominance

Table 15

Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental
Public Sample vs. the Experimental Private Sample
for Real, Ideal, and Public Self

Experimental Public Sample n=10	vs.	Experimental Private Sample n=10	t	P
1. LOV				
Real Self			+2.99	.005-.0005
Ideal Self			-1.49*	.20-.10
Public Self			+1.66	.10-.05
2. DOM				
Real Self			-0.50	.7-.6
Ideal Self			-1.95*	.10-.05
Public Self			+0.67	.6-.5

* - Two-tailed

Table 16

Summary of Means of Sample Differences for the Experimental
Public Sample and the Experimental Private Sample
for Self-Ideal Discrepancies

	Experimental Public Sample n=10	Experimental Private Sample n=10
1. LOV		
Self-Ideal	-0.1	-3.2
2. DOM		
Self-Ideal	+1.5	-2.3

dimension, while the experimental private group shifted toward less pathology. The remaining trend reflects the tendency of

Table 17

Summary of Independent t Values for the Experimental
Public Sample vs. Experimental Private Sample
for Self-Ideal Discrepancies

Experimental Public Sample n=10	vs.	Experimental Private Sample n=10	t	P
1. LOV Self-Ideal			-1.34	.10-.05
2. DOM Self-Ideal			-1.64	.10-.05

the experimental public group to shift their public self on the Lov dimension in a less pathological direction as compared with no change within the experimental private sample.

There were no significant changes in self-ideal self discrepancies between the experimental private sample and the experimental public sample. Trends, however, suggest that self-ideal self discrepancy change scores decreased in magnitude within the experimental private sample as compared with the experimental public group.

Hypothesis 9

The ninth hypothesis received some support. On the Lov dimension, the real self reflected a significant difference in change scores at the $p < .005$ level. This reflects a shift within the experimental private sample toward less pathology as compared with a minor change toward less pathology within the experimental public sample. On the Dom dimension, there

were no significant differences in change scores.

Hypothesis 10

The tenth hypothesis was not supported. There was one trend which contradicted expected results. On the Dom dimension, this trend reflected a shift toward less ideal self pathology within the experimental private group as compared with no change within the experimental public group.

Hypothesis 11

The eleventh hypothesis received little support. On the Lov dimension, a trend reflected no change in the public self of the experimental private sample as compared with a shift toward less pathology within the experimental public sample. On the Dom dimension, there were no significant differences in change scores.

Hypothesis 12

The twelfth hypothesis received little support. On the Lov dimension, a trend reflected a decrease in the magnitude of self-ideal self discrepancies within the experimental private sample as compared with a minor decrease in self-ideal self discrepancies within the experimental public sample. On the Dom dimension, a trend reflected a decrease in magnitude in self-ideal self discrepancies within the experimental private sample as compared with an increase in self-ideal self discrepancies within the experimental public sample.



CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The results of this experiment may be summarized in the following manner.

When the experimental private group and the control private group were compared, the following results were found. On the Lov dimension, the real self group mean of the experimental private sample shifted significantly toward less pathology. A trend was evident on the Dom dimension which reflected a minor change toward more pathology within the experimental private sample as compared with a larger shift toward increased pathology within the control private sample. The ideal self reflected no significant differences in change scores on either the Lov or Dom dimensions. There were no significant differences in change scores for the public self. A trend, however, suggested a shift toward less pathology within the control private sample as compared with no change within the experimental private sample. There were no significant differences in self-ideal self discrepancy change scores.

When the experimental public group and the control public group were compared, the following results were found.

On both the Lov and Dom dimensions, the real self reflected no significant differences in change scores. The ideal self on the Lov dimension reflected a significant difference in change scores. A shift within the experimental public sample toward more pathology as compared with a shift toward less pathology within the control public sample accounts for this finding. There were no significant differences on ideal self change scores on the Dom dimensions. The public self reflected no significant differences in change scores on either the Dom or Lov dimensions. Finally, there were no significant differences in self-ideal self discrepancy change scores.

When the experimental private sample and the experimental public sample were compared, the following results were found. On the Lov dimension, the experimental private sample shifted significantly toward less real self pathology. There were no significant differences in real self change scores on the Dom dimension. No significant changes were found for the ideal self change scores. One trend, though, reflected a shift on the Dom dimension toward less pathology within the experimental private group as compared to no change within the experimental public group. The public self reflected no significant differences. A trend, however, reflected no change in the experimental private sample as compared with a shift toward less pathology within the experimental public sample. While self-ideal self discrepancy change scores were not significant, trends on both the Lov

and Dom dimensions reflect a greater decrease in magnitude of discrepancies for the experimental private sample, as compared with a minor decrease in average discrepancy on the Lov dimension and an increase in average discrepancy on the Dom dimension for the experimental public group.

The real self on the Lov dimension changed significantly toward less pathology for the experimental private group. This finding remained significant at the $p < .005$ level regardless of whether this group was compared to the control private sample or to the experimental public sample. Since the experimental public sample did not change significantly on this dimension, the results suggest that in a non-threatening atmosphere college males are free to change their real self concepts toward behaviors labeled as loving on the ICL.

Perhaps the Lov dimension taps a portion of the masculine self concept which is amenable to change under certain circumstances. This study suggests that one of these circumstances may be a non-threatening atmosphere which in this instance involved watching feedback concerning oneself privately. When discussing the reasons why people liked or disliked them, or why they liked or disliked others, subjects usually referred to traits and attitudes classified as loving on the ICL. On the basis of this study, it appears that only in a non-threatening atmosphere may young college males recognize and assimilate any of these traits into their conscious descriptions of themselves. The absence of threat, so fre-

quently cited as necessary for therapeutic change (Ford & Urban, 1963), may also be an essential precondition if changes are to occur in self image confrontation situations.

But why should the Lov dimension be so amenable to change? It seems relatively clear that behaviors classified as loving depart from the "Marlboro Man" image of masculinity, and hence may represent a special threat to young males who have not yet established a firm ego identity (Erikson, 1963). And yet, changes on the Lov dimension occurred in the non-threatening condition. Bugental (1965) has argued that some men do seek outlets for tenderness and other loving behaviors in environments in which one's masculinity is not questioned. Perhaps, as this study implies, many men can at least describe themselves as more loving if the environment does not preclude recognition and/or assimilation of these needs into their real self concepts.

On the dominance dimension, the real self appeared highly resistant to change. One trend reflected a minor shift toward more pathology within the control private sample. In a new area of research it seems justifiable to present trends even though they must be accorded the status of statistical non-significance. Hence, this study implies that behaviors tapped by the Dom dimension of the ICL involve a segment of the masculine self concept which is quite rigid regardless of which of the two experimental treatments were involved. It is possible, of course, that the subjects could in no way

relate the experimental situation to behaviors classified as dominant. In short, further experimentation is needed before the Dom segment of the masculine self concept can be classified as inflexible.

The ideal self, though quite stable, proved to be somewhat less stable than was expected. There was one significant difference in change scores at the $p .05$ level which reflected a shift on the Lov dimension within the experimental public group toward more pathology as compared with a shift toward less pathology within the control public group. Thus, while the experimental private sample shifted their real self group mean toward more loving and less pathology, the experimental public group shifted their ideal self toward less loving and more pathology. Possibly, the shift in ideal self ratings represents a defensive maneuver designed to maintain consistency. A change in ideal self, in short, might serve to negate the necessity for recognizing and/or incorporating changes into the real self concept. These comments, though highly speculative, do contain assumptions that would provide exciting possibilities for further research.

Another trend reflected a shift on the Dom dimension toward less pathology within the experimental private group as compared to no change within the experimental public group. Again, a hint is provided suggesting that the ideal self may be subject to some change.

There were no significant differences between group

changes for the public self. There were two trends, however. One reflected a shift on the Lov dimension toward less pathology within the control private group as compared with no change within the experimental private group. The other trend reflected a shift on the Lov dimension toward less pathology within the experimental public group as compared with no change within the experimental private group.

These results seem somewhat perplexing, for one might reasonably assume that the public self would be maximally susceptible to change following self image confrontation. Nor is it unreasonable to assume that changes in real self concept would be accompanied by changes in the public self concept. And yet, the sample (experimental private) which demonstrated the most change in real self concept did not change the public self concept at all.

Unfortunately, this perplexing situation must remain perplexing. One might argue that the public self is of such central concern to the young male that it is highly resistant to change. Text books on adolescent psychology, e.g., Horrocks (1962), or social psychology texts, e.g., Sherif (1956) provide an abundance of evidence concerning adolescent conformity to peer expectations. Thus, the failure to significantly change the public self may represent a denial of one-self as appearing to violate cultural standards concerning the masculine self concept. This, of course, implies a split between the private self and the public self.

The foregoing generalizations are of a most dangerous variety. Generalizations based on statistically significant results provide precarious, sometimes Pyrrhic, victories over the infinite complexity of the facts. But generalizations based on the lack of statistically significant results, it may be argued, provide no victories at all.

There were no significant differences in self-ideal self discrepancy change scores between the groups. However, trends on the Lov and Dom dimensions reflect a greater decrease in magnitude of discrepancies for the experimental private sample as compared with a minor decrease in average discrepancy on the Lov dimension and an average increase in average discrepancy on the Dom dimension for the experimental public group. These findings lend some support to the contention that self image confrontation should be more therapeutic in a non-threatening atmosphere.

Nevertheless, generalizations cannot stand on trends. The safest conclusion, then, is that changes in self-ideal self discrepancies did not support the therapeutic effectiveness of self image confrontation within the context of this study. These results, in particular, may be an artifact of the population studied. That is, discrepancies between self and ideal self are minimal within a normal population, and hence no change for even a few experimental subjects or change for any control subjects renders statistical insignificance a foregone conclusion.

Exciting research possibilities with self image confrontation are almost limitless. Additional posttests could be added to the present design to investigate the nature of changes over time. Employing repeated confrontation offers further research possibilities.

To the present author, however, the most stimulating field for further research involves studying the effects of self image confrontation on various subject samples selected on the basis of relevant personality characteristics. A differential reaction to self image confrontation might be hypothesized for individuals on bipolar extremes of such continua as field independence—field dependence, cognitive complexity—cognitive simplicity, repression—sensitization, etc.

Finally, many variables related to change in therapeutic contexts such as age, intelligence, empathy, etc. might also affect reactions to self image confrontation and should be investigated.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

This dissertation was an attempt to study the effects of immediate self image confrontation via video tape on the self concepts of undergraduate male students at the University of Oklahoma. Relevant theoretical and empirical literature was presented. 40 male subjects were divided into two conditions: the experimental private condition and the experimental public condition. There was a control condition for each of the experimental conditions.

The experimental private sample was given a pretest, an interview, and then asked to privately watch a playback of the interview. A posttest followed immediately afterward. The control private sample underwent an identical sequence, with one exception. They viewed movies of Colorado rather than the interview. The experimental public sample was given a pretest, an interview, and then requested to watch with the experimenter a recording of the interview. A posttest was administered immediately afterward. The control public sample underwent an identical sequence but again with one exception. They viewed scenes of Colorado with the experimenter instead of a recording of the interview.

The Leary Interpersonal Check List was employed as a measure of the real self, the ideal self, and the public self for the pretest and posttest measurements for all samples.

Independent t values were calculated for comparing the mean differences between the experimental and control samples. Results indicated that the real self on the Lov dimension changed significantly toward less pathology within the experimental private sample. As predicted the ideal self was quite stable, but there was one significant exception. On the Lov dimension, the experimental public sample shifted toward more pathology as compared with a shift toward less pathology within the control public sample. There were no significant changes in the public self or in self-ideal self discrepancy change scores. Trends were presented and discussed.

The results were discussed and attempts at interpretation were made. Future research possibilities were considered.

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APPENDIX A¹

DIRECTIONS FOR FILLING OUT INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST

This booklet contains a list of words and phrases which describe the way people behave in relation to one another. You will use the list of words to describe yourself in three different ways. Use the circles under "1" to describe yourself as you think you really are. Use the circles under "2" to describe your ideal self—the way you would like to be if you had the choice. Use the circles under "3" to describe yourself as others see you—the impression you think you make on other people.

First, go through the list and select all those words and phrases which describe you, in your opinion, at the present time. If an item describes you, fill in the circle under "1" in the row of circles in front of that item. If an item does not describe you, leave the circle blank. In the example below, the first item is "acts stupid." The subject thought that this did not describe him, so he left the circle in this row in the first column blank. The subject thought that the second item, "pleasant," described him, so he filled in the first circle in the second row. The subject thought that "boring" described him, so he filled in the first circle in the third row. Your first impression is generally best, so go through the entire list of 128 items on the three pages in this fashion, filling in the circle when it describes you and leaving the circle blank when it does not.

1	2	3	
0	0	0	1 acts stupid
●	0	0	2 pleasant
●	0	0	3 boring

After you have marked all of the items under "1" which apply to you, return to the beginning and describe your ideal self in the same way, marking the circles under "2" for every item which describes how you would like to be. In the example on the next page, the subject did not wish to "act stupid,"

did wish that he could be "pleasant," and did not wish to be "boring." Hence, he filled in the circle for item 2 and left the other two circles in the second column blank.

1	2	3	
0	0	0	1 acts stupid
●	●	0	2 pleasant
●	0	0	3 boring

After you have filled in the circles under "2" for all items on all four pages that describe your ideal self, return to the beginning and describe, under "3", "Yourself as others see you." As before, fill in the circle if you think other people would use this phrase to describe you and leave it blank if you think others would not describe you with this item.

Always go through the entire list of items under one number before filling in circles under the next number. Your first impression is generally the best, so work quickly and don't be concerned about duplications, contradictions or being exact. If you feel much doubt as to whether an item applies, leave it blank.

If there is anything you do not understand as to how to fill out this checklist, ask the experimenter to help you.

LEARY INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST

1	2	3	1
0	0	0	well thought of
0	0	0	2 dictatorial
0	0	0	3 good leader
0	0	0	4 acts important
0	0	0	5 likes responsibility
0	0	0	6 tries to be too successful
0	0	0	7 forceful
0	0	0	8 always giving advice
0	0	0	9 makes a good impression
0	0	0	10 bossy
0	0	0	11 respected by others
0	0	0	12 manages others
0	0	0	13 able to give orders
0	0	0	14 expects everyone to admire him
0	0	0	15 often admired
0	0	0	16 dominating
0	0	0	17 self-respecting
0	0	0	18 cold and unfeeling
0	0	0	19 businesslike
0	0	0	20 proud and self-satisfied
0	0	0	21 likes to compete with others
0	0	0	22 somewhat snobbish
0	0	0	23 can be indifferent to others

1	2	3	24
0	0	0	boastful
			25
0	0	0	independent
			26
0	0	0	thinks only of himself
			27
0	0	0	self-reliant and assertive
			28
0	0	0	selfish
			29
0	0	0	able to take care of self
			30
0	0	0	egotistical and conceited
			31
0	0	0	self-confident
			32
0	0	0	shrewd and calculating
			33
0	0	0	impatient with other's mistakes
			34
0	0	0	straightforward and direct
			35
0	0	0	frequently angry
			36
0	0	0	firm but just
			37
0	0	0	hard-hearted
			38
0	0	0	hard-boiled when necessary
			39
0	0	0	often unfriendly
			40
0	0	0	can be strict if necessary
			41
0	0	0	self-seeking
			42
0	0	0	can be frank and honest
			43
0	0	0	cruel and unkind
			44
0	0	0	irritable
			45
0	0	0	outspoken
			46
0	0	0	stern but fair
			47
0	0	0	sarcastic
			48
0	0	0	critical of others

1	2	3	49
0	0	0	can complain if necessary
			50
0	0	0	distrusts everybody
			51
0	0	0	hard to impress
			52
0	0	0	complaining
			53
0	0	0	touchy and easily hurt
			54
0	0	0	resentful
			55
0	0	0	frequently disappointed
			56
0	0	0	bitter
			57
0	0	0	often gloomy
			58
0	0	0	jealous
			59
0	0	0	skeptical
			60
0	0	0	stubborn
			61
0	0	0	able to doubt others
			62
0	0	0	rebels against everything
			63
0	0	0	resents being bossed
			64
0	0	0	slow to forgive a wrong
			65
0	0	0	self-punishing
			66
0	0	0	modest
			67
0	0	0	obeys too willingly
			68
0	0	0	apologetic
			69
0	0	0	spineless
			70
0	0	0	easily embarrassed
			71
0	0	0	meek
			72
0	0	0	able to criticize self
			73
0	0	0	shy

1	2	3	74
0	0	0	can be obedient
			75
0	0	0	always ashamed of self
			76
0	0	0	easily led
			77
0	0	0	passive and unaggressive
			78
0	0	0	lacks self-confidence
			79
0	0	0	timid
			80
0	0	0	usually gives in
			81
0	0	0	grateful
			82
0	0	0	will believe anyone
			83
0	0	0	accepts advice readily
			84
0	0	0	wants to be led
			85
0	0	0	trusting and eager to please
			86
0	0	0	hardly ever talks back
			87
0	0	0	very anxious to be approved of
			88
0	0	0	dependent
			89
0	0	0	admires and imitates others
			90
0	0	0	lets others make decisions
			91
0	0	0	very respectful to authority
			92
0	0	0	likes to be taken care of
			93
0	0	0	appreciative
			94
0	0	0	clinging vine
			95
0	0	0	often helped by others
			96
0	0	0	easily fooled
			97
0	0	0	cooperative
			98
0	0	0	loves everyone

1	2	3	99
0	0	0	sociable and neighborly
			100
0	0	0	will confide in anyone
			101
0	0	0	warm
			102
0	0	0	wants everyone's love
			103
0	0	0	affectionate and understanding
			104
0	0	0	too easily influenced by friends
			105
0	0	0	eager to get along with others
			106
0	0	0	fond of everyone
			107
0	0	0	wants everyone to like him
			108
0	0	0	friendly all the time
			109
0	0	0	friendly
			110
0	0	0	agrees with everyone
			111
0	0	0	always pleasant and agreeable
			112
0	0	0	likes everybody
			113
0	0	0	considerate
			114
0	0	0	spoils people with kindness
			115
0	0	0	enjoys taking care of others
			116
0	0	0	oversympathetic
			117
0	0	0	gives freely of self
			118
0	0	0	too lenient with others
			119
0	0	0	big-hearted and unselfish
			120
0	0	0	forgives anything
			121
0	0	0	encourages others
			122
0	0	0	generous to a fault
			123
0	0	0	tender and soft-hearted

1	2	3	124
0	0	0	too willing to give to others
			125
0	0	0	helpful
			126
0	0	0	tries to comfort everyone
			127
0	0	0	kind and reassuring
			128
0	0	0	overprotective of others

¹This is a modified form of the ICL. Items have been rearranged in an effort to control for response bias (Boyd, Personal communication, April 16, 1968).

APPENDIX B

SUBJECT INFORMATION SHEET

- 1.) Name: _____
- 2.) Sex: _____
- 3.) Age: _____
- 4.) Single: _____ Married: _____ Other: _____
- 5.) Number of semesters in college: _____
- 6.) Grade Point Average: _____
- 7.) How many members in your immediate family (including yourself)? _____

APPENDIX C

STANDARDIZED INTERVIEW¹

- 1.) Are you a member of a fraternity or do you live in a dormitory?
 - a.) Why did you choose to live in a fraternity (dormitory)?
 - b.) Do you feel that fraternity members differ as people from dormitory residents? How?
- 2.) If you could change any one thing about O.U., what would that be?
- 3.) If you could change any one thing about your fellow students at O. U., what would that be?
- 4.) How do you get along with other people at O. U.?
 - a.) Do you like any of them? Why?
 - b.) Do you dislike any of them? Why?
 - c.) Do any of them dislike you? Why?
 - d.) Do any of them like you? Why?
- 5.) Have you ever participated in a psychological experiment before? How do you feel about participating in this experiment and being asked these questions?

¹Questions 4 and 5 are modifications of questions used by Boyd and Sisney (1967).

APPENDIX D

STANDARD SCORE PRETEST AND POSTTEST GROUP MEANS FOR THE REAL SELF, THE IDEAL SELF, AND THE PUBLIC SELF

	LOV		DOM	
	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Experimental Private Sample				
Real Self	44.7	50.9	58.0	58.1
Ideal Self	49.9	50.9	66.0	63.0
Public Self	47.9	47.9	59.0	58.3
Control Private Sample				
Real Self	47.3	49.0	52.9	54.8
Ideal Self	51.4	51.0	66.9	64.7
Public Self	45.6	49.1	55.1	55.4
Experimental Public Sample				
Real Self	46.4	46.8	60.5	59.6
Ideal Self	49.9	48.0	66.0	66.0
Public Self	41.8	45.5	59.8	60.4
Control Public Sample				
Real Self	42.8	44.4	59.0	60.1
Ideal Self	47.3	49.4	64.5	64.9
Public Self	39.7	41.0	62.6	62.0

APPENDIX E

RESPONSES ON LEARY INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST
FOR ALL SUBJECTS, SUBDIVIDED BY
EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SAMPLES

EXPERIMENTAL PRIVATE SAMPLE - PRETEST

Subject No.	NO			JK			BC			FG			LM			DE			AP			HI		
	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P
001	3	5	3	7	4	4	10	6	7	5	3	4	3	6	4	8	6	7	7	7	8	5	4	2
002	2	7	3	6	3	3	8	7	10	4	1	3	2	5	2	4	5	5	7	8	8	3	2	4
003	1	2	3	3	0	2	3	5	4	6	2	1	1	2	0	2	0	3	1	5	1	2	0	1
004	7	6	6	4	2	4	5	3	3	3	0	0	4	6	6	1	1	2	2	7	6	4	2	6
005	4	10	4	5	2	6	8	9	6	2	3	6	6	11	7	3	7	3	7	8	4	3	2	3
006	4	7	3	7	6	8	9	8	10	5	3	6	7	8	3	7	6	6	8	10	6	4	4	2
007	4	3	6	2	2	3	7	6	3	2	0	3	1	1	6	5	3	0	6	4	4	3	1	1
008	4	5	4	2	2	1	10	10	7	3	2	2	6	4	5	6	8	5	9	8	8	4	4	2
009	0	1	0	2	0	0	5	7	1	4	2	2	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
010	3	9	7	8	8	6	7	8	5	5	1	5	7	13	10	10	5	5	8	8	8	8	4	6

EXPERIMENTAL PRIVATE SAMPLE - POSTTEST

001	3	5	3	4	9	3	4	7	6	3	2	3	4	8	3	4	7	8	8	7	7	2	4	6
002	3	7	3	4	5	4	7	10	10	3	2	5	3	6	3	4	6	6	6	8	9	4	5	4
003	1	1	2	0	1	0	1	2	1	3	1	1	1	1	2	1	0	1	1	4	1	1	0	1
004	7	5	8	3	4	3	4	6	5	1	0	0	7	6	9	1	2	1	3	5	4	6	2	4
005	3	7	2	3	2	4	6	5	6	3	3	2	7	8	6	2	4	3	4	8	3	3	1	2
006	6	5	2	7	7	8	7	8	8	4	4	5	5	8	3	2	7	4	7	9	7	2	4	2
007	3	2	1	2	1	2	5	6	5	3	2	2	4	5	2	0	3	2	6	4	2	3	5	3
008	7	9	9	2	2	2	8	11	8	2	2	2	6	7	8	8	6	5	7	7	7	3	2	2
009	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	2	1	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1
010	6	8	3	11	7	9	4	7	4	4	2	2	9	12	8	5	6	7	8	7	7	6	3	6

NO - Overgenerous- Responsible
 JK - Docile - Dependent
 BD - Exploitive - Competitive
 FG - Skeptical - Distrustful

LM - Cooperative - Overconventional
 DE - Aggressive - Blunt
 AP - Managerial - Autocratic
 HI - Modest - Self-effacing

CONTROL PRIVATE SAMPLE - PRETEST

Subject No.	NO			JK			BC			FG			LM			DE			AP			HI		
	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P
011	1	0	1	2	0	3	2	5	3	4	0	2	2	2	0	5	3	4	3	6	5	3	1	1
012	3	4	2	6	2	5	4	6	5	4	0	2	3	5	4	3	2	2	2	9	2	5	2	1
013	3	5	4	4	5	3	3	5	4	2	0	3	5	4	3	4	3	3	5	7	5	2	3	3
014	5	3	2	5	2	2	5	6	5	4	4	4	2	2	4	1	2	4	5	4	7	5	1	3
015	2	10	5	9	9	7	10	8	13	3	2	6	7	13	10	2	8	8	4	10	4	7	3	8
016	5	10	2	8	6	9	4	5	2	9	1	6	10	8	7	4	5	6	5	7	3	7	3	6
017	2	5	0	3	4	4	7	7	8	6	1	3	4	4	3	6	3	3	7	9	7	2	1	1
018	2	6	2	2	4	2	7	10	10	7	4	6	6	10	2	6	7	8	5	8	6	3	3	1
019	2	6	2	4	4	1	7	6	4	3	0	2	4	6	4	5	6	2	3	5	4	2	2	1
020	2	5	1	5	2	4	2	6	3	5	1	5	6	8	6	2	3	2	4	8	2	8	3	9

CONTROL PRIVATE SAMPLE - POSTTEST

011	1	3	1	2	1	1	0	6	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	6	4	1	3	5	3	4	3	5
012	1	2	2	4	1	3	3	4	1	2	2	0	3	2	3	2	2	1	2	3	1	2	0	0
013	2	2	1	3	6	2	1	4	2	1	0	2	5	6	4	1	3	1	4	4	2	2	2	1
014	6	4	7	6	3	4	4	4	6	4	3	4	5	4	5	3	2	2	5	6	6	4	2	5
015	1	10	3	8	8	8	9	7	12	2	2	5	10	13	10	6	8	8	6	11	8	6	2	6
016	6	10	5	9	5	7	3	7	3	6	1	5	10	9	7	7	7	4	8	8	5	9	4	7
017	3	4	2	3	3	4	5	8	6	3	2	4	3	5	5	6	3	2	7	8	6	2	2	1
018	1	7	2	3	5	3	7	9	7	5	4	4	4	7	3	6	7	5	5	9	7	2	3	2
019	3	7	3	5	5	5	6	7	6	2	2	1	4	6	2	7	7	6	4	5	2	2	3	2
020	3	4	3	5	5	4	3	4	3	2	1	2	4	6	5	2	3	2	3	8	2	9	3	9

NO - Overgenerous - Responsible
 JK - Docile - Dependent
 BC - Exploitive - Competitive
 FG - Skeptical - Distrustful

LM - Cooperative - Overconventional
 DE - Aggressive - Blunt
 AP - Managerial - Autocratic
 HI - Modest - Self-effacing

EXPERIMENTAL PUBLIC SAMPLE - PRETEST

Subject No.	NO			JK			BC			FG			LM			DE			AP			HI		
	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P
021	10	10	4	8	8	4	8	9	7	3	2	6	10	13	9	6	5	8	9	7	11	5	4	2
022	10	10	5	4	5	4	11	8	14	10	4	14	9	10	6	13	10	14	7	10	8	3	5	0
023	6	6	6	5	2	5	7	5	8	5	0	6	7	8	5	2	2	3	7	8	8	3	2	2
024	1	6	3	0	4	4	6	8	3	3	2	2	1	8	2	1	6	5	7	9	5	1	3	1
025	6	2	2	5	2	2	6	11	5	3	3	1	4	2	4	8	8	6	8	9	6	4	1	5
026	6	5	5	5	3	2	7	8	7	3	1	1	7	9	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	2	2	1
027	5	8	8	4	5	7	6	10	9	6	5	9	6	7	5	6	7	5	8	8	3	2	2	4
028	0	3	0	4	4	2	7	7	6	6	2	5	4	7	4	7	7	6	4	7	4	2	3	1
029	4	6	4	7	3	6	3	7	7	10	4	12	6	8	5	11	8	14	8	8	10	6	4	7
030	7	6	3	4	6	4	7	6	6	4	3	3	8	7	4	4	6	3	6	9	5	5	3	5

EXPERIMENTAL PUBLIC SAMPLE - POSTTEST

021	5	9	5	7	5	5	7	8	8	4	1	3	10	12	8	8	5	9	5	7	4	4	3	2
022	7	9	6	4	5	2	11	12	13	9	5	11	8	9	4	15	9	16	10	10	9	3	7	2
023	4	3	4	1	1	2	6	4	6	0	1	0	5	4	8	3	1	2	5	6	3	1	2	1
024	2	3	2	1	3	5	4	8	5	2	2	1	3	5	2	1	5	3	6	9	5	1	3	0
025	3	2	2	5	2	4	4	10	7	2	2	1	3	4	2	5	6	5	6	10	4	3	1	2
026	5	4	7	4	4	5	4	5	3	0	0	1	6	7	6	4	4	4	6	7	7	1	1	1
027	4	3	3	6	5	6	6	10	6	5	5	4	6	4	4	5	8	3	8	7	5	2	2	2
028	1	4	0	2	5	5	7	8	7	2	2	3	3	6	2	6	4	6	3	8	4	2	3	2
029	5	7	5	4	5	3	3	9	6	8	4	7	7	6	9	10	8	10	8	7	9	6	5	4
030	3	5	3	4	3	2	5	5	2	2	2	1	6	6	5	3	4	3	3	10	4	6	3	6

NO - Overgenerous - Responsible
 JK - Docile - Dependent
 BC - Exploitive - Competitive
 FG - Skeptical - Distrustful

LM - Cooperative - Overconvensional
 DE - Aggressive - Blunt
 AP - Managerial - Autocratic
 HI - Modest - Self-effacing

CONTROL PUBLIC SAMPLE - PRETEST

Subject No.	NO			JK			BC			FG			LM			DE			AP			HI		
	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P	S	I	P
031	3	2	1	2	2	2	8	8	7	9	0	9	5	4	2	9	7	8	8	9	9	4	3	4
032	1	2	0	0	0	0	5	7	3	8	2	5	0	4	0	7	3	4	1	1	0	3	1	1
033	9	4	7	4	5	5	8	7	10	6	3	8	6	5	5	6	7	10	11	8	8	4	3	3
034	2	4	3	6	6	3	8	8	6	4	2	3	6	6	6	4	5	3	7	10	7	4	2	2
035	6	3	12	5	8	4	6	10	10	8	3	9	7	6	7	9	5	7	8	8	14	4	4	3
036	1	5	0	0	2	1	9	7	10	5	2	5	0	3	0	7	6	9	6	8	5	1	2	2
037	5	5	0	5	4	0	6	6	7	3	2	3	4	6	1	6	4	3	5	8	2	7	4	2
038	2	4	5	3	4	3	6	6	10	6	2	7	3	7	5	9	5	13	11	9	12	2	3	2
039	3	5	1	6	3	4	9	8	7	3	3	1	9	8	8	7	7	5	10	10	8	1	2	2
040	8	9	7	4	3	2	4	7	6	1	3	1	11	10	4	2	6	3	5	7	4	7	3	4

CONTROL PUBLIC SAMPLE - POSTTEST

031	2	2	2	2	2	2	8	7	8	6	1	6	5	4	4	8	4	8	9	9	9	4	3	2
032	0	5	2	1	3	0	6	7	6	5	1	6	0	8	0	5	4	6	1	6	1	2	2	1
033	6	8	7	7	5	6	9	7	9	6	2	8	6	8	6	7	8	12	11	6	10	2	2	3
034	5	6	4	6	6	7	7	8	7	3	2	4	6	7	5	4	7	5	6	8	8	4	3	2
035	7	3	8	4	8	5	7	9	8	7	2	7	5	5	7	7	6	11	8	8	10	3	5	3
036	2	5	2	2	3	1	7	8	7	2	2	2	0	3	2	10	6	4	5	9	6	2	2	1
037	1	3	0	2	4	0	4	4	3	2	0	1	3	5	1	2	2	2	3	4	1	4	3	1
038	3	5	4	3	5	6	5	7	9	6	3	8	6	6	6	9	6	10	8	10	12	3	3	2
039	5	4	4	3	5	3	8	10	9	3	3	0	11	10	10	6	8	3	10	11	10	4	4	3
040	9	11	8	2	2	3	7	7	6	2	3	3	11	10	5	1	5	5	4	7	3	5	1	3

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