THE SELF MONITORING OF EXPRESSIVE BEHAVIOR IN HUMAN RELATIONS GROUPS

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To Dad

Terribly unschooled; finely educated

Anticipating with pride the day I would finish "whatever it is you are learning"

Knowing as few do that education is not learning

Living too long; dying too soon

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Introduction

The research which follows consists of a set of three studies of the effects of human relations training on participants' Self-Monitoring of Expressive Behavior. The Self-Monitoring Scale is an instrument constructed by Snyder (1974) to measure the ability of people to pick up cues from others concerning appropriate behavior in various situations and to adjust their behavior in accord with those cues. Self-Monitoring in these studies is conceived as a measure of subjects' sensitivity to others, i.e., to behaviors deemed appropriate by others.

The purpose of these studies is to provide an investigation of sensitivity (defined by the Self-Monitoring Scale) in human relations groups which is based on a demonstrably reliable and standardized instrument. As the review of the literature which follows illustrates, most studies of sensitivity in human relations groups have neither used reliable instruments nor been well controlled. These studies aim to fill those gaps.

This report consists of a review of the literature and three separate, but related, studies. The first was a pilot study of Self-Monitoring in six university human relations groups using a laboratory method. Because similar treatments were administered to all six groups, control in the study was less than ideal. Though the groups acted as comparisons for each other, there was no real control group. Nevertheless, unexpected results encouraged more stringent investigation.

The second study investigated in more detail and with greater control the effects on Self-Monitoring of human relations experience using both a laboratory and a case study approach. An additional control group which received no treatment at all was also used. This study constituted the major body of the research and incorporated, in addition, an attempt at longitudinal follow-up.

The third study investigated Self-Monitoring in a group with content and methodology similar to human relations classes, but unrelated to a university setting. It involved a residential laboratory in Organizational Effectiveness Training sponsored by Consultant/Trainers Southwest.

B. Previous Research on Sensitivity

A number of studies have been designed specifically to test whether participants in human relations groups

do, in fact, learn to be more sensitive to others. The weight of the results, insofar as they are methodologically reliable, indicates that sensitivity to cues from others may be learned in such groups, but the evidence is not unanimous. In this section, we shall examine some of those studies on sensitivity in human relations groups.

Gage and Exline (1953) conducted an early study on the accuracy of interpersonal perception by participants in discussion groups. Using judgments by peers as their baseline criteria, they found no clear-cut change in the ability of participants in four groups to predict the responses of other participants. They did discover, however, that those members whose opinions were most like the group average were judged to have the highest sensitivity to the feelings of fellow members. This implies that perceived sensitivity is a function of the similarity of one's views to the views of the group as a whole.

Wedel (1957), in a large study of 18 human relations groups at the National Training Laboratories Green Lake laboratory found some tendencies toward increased insight and a resulting ability to predict the responses of others, but the trends were not statistically significant. Data was gathered through the use of sociometric tests of social perception and from opinion blanks about the groups. These tests were administered to three hundred and thirty-

three participants before, during and after training.

In the same year, Bennis, Burke, Cutter, Harrington, and Hoffman (1957) conducted a study to assess the discrepancies between "actual self" and "ideal self" among twelve students in a semester-long T-group. Using a 34-item inventory of possible role behaviors (e.g., "tries to understand the contributions of others"), students rated themselves on a 7-point scale on the basis of how accurately each of the behaviors described their actual role behavior and their ideal role behavior. No changes in sensitivity between actual self and ideal self were found. Bennis et al noted that the difficulties were at least partly methodological and entitle their article "A Note on Some Problems of Measurement and Prediction in a Training Group."

While these studies indicated no increase in sensitivity to the cues from others, another, larger body of research indicates that changes did, in fact, take place in sensitivity groups. In an early work by Kelley and Pepitone (1952) of a college course in human relations at MIT, 146 men in seven sections of the course were tested in three different groups, one each at the beginning, the midpoint, and the end of the course. The data-gathering instruments were three Management Techniques Problems (i.e., three different case studies on managerial style). Subjects provided 20 minutes of written

analysis on each problem, and the written analyses were then content analyzed. Kelley and Pepitone found a statistically significant change, from relatively negative to relatively positive, in subjects' attitudes during the course. The changes were in the direction of more sensitivity to the needs, feelings, and general welfare of the workers mentioned in the problems.

A few years after Bennis et al had taken note of the methodological difficulties of research with training groups, Burke and Bennis (1961) attempted to resolve some of the difficulties in a follow-up study. They investigated, in this later study, not only the relationship between perceived actual self and perceived ideal self, but also the relationship between self-percept and perception of one's self by others. They devised The Group Semantic Differential Test as the data-gathering instrument and administered it to participants in human relations training at the 1958 NTL Summer Laboratory at Bethel, Maine. They found significant convergence both in real and ideal self (as self-perceived), and between self-percept and perception by others.

Miles, Cohen, and Whitam (1959), used pre- and post-test administrations of the Gibb-Miles Group Behavior Task to study 154 subjects at five different training laboratories. The test was scored on four variables: a) sensitivity to feelings, b) sensitivity to behaviors,

c) sensitivity to group decisions, and d) diagnostic ability. Miles et al found that participants in these five training laboratories consistently increased in sensitivity to feelings, but not in sensitivity on the other measures.

Lohman, Zenger, and Weschler (1959) attempted to determine whether changes occur in students' self-perceptions and their perceptions of trainers during a human relations group. They used the Gordon Personal Profile, which measures a) ascendancy, b) responsibility, c) emotional stability, d) sociability, and e) a total self-evaluation, a score determined by summing the other four measures. On this measure, students rated themselves and the trainer. In addition, the trainer's self-perception was also obtained. Among other results, Lohman et al found that at the end of the group, students' perception of the trainer and the trainer's self-perception tended to converge. Apparently participants in this human relations group were, after training, better able to predict responses by the leader. This finding, however, was not statistically significant. Furthermore, the study had serious methodological problems in that controls were very loose. Participants, for instance, answered the same pre- and post-test questionnaire and there was not a control group. The nonsignificant trend may have been merely the result of increased sensitivity

to taking the same test twice!

In a series of management training laboratories, Bass (1962) studied reactions to the film "Twelve Angry Men" as a technique for detecting sensitivity to interpersonal relationships. The film was shown to thirty-four managers before and after a two-week human relations group. The measurement of sensitivity was the completion of sentence stems about occurrences or characters in the film. For example, one sentence stem was "The reason that the architect (Henry Fonda) went to the drinking fountain was that...," and another was, "The old man changed his vote because..." Results indicated that sensitivity to interpersonal relationships in the film increased significantly as a consequence of participation in the management training laboratory. Controls, however, were again very loose, and scores may have been increased simply by taking the test twice or by seeing the film twice.

To counter that possibility, Bass showed the film to two other groups of trainees after their training only, and these trainees responded to this post-test in ways similar to the first group, suggesting to Bass that increased sensitivity must be due to the training and not to seeing the film twice. In spite of the methodological difficulties, this study is uniquely interesting because, while Bass studied sensitivity as a consequence of human relations training, his concern was with sensitivity to

phenomena other than those related directly to the people in the human relations group. Interpersonal sensitivity was tested in relationship to characters in the film, not to people in the human relations group itself.

Blansfield (1962) reported a series of five-day, live-in human relations groups used in the organizational development effort of a large national corporation which employed 3500 people. The report is an anecdotal case study, and is completely uncontrolled, but on the basis of feedback questionnaires completed by participants, there occurred a) greater awareness of the reactions of others to one's self, b) greater consciousness of one's relations to others, and c) new sensitivity to, and tolerance of, the feelings, aims, and ambitions of others.

In a significant study of especially mixed results, five months after a human relations laboratory, and again seven months afterward, Sikes (1964) tested twelve persons who had completed the laboratory experience. On both occasions, pairs of participants were placed in small discussion groups with control subjects. After each discussion, each person ranked every other person in the discussion group on five performance factors and then predicted how he was ranked by each of the other members. Sikes hypothesized that those people who had received human relations training would 1) be more accurate in predicting the responses of other members in

the group, and 2) be perceived by other members of the group as being more effective participants. At both the five-month and the seven-month interval, participants who had received human relations training were seen as more effective group members than those who had not. However, they were not necessarily more accurate in predicting the responses of other members; in fact, the results on this hypothesis were so mixed as to be uninterpretable: at the five-month interval, human relations participants were significantly more accurate than were controls in predicting the responses of other members of the group, but at the seven-month interval they were not. Does that mean that between the fifth and the seventh month they lost the ability to predict accurately? (If so, why at the particular interval tested--why not at the first month, or after the seventh, or some other time?) Or were there, rather methodological problems in measuring accuracy of perception, related to dual administrations of the testing procedures?

The well-known recent work of Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles (1973) also supports the proposition that participants in human relations groups learn sensitivity to the cues of others. In their massive work, Lieberman et al used at least 17 instruments or techniques for gathering data from 248 subjects in 17 experimental groups (using 10 approaches) and 1 control group. In addition, 29

observers were present at group meetings to provide data in at least seven additional ways. The instruments provided data on a wide range of phenomena related to participant outcomes, leadership, and group climate. Of the mass of data Lieberman et al report, our concern here is with that portion which touches upon sensitivity to self and others.

In self-reports from participants, among the changes most often acknowledged, both at the immediate termination of human relations groups and six to eight months later, was "increased awareness of self and others" (p. 95).

These self-reports were confirmed by the perceptions of leaders. At the termination of each group, the leader rated each member on nine eleven-point scales, which asked him to compare each member with people from groups he had led in the past. Each participant was rated twice, first as perceived by the leader at the end of the group, and then as the leader recalled the participant during the first couple of meetings. The distance between these "now" and "then" judgments was the measure with which Lieberman et al were concerned. The nine scales rated Openness, Sensitivity (defined as "Sensitivity to others' feelings and reactions, understanding of others"), Spontaneity, Self Understanding, Closeness, Anger, Collaboration, Positive Self-image, and Happiness. "Sensitivity" was among the dimensions on which leaders

saw members changing most.

Differences between experimental participants and controls was examined on the basis of 33 indices which were organized into five areas: Values and Attitudes, Behavior, Self, Conceptions of Others, and External Relationships. Participants were found, immediately following the group, to have increased their valuation of such concepts as "Learning How Others See Me" and for "Changing Some of the Ways I Relate to People," while the valuation by controls of these concepts decreased. Furthermore, six to eight months later, differences on this valuative dimension were retained, while differences among most other measured dimensions had completely attenuated.

As Lieberman et al note, these changes, while important, are largely internal to participants, and may or may not be apparent to others: "Behavioral manifestations, the index to others that an individual had changed, are not pronounced as overall effects of encounter groups" (p. 116). Behavioral changes appear particularly unstable in this study. Although immediately following the group experience participants increased both in their coping ability and in their perception of their behavior as being more interpersonally adequate, differences on the former measure (which might be interpreted as responding to cues from other

people as to appropriate behavior) had completely dissipated by the time of the long-term post-test at eight months. In spite of some methodological testing problems, Lieberman et al found some changes in sensitivity as a result of human relations training, but those changes were not necessarily lasting.

In summary, the research on sensitivity training presents considerable evidence that participants in human relations training groups learn to be more sensitive to the cues of others and more aware of the impact of their own behavior upon others and of others' behavior upon themselves. The evidence, however, is not unanimous, and is plagued by serious theoretical and methodological problems. We turn, now, to further examination of some of the problems with measurement and theoretical constructs related to the concept of sensitivity.

C. Difficulties with Research on Sensitivity

1. Problems with Adequate Control

Several difficulties reside with the studies described in the previous section, not the least of which is the lack of proper design controls. Several of the preceding studies used no control groups at all, and some others used only comparison groups, all of which received similar treatments.

The most obvious violation of good research design

is the anecdotal study by Blansfield (1962). It was simply the reporting of experiences with human relations training in an organizational development effort, and some rudimentary data from feedback questionnaires is provided. The study did not purport to be experimental, however, so perhaps it should not be judged harshly by those standards.

Other studies, however, did purport to be experimental, and are almost as disappointing. Both Bennis et al (1957) and Lohman, Zenger, and Weschler (1959), for example, investigated only one experimental group, and used no control subjects.

A number of other studies followed the same pattern, that of failing to use control subjects, but used more than one experimental group. In such cases, at least the groups may provide some sort of comparisons for each other. Among those studies which incorporated a design using several experimental groups, but no control groups, were Gage and Exline (1953), 4 groups; Miles, Cohen, and Whitam (1959), 5 groups; Wedel (1957), 18 groups; and Burke and Bennis (1961), 6 groups.

A few other studies had relatively better controls. Bass's work (1962) is at least acceptable. In order to provide controls on a group that initially was not controlled, he administered the open-ended questions about the film to a second group as a post-test only. The

results were very similar to the results obtained from the group which received both the pre- and the post-test. The findings are somewhat contaminated, however because the groups were not conducted or observed at the same time. How can one be sure that the second group had not heard from the first group about the study, and that as a result their responses on the post-test were not purely those of a once-only test? On the other hand, the belated control was considerably better than none at all.

Kelley and Pepitone (1952) designed considerably more control into the research. Using 7 sections of a human relations course, data-gathering instruments were administered to 3 sections at the beginning of the course, to 2 sections at the midpoint, and to 2 sections at the end of the course. This, it seems, may provide a considerable degree of control. Unfortunately, this much better use of controls was combined with the use of questionable instruments) open-ended written analyses of case studies), and as a result Kelley and Pepitone's findings are not as unambiguous as one might desire.

Sikes (1964) used controls both imaginatively and with sound design. Five and seven months after the human relations training ended, he mixed experimental subjects (who had received training) and control subjects (who had not received training) together in discussion groups, and then measured their accuracy in predicting the

responses of others. This unique design for controls seems sound, but the results concerning the sensitivity of participants to others (with accuracy as the criterion) were decidedly ambiguous because greater sensitivity was displayed by experimentals at the fifth month, but not at the seventh month.

The Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles study (1973), the largest and most recent of the major studies, did incorporate adequate controls. In addition to the 17 experimental groups (which examined ten approaches to human relations training) which could be used as comparison groups for each other, an additional group, a course in Race and Prejudice, was used as a control group and contained 38 subjects. One difficulty with the study may be, ironically, that such a mass of data was gathered. Two methodological problems may have resulted: a) with so much data in raw form, analysis was difficult, and b) the taking of some of the data may have contaminated other data, and there was no check on that.

Well-controlled studies of human relations training are a rarity, with only the Lieberman, Yalom, Miles (1973) and the Sikes (1964), and possibly one or two others qualifying in that category. There is a dire need for such controlled study of human relations groups.

2. Problems with Instrumentation

The problem of controls in human relations training is a general one which contaminates most such studies, regardless of the particular outcome of phenomenon being studied. We turn, in this section, to a more specific problem, one peculiar to the research of sensitivity as an outcome of human relations training. In this section we shall examine the instrumentation which has been used in previous studies. In the following section, we shall look into some of the basic conceptual and theoretical issues inherent in the concept of sensitivity. Actually the two sections--instrumentation and conceptual issues--are inter-related, but we have arbitrarily separated them here for ease of discussion.

The methods that have been used to measure sensitivity are almost as numerous as the studies. One characteristic of previous research on sensitivity in groups has been the multiplicity of idiosyncratic instrumentation (Cooper and Mangham, 1971). Open-ended questionnaires, ad hoc instruments prepared for (and used with) one particular study, and peer ratings are the rule, not the exception. The use of standardized measures of any sort is extremely rare.

We have discussed ten research studies which in some manner investigate sensitivity as an outcome of human relations training. Of those, three relied on open-ended

questionnaires of some sort. The Blansfield (1962) data was all provided by questionnaires requesting feedback from participants about how they felt about the training. Apparently it was not initially intended as data for research at all. Kelley and Pepitone (1952) used only open-ended written analyses of three case studies for their data. And in Bass's study (1962), only open-ended questions on the film, "Twelve Angry Men," supplied data.

Two of the studies measured sensitivity through ratings or predictions by others of how a person would respond. These included Wedel (1957), who used sociometric tests of social perception, and Sikes (1964), who had participants and controls predict the responses of others. In general, the assumption in both cases was that sensitivity could be deduced to the extent that one's own perceptions approximated those of others.

Researchers in some other studies devised ad hoc tests of some sort to meet the need of a particular study. Wedel (1957) did this (in addition to the sociometric tests) to gain opinions from participants about changes in sensitivity as a result of the group experience. Bennis et al (1957) devised a 34-item inventory of possible role behaviors, which participants then rated as to accuracy in describing one's real or ideal roles. And Burke and Bennis (1961) devised a Group Semantic Differential Test to measure real-ideal self-concepts. By comparing one's own

ratings with those of others (as with previously described ratings and predictions by others), they also used the Group Semantic Differential Test to measure differences between self-concept and perception by others.

In the Lieberman, Yalom, Miles (1973) work, of 25 instruments completed by participants, leaders, or observers, 19 were of the ad hoc type, devised by the researchers to meet the needs of that particular study. In addition, several of those were open-ended. Furthermore, two others compared perception of self and perception by others in the manner of Wedel and Sikes. Three standardized tests were used: an adaptation of Kelly's REP test (Harrison, 1962), the Rosenberg Scales (Rosenberg, 1965), and FIRO-B (Schutz, 1966).

The question of interest for us now, however, is the manner in which sensitivity was measured by Lieberman et al. Unfortunately, sensitivity in this water-mark study was measured by open-ended, self-report questions which were scored by subjectively selecting "signs of change" (pp. 100, 106-107). The difficulty with such open-ended tests lies in establishing reliable norms, since almost always they are used in only one study and with little pre-testing. Furthermore, Lieberman et al do not describe how "signs of change" were determined to have occurred. They did use three standardized tests in the study but none of them provided data on the sensitivity of

participants.

Two earlier studies, however, did incorporate standardized tests which have been in relatively common usage. These were the studies by Miles et al (1959) and by Lohman et al (1959). The former used the Gibb-Miles Group Behavior Task and the latter used the Gordon Personal Profile. Unfortunately, the results of both of these studies are unreliable because neither study involved the use of control subjects. Furthermore, Miles, Cohen, and Whitam themselves advise caution in interpreting even their less-than-overwhelming results because of the diagnostic stage of development of the Gibb-Miles instrument and the uncertainty regarding its reliability and validity.

Why do so many studies on sensitivity use open-ended questions, predictions by others, and other ad hoc instruments? Two reasons are apparent: 1) The easiest way to get information for a specific research question is simply to ask participants and such ad hoc research questions result in ad hoc instruments; 2) Standardized questionnaires or tests of sensitivity have, for the most part, simply not been available.

The difficulties with tests designed only to meet the needs of a single study, and with failing to validate and standardize them, are twofold: 1) One can never be sure what he is measuring. That is, various tests measure

different things. In this case, those different things have been called "sensitivity." But because they are all named the same does not mean that they are the same. They may or may not be; one cannot be sure unless an instrument is used which is carefully devised and used repeatedly. 2) These non-standardized, non-validated tests have almost always been used but once--i.e., in the research of the creator alone. There is little carry-over from one study to another. Increases in sensitivity, even if proven in two separate studies, are relatively meaningless against the broad backdrop of human relations training unless they are proven by the same, well-controlled means, i.e., a standardized measurement of sensitivity. Obviously, the two questions--1) What is one measuring? and 2) Are other people measuring the same thing--are interrelated. And they both lead to the basic conceptual and theoretical issues surrounding sensitivity in human relations groups.

3. Conceptual and Theoretical Issues

As with many psychological concepts, the concept of sensitivity has proved difficult to define precisely. It has been conceived in a number of ways: as sensitivity to feelings of others, as sensitivity to the behavior of others, as sensitivity to group processes such as norms or decision-making structures or leadership hierarchies.

It has been defined as empathy with others, or tolerance for others. Alternatively, sensitivity has been seen as the ability to predict others' feelings, attitudes, or behavior with accuracy. And to further complicate the conceptual problems, some studies speak of sensitivity not only to others, but also of sensitivity to oneself. One has the feeling that many strands of a single rope have been hopelessly knotted together! In this section, we shall examine some of those knots, and try to unravel some of them.

a. The problem of "accuracy." Some studies, specifically those of Wedel (1957) and of Sikes (1964), depend for a measurement of sensitivity upon approximation of one's own perceptions with the perceptions of others. A conceptual problem of objective accuracy underlies such studies because interpersonal perceptions are to some extent subjective. That is, perceptions are not separate from perceivers, but rather, any perceiver brings his or her own implicit world view into the perception. Given this inherent difficulty with the nature of human perception, a measurement of sensitivity based only upon the agreement of a subject and an untrained observer is at least open to question. Such self-other approximations, when used as measurements "seem more dominated by what a Judge brings to the Other than what he takes in from

the Other" (Gage and Cronbach, 1955). The studies of Wedel and Sikes are plagued by this difficulty. At first sight, attempts to define sensitivity in terms of accuracy of perception seem plausible, but in the end, they must collapse because "accuracy" is itself such an illusory concept.

b. Confusion of sensitivity to others and sensitivity to self. A confusion between sensitivity to self and sensitivity to others exists, but is less pervasive than the accuracy question. All of the studies we have cited above seem primarily concerned with the sensitivity of participants to others in human relations training.

However, paradoxically, even this appearance of clarity about the possible confusion may itself be the confusion. In psychological and human relations literature, intimations, if not outright statements, are plentiful that sensitivity to others is dependent upon (or at least concomitant with) sensitivity to self. Before the psychiatrist can serve others in his trade, he must first experience psychoanalysis himself in order to become aware of his own functioning and motivations. Supposedly, he will then be more sensitive to the difficulties of others. Our concern here is not with psychiatric training, but with the implication that measures of sensitivity necessarily involve sensitivity to self. While one must

be aware of the theoretical implication that sensitivity to others involves sensitivity to self, that is no necessary reason why measurement of sensitivity to others must involve a measurement of sensitivity to self.

Viewed theoretically, the two concepts of sensitivity to self and of sensitivity to others are complexly related. However, when viewed practically, the actual measurement of sensitivity to others does not necessarily involve measurement of sensitivity to self. The converse, however, may not be true: if one were concerned with measuring sensitivity to self it would seem necessary to separate out sensitivity to others. A difficulty is that it is virtually impossible to imagine how one might measure sensitivity to self directly, and not through some manifestation of sensitivity to others. Apart from physiological changes, as in biofeedback, purely subjective self-reports of self-sensitivity seem the only option. Purely subjective self-reports are not satisfactory, and sensitivity to one's physiological changes may or may not bear relationship to one's own feelings, attitudes, or behavior.

c. Confusion of sensitivity to feelings, attitudes, and behavior. Much confusion exists in current literature on sensitivity between sensitivity to the feelings of others, sensitivity to attitudes, and sensitivity to

behavior. Studies previously cited which involved considerable confusion include: Gage and Exline (1953); Wedel (1957); Bennis et al (1957); Bass (1962); and Sikes (1964). As one reads these studies, he is unclear whether the form of sensitivity being investigated relates to feelings, to attitudes, or to behavior.

Using both attitudinal instruments and behavioral reports from subjects themselves and from their "social networks," Lieberman et al (1973) delineate the lines between attitudes and behaviors somewhat more clearly than most other studies of sensitivity. Miles, Cohan, and Whitam (1959) are even more clear on the distinction, and they found increases among subjects in sensitivity to feelings, but not in sensitivity to behaviors.

Conceptually, the problem can be put, How can one measure sensitivity to feelings or to attitudes except through sensitivity to behaviors? What would it mean to be sensitive to another's feelings unless the other in some way behaviorally indicated his feelings? If one is angry, and in no way (consciously or subconsciously) indicates that he is angry, it is inconceivable that another could be sensitive to his anger. Of course, it is possible that when a particular person becomes angry, he might withdraw all usual signals of anger and behave placidly. Still, that, too, is a behavior, and to one who knows that the person behaves in such a manner when

angry, may be a cue that the person is angry. To other, less knowledgable people, the same cue may be interpreted differently, i.e., that the man remains placid. The point is that, in either case, the angry man emits a behavioral cue.

Even if one argues that increased concern for how others might be feeling can lead to a greater tendency to infer what another person is feeling, still one must base such inference on data of some sort. Such data can come only from oneself or from the others. If it comes from oneself, then it may be only accidental if the inference of what another is feeling happens to match what the other person actually is feeling. On the other hand, if data for the inference comes from the other, it must be grounded in some behavioral cue or set of cues.

Sensitivity, then, we are led to conclude, must necessarily ultimately be seen in terms of sensitivity to behavior. Sensitivity to attitudes or to feelings of others may very well exist and be meaningful concepts, but (unless one admits of extrasensory perception) such sensitivity is necessarily dependent upon prior sensitivity to the behavior of others, even if that behavior is then interpreted to reflect certain feelings or attitudes.

d. Sensitivity and behavior change. If it is true that sensitivity must necessarily be sensitivity to the

behavior of others, then a further question arises: Does a person, as a result of becoming more sensitive to the behavior of others, then himself behave differently? That is, sensitivity in human relations groups to behavioral cues from others involves two related questions: a) Do participants in human relations training learn to be more sensitive to cues from others? b) As a result of becoming more sensitive, do people act differently? This second question has been virtually untouched by the current body of research with human relations groups. Only Lieberman et al (1973) recognize it and take it seriously as a research question. They asked people in the subjects' social networks whether they noticed any changes in the subjects' behavior. Some change was noted among about half of the experimental subjects, but closely similar changes were observed among control subjects also. Differences between experimentals and controls were virtually non-existent. Furthermore, at least in the form reported, the changes that did appear were not related to issues of sensitivity. Nevertheless, the question of the relationship of increased sensitivity and of changed behavior is an important one--and one seldom investigated.

e. Sensitivity and group processes: a theoretical model. Over the years, one of the purposes of human relations training has been the training of participants

to be more aware of, more sensitive to, other persons. One underlying goal of human relations training is "expanded consciousness and recognition of choice" (Bennis, 1962), which occurs through an unfreezing process involving sensitivity to others and to one's impact upon them. Benne, Bradford, and Lippitt (1964) explicitly identify as goals of human relations training both awareness of the expressive component of interactions with others and behavioral effectiveness in transactions with one's environment. And Gibb (1971) argues that "an early goal of group leaders was to help participants to understand and predict the feelings, characteristics, or reactions of others."

Thus, human relations training has purported to include among its learnings by participants both more sensitive awareness of the cues from other people about one's impact, and more behavioral responsiveness to the cues as they are received from others. What processes in human relations groups facilitate or inhibit sensitivity among participants? Why might a person become more sensitive as a consequence of the experience? What are the functional processes? With the knowledge that what follows is not exhaustive, we will outline some of the processes which function in a human relations group to induce and enhance sensitivity to others among partici-

pants. We must, necessarily, be somewhat speculative at this point, as most of the processes have not been investigated. Nevertheless, our conceptualizations are supported by volumes of theoretical literature (itself largely unresearched), by experience in numerous human relations groups, and by common sense.

Lieberman et al (1973) factor analyzed twenty-seven variables of leadership in groups, and found that they were subsumed under four basic functions, which they called "Emotional Stimulation" (self-revelation of personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; challenging; confronting; etc.), "Caring" (protecting, befriending, supporting, encouraging, etc.), "Meaning-Attribution" (providing cognitive framework for the group experiences), and "Executive Function" (providing structure for the group, setting limits and norms, managing time, etc.).

As originally conceived, these functions were seen as functions of designated leaders. More broadly conceived, they are necessary functions to be performed in any human relations group, whether by the designated leader or by other persons. Several of these functions relate directly to changes in the sensitivity of participants.

One of the factors, for instance, which probably contributes to increased sensitivity is cognition about

awareness of others (and about self), about stereotyping, about tolerance, etc. This is a Meaning-Attribution function, and as it is performed (whether by the leader or by others), participants' attention may become directed to issues or people which previously had not been in their awareness. They become more aware of--more sensitive to--cues from others' behavior.

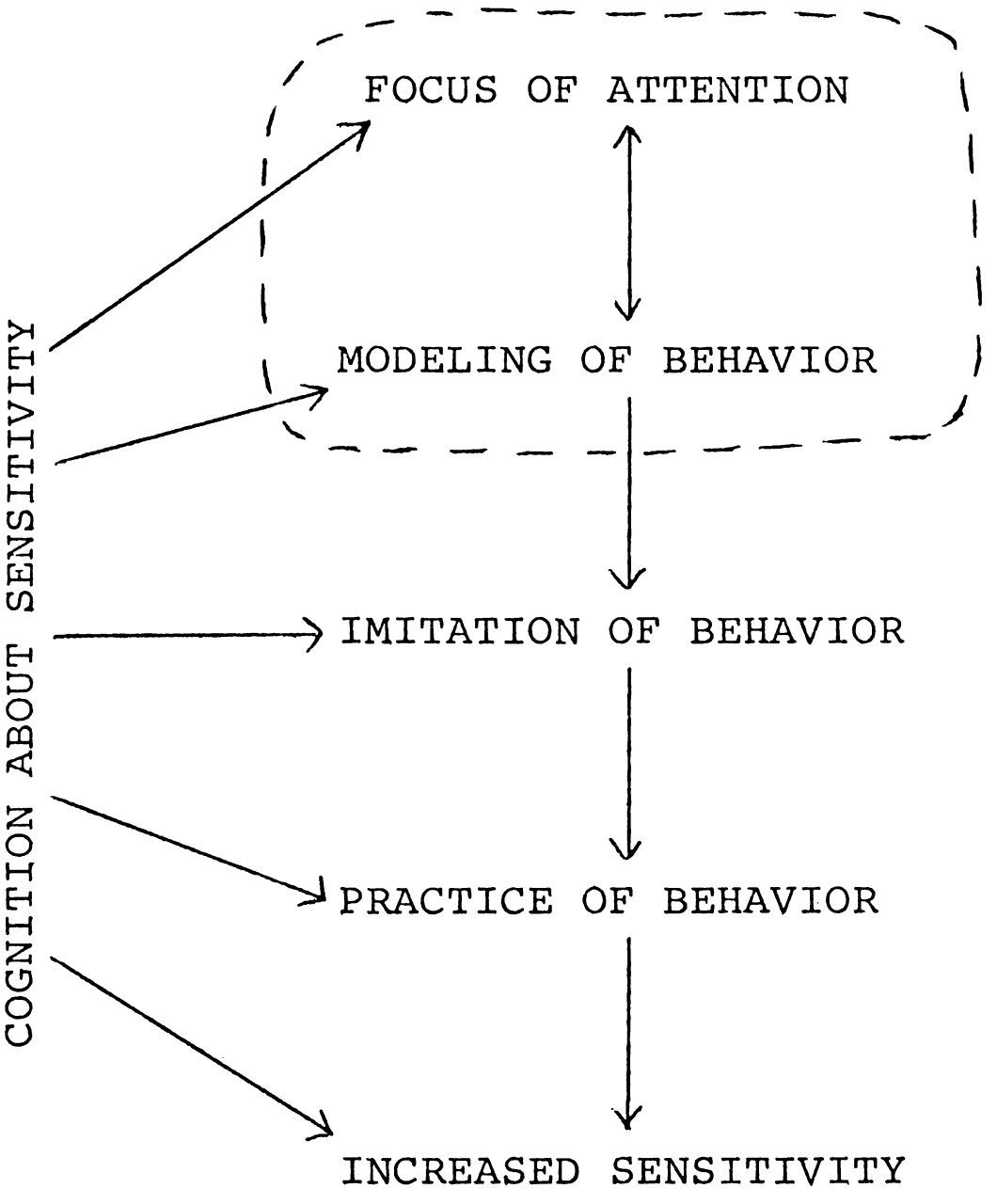
Similarly, as Caring is <u>modeled</u> in a group (by the leader or by others), it may lead to increased sensitivity. As people see empathy, tolerance, support, etc. often it confronts them with their own lack of empathy, intolerance, or lack of support (Egan, 1973), and the result may be greater sensitivity. As some people model sensitive behavior, others may imitate that behavior and, thus, themselves learn sensitivity.

The imitation of others also becomes a <u>practicing</u> of new behavior. In fact, in human relations groups, people often are invited to experiment with new behavior, and to practice behavior which might seem awkward to them at first or in other settings. In this sense of experimentation with new behaviors, such groups have come to be called "laboratories." Among other behaviors which may be practiced is that of sensitivity to others.

We have begun to develop a model for the learning of sensitivity in human relations groups: modeling by

FIGURE 1

A MODEL FOR LEARNING SENSITIVITY
IN HUMAN RELATIONS GROUPS



others leads to imitation, which leads to practice, which leads to sensitivity. In addition, at least one other element is involved: a focus of attention on sensitivity. Visually, the model might be depicted as in Figure 1.

Note that the focusing of attention on sensitivity may be provided by the modeling of sensitivity itself, or alternatively, attention may be focused in some other manner, such as a discussion about sensitivity. Notice also that cognitive activity toward the purpose of making reasoned sense of the group experience may occur at any or all of the steps along the way.

The model displays what happens to an individual in the context of a group, but it is not yet complete, for it fails to take account of the norms of the group which may affect any or all of the stages. If the norms of the group are in the direction of increased honesty, self-revelation, support, and confrontation, increased sensitivity of participants is likely to be an outcome. If, however, the norms are toward covering, protecting, hiding, and defending oneself, then it seems increased sensitivity is less likely to result. In the terms of Lieberman et al, these norm-setting functions are Executive Functions.

The cohesiveness of a group also affects the learning of sensitivity, for it is the cohesion of a group which

supplies power to group norms to compel norm-adhering behavior. Schacter, Ellertson, McBride, and Gregory (1951) demonstrated that cohesion in a group did not necessarily lead to productivity, but that, rather, a cohesive group had the power to influence members either toward or away from productivity, depending upon the direction of the norms of the group. Similarly, we may suppose that cohesion does not necessarily lead to sensitivity, but that a cohesive group has the power to influence members either toward or away from sensitivity, depending upon the direction of the norms of the group. That is, forces in a group relating to sensitivity have both a vector (determined by norms) and a force (determined by cohesion). The model in Figure 1 assumes that the group norms are in the direction of increased sensitivity and that there is sufficient cohesion to enforce the norms. Only under these conditions will the model be operable.

We have seen that several conceptual issues pervade the study of sensitivity. They include the problem of accuracy; the relationship of sensitivity to others and sensitivity to oneself; the relationship of sensitivity to feelings, to attitudes, and to behaviors; the possible changed behavior of one who has increased in sensitivity; and the group processes which induce changes in sensitivity.

This study does not propose to resolve all of these conceptual issues. Rather, we have outlined them so that we may see the task that lies before us, and so that we may, with more clarity, understand the issues on which this study does focus and those which it leaves untouched. We shall, in the next section, see how the Self-Monitoring of Expressive Behavior relates to the issues of sensitivity as we have outlined them in this section and how the Self-Monitoring Scale may function as a measure of sensitivity to others.

D. Self-Monitoring of Expressive Behavior

1. Construction of the Self-Monitoring Scale

Snyder (1974) has developed a theory and a scale for the measurement of what he has called the "Self-Monitoring of Expressive Behavior." He has argued that there are individual differences among people in their concern for the appropriateness of their behavior in social situations, their sensitivity to the expression and self-presentation of others in social situations as cues to social appropriateness of self-expression, and in their use of these cues as guidelines for monitoring and managing their own self-presentation and expressive behavior. The inclination and ability to do these three things is called "self-monitoring." A self-monitoring person is one who, out of a concern for social appropriateness,

is particularly sensitive to the expressions and self-presentations of others in social situations and uses these cues as guidelines for monitoring his or her own self-presentation and expressive behavior.

The Self-Monitoring Scale is a 25-item true-false instrument. It has a Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability of .70, and a test-retest reliability of .83 ($df = 51$, $p < .001$, one month time interval). It has a slight inverse relationship to the Psychopathic Deviate Scale of the MMPI ($r = .20$, $df = 190$, $p < .01$) and is unrelated to the c Scale of the Performance Style Test (Ring and Wallston, 1968), the Machiavellianism Scale (Christie and Geis, 1970), the Test Anxiety Scale (Alpert and Haber, 1960), or Inner-Other Directedness (Kassarjian, 1962).

2. Self-Monitoring and Need for Approval

In order to further validate the Self-Monitoring Scale, Snyder conducted a series of studies designed to compare individuals' Self-Monitoring with their Need for Approval. Measured by the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne and Marlowe, 1963), Need for Approval gauges the tendency of people to give socially desirable responses on the test instrument. Perhaps people with a high Need for Approval give socially desirable responses because they are particularly attentive to social cues concerning the desirability of particular

behaviors. If that were the case, the Self-Monitoring Scale would simply measure the same phenomenon as the Social Desirability Scale. That is not the case, however, for there is a slight negative correlation ($r = -.19$, $df = 190$, $p < .01$) between the two scales.

Peer ratings of Self-Monitoring were found to be unrelated to Need for Approval. Also, the ability of people to convey a series of emotions was related to Self-Monitoring ($F = 11.72$; $df = 1.51$; $p < .01$) but not to Need for Approval. Finally, taking advantage of opportunities to obtain information about what others purportedly expected in a self-presentation task was related to Self-Monitoring ($F = 4.70$; $df = 1.23$; $p < .05$) but was not related to Need for Approval.

Though on the face of it, Self-Monitoring might appear to be related to Need for Approval, research indicates that Self-Monitoring is, in fact, an independent phenomenon. It is internally consistent, temporarily stable, and uncorrelated with other potentially related concepts.

E. Self-Monitoring of Expressive Behavior As a Measure of Sensitivity

Snyder's Self-Monitoring Scale measures the ability of a person to pick up the cues from others concerning behavior appropriate to any particular situation, and

b) to modify his or her behavior to make it more appropriate. As such, it is a measure of one dimension of sensitivity to others. And it is a concept somewhat different from any previous instrument for measuring sensitivity, being based both on the ability of one to pick up cues as to appropriate behavior and to monitor his or her behavior. Use of the Self-Monitoring Scale as a measure of sensitivity has several advantages over previous instruments:

1) It is not concerned with sensitivity to self, and does not confuse sensitivity to self and sensitivity to others.

2) It is concerned with sensitivity to cues--behaviors--from others regarding what is appropriate for one's own behavior, and is not concerned primarily with sensitivity to feelings or attitudes.

3) It measures sensitivity to behaviors (cues) from others in terms of reported changes in one's own behavior, not in terms of changes in perceptions or feelings. Changes in behavior may be observed by another person and, therefore, may provide a sign change actually has occurred. The Self-Monitoring Scale, being a self-report instrument, does not itself measure actual behavioral changes, but it does provide a framework in which such observation would be at least theoretically possible.

4) Though still a self-report instrument, unlike previous instruments on sensitivity, the Self-Monitoring Scale has been validated by means other than self-report. Snyder (1974) has validated it against peer ratings of self-monitoring, against judges' ratings of emotional expression, and against a true behavioral search for social information.

5) It avoids the accuracy issue by having been previously validated through, among other methods, peer and judge ratings. Accuracy always remains an issue, but the Self-Monitoring Scale at least does not require that the same study simultaneously measure sensitivity and verify the accuracy of the measurement.

6) Being a short true-false questionnaire, administration and analysis of the instrument is relatively simple as compared to sociometric instruments, observer ratings, open-ended questionnaires, etc.

For the above reasons, the Self-Monitoring Scale has advantages over previous methods of measuring sensitivity. If used in a well-controlled study, it should be able to tell us much more, and with greater assurance, than have previous studies.

The following set of studies also launched the research of Self-Monitoring per se into a new arena. The Self-Monitoring Scale has not previously been used as a

test of sensitivity in human relations groups--nor for that matter, among any subjects for whom the group context might be considered important. This means that we may expect to obtain some of the first indications whether Self-Monitoring functions similarly under the powerful group norms of human relations training as it does among, for instance, the non-selected undergraduates at Stanford who were studied by Snyder.

Prior to the Pilot Study (reported in Chapter II), we expected participants in human relations groups to increase in sensitivity, and therefore, in scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale. The results of the pilot study necessitated a revision of our expectations for the more controlled studies to follow. If participants in human relations groups were to have greater increases in Self-Monitoring than did controls, we could comfortably attribute them to increased sensitivity to cues from others. But how may we interpret the possibility of significant <u>decreases</u> in Self-Monitoring among participants in human relations groups?

It seems likely that the norms of human relations groups which emphasize openness, authenticity, and honesty in self-disclosure encourage subjects to relax concerns they may have for the appropriateness of their behavior, and to respond, instead, by greater

expression of their "true selves." This pattern of group norms and resultant behavior seems to run contrary to self-monitoring, and would show up as decreases in scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale.

We might expect those subjects with highest Needs for Approval to be most sensitive to the norms of a human relations group. If, as we suppose, those norms are in the direction of greater expression of one's "true self," and away from self-monitoring of expressive behavior, we would expect the Self-Monitoring scores of people lowest in Need for Approval. The studies which follow test that possibility.

Other questions arise regarding the meaning of changes in Self-Monitoring in the context of human relations groups. For instance, is change, if any, real and lasting change, or is it situationally dependent and existent only in the context of the group while enforced by the norms of the group? To test the stability of changes in Self-Monitoring, a follow-up study some weeks after the group experience was conducted.

If Self-Monitoring scores in human relations groups decline, that might be interpreted as greater interest in self (vis-a-vis interest in behaving as others deem appropriate). But what is the nature of such increased interest in self: Is it "selfishness"? Or "self-reflection"?

Other questions were also investigated. If there are changes in Self-Monitoring, might they be dependent primarily upon the norms for honesty and self-revelation extant in human relations groups? Specifically, would questions on the Self-Monitoring Scale dealing directly with issues of honesty with oneself and with others account for any changes which might occur? Do sexual differences differentially affect Self-Monitoring scores? Does one's year in college affect Self-Monitoring? And finally, might one's choice of either one of two Grading Alternatives (i.e., a Point System or Self-Evaluation) be a differentiating predictor of changes in Self-Monitoring?

The research of these questions is outlined in the methodology, results, and discussion of the studies which follow. The first study described is a Pilot Study for the purpose of preliminary investigation of the concept of Self-Monitoring in human relations groups. The second is the major research study of Self-Monitoring in human relations groups. It compares five human relations training groups with a control group and with a comparison group of subjects dealing with similar human relations content, but with different instructional methodology. The third study is a report of research on Self-Monitoring in a multi-phase residential skill laboratory.

CHAPTER II

STUDY 1: PILOT STUDY ON SELF-MONITORING

This body of research on Self-Monitoring actually consists of three separate, but related, studies. The first is an uncontrolled pilot study to discover, in a preliminary way, the effects of Self-Monitoring in human relations classes at the University of Kansas. As we shall see, the study produced some unexpected results which invited more stringent investigation.

A. Method

In the Fall Semester, 1974, sixty-eight students who were enrolled in 6 sections of Speech 540 at the University of Kansas participated in a pilot study on Self-Monitoring of Expressive Behavior. The course was titled, "Human Relations in Group Interaction I," and consisted largely of upper class men and women.

The six sections included a variety of instructors and of time schedules. Each of the six sections met once per week for three hours, some in the afternoon and some in the evening. However, the sections varied in the number of weeks they met, and some (those meeting for fewer weeks) incorporated additional day-long sessions as a part of

the instructional format. Specifically, three sections met for eight weeks, with two day-long, nine-hour sessions during the eight weeks, one near the beginning of the semester, and one near the end of the eight weeks. Two of the sections met for ten weeks, with one day-long, nine-hour session during the ten weeks. And one section met through fifteen weeks of the semester, with no day-long session. Three instructors taught two sections each.

Figure 2 is a summary chart of instructors as related to the length of time sections met and the number of usable pre-post scores on Self-Monitoring for each section. Self-Monitoring scores were counted as usable when individual subjects provided scores for both the pre-test and the post-test.

FIGURE 2

LENGTH OF SECTION, INSTRUCTOR, AND NUMBER OF SUBJECTS FOR EACH SECTION IN PILOT STUDY

I N S T R U C T O R S

A	B	C	
10 wk n = 14	8 wk n = 14	15 wk n = 10	
10 wk n = 12	8 wk n = 7	8 wk n = 11	N = 68

In the Pilot Study, we expected subjects' scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale to increase significantly between the pre- and the post-test as a result of receiving human relations training. We also expected individual instructors to have differential impact upon the Self-Monitoring scores of their students.

B. Results

Contrary to the anticipated results, subjects' Self-Monitoring scores did not increase on the post-test over the pre-test scores. In fact, in all six human relations groups, scores consistently decreased an average of .90 to 1.86 points per subject. This difference was significant ($F = 8.94$; $df = 1/61$; $p < .005$) (Table 1).

The relationship we expected between Self-Monitoring scores and instructors did not exist. Instructors did not have differential impact upon the Self-Monitoring scores of their students.

C. Discussion

Because it was a relatively uncontrolled study, the results of the Pilot Study are difficult to interpret with much precision. If a control group has received, for instance, a treatment different from that received by each of the experimental groups, the interpretative task would be somewhat simpler. At least two possible

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SELF-MONITORING SCORES FOR THE PILOT STUDY

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Total Between	1521.58	66		
Section	123.15	5	24.63	1.07
Error	1398.43	61	22.93	
Total Within	418.37	67		
Trial	53.03	1	53.03	8.94*
Trial by Section	3.66	5	0.73	0.12
Error	361.68	61	5.93	

$p < .005$

TABLE 2

MEAN SELF-MONITORING SCORES BY TRIAL FOR THE PILOT STUDY

Pre	12.49
Post	11.24
$\bar{x}$	11.87

explanations present themselves however.

One possible explanation is related to the fact that the testing was done in the context of human relations groups, with encounter as the primary methodology. Perhaps, because of the unique and powerful norms of human relations groups for honesty in self-disclosure, subjects received affirmation from other members of the group for admitting points at which they were less than perfect in expressing their "true selves." That is, because of the unique setting, subjects might simply be reinforced for being less attentive to the cues of others concerning appropriate behavior--or at least reinforced for not acting on those cues, whether or not they were sensitive to them. Between the pre-test and the post-test, they would learn that reinforcement came for behaving autonomously rather than for attending to any cues from others they may have received. The result would appear in the form of decreased scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale.

If this were the case, we would expect those subjects with highest Needs for Approval (as indicated by the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scales) to be most susceptible to group pressures toward expressing one's "true self." We would expect those people with highest Needs of Approval by others to be most sensitive to norms for appropriate behavior. If we assume that there is one set of norms (i.e., caution and guardedness) for

appropriate behavior in our subjects' "everyday" world and another, different set of norms (i.e., revelation of one's thought and feelings) for appropriate behavior in a human relations group, then it is likely that those people with highest Needs for Approval will be most sensitive to the norms in both situations. The result may be that such people enter human relations groups more conscious than others of monitoring their behavior, but as the group progresses those same people perceive more clearly than others that the norms of that situation are in the direction of reducing the monitoring of their behavior. As a consequence, their scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale would decrease from pre- to post-test more than would the scores of those people who have less Need for Approval from others, and therefore would be less sensitive to the unique norms of the human relations group.

A second possible explanation for the results of the Pilot Study assumes that the decreased Self-Monitoring scores were the result not of the predisposition of subjects toward Self-Monitoring and/or Need for Approval, but rather were the direct result of subjects' learning in human relations groups. Perhaps human relations groups do, in fact, teach participants to be more autonomous and self-responsible than they would be without the human

relations training. If subjects do learn autonomy, then we would expect them to be less responsive (though not necessarily less attentive) to cues from others regarding appropriate behavior. Such an increase in autonomy would appear as decreased scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale.

The studies which follow have been conceived to follow up the findings of the Pilot Study by providing control groups and to investigate the reasons for the decreases in self-monitoring.

CHAPTER III

STUDY 2: SELF-MONITORING IN HUMAN RELATIONS CLASSES

A. Method

1. General Design

In the Spring Semester, 1975, the Pilot Study was followed by a more controlled study. Seven groups, six of them classes at the University of Kansas and the seventh a control group composed of students at the same university, completed the Self-Monitoring Scale and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale as a pre-test and again as a post-test. In addition, for some of the subjects, a follow-up administration of both scales was completed several weeks later. A total of 117 subjects was involved in the study.

Groups 1 through 5 (a total of 78 subjects) consisted of sections of Speech 540, "Human Relations in Group Interaction--I." Each section of the course was a human relations group which used a laboratory method of learning, and met once per week for three hours each class session. Most of the students in each section were upper classmen, though a smattering of freshmen and sophomores were enrolled.

Time schedules for Groups 1 through 5 varied. Four of the sections met for eight weekly, three-hour sessions

and for two day-long (nine-hour) sessions, one near the beginning of the semester and one near the end of the eight weeks. One of the sections met for eleven weekly, three-hour sessions and for one day-long (nine-hour) session toward the end of the eleven weeks. The five classes were taught by three instructors.

Group 6 consisted of 20 subjects (16 males and 4 females) enrolled in Speech 240, "Cases in Human Relations." The group was selected because it was a human relations course in which the content was similar to that of Speech 540, but which used a case-discussion method of learning rather than a laboratory, encounter approach. Group 6 met, for 15 weeks during the semester, thrice each week for one hour each session.

Group 7 consisted of 19 subjects enlisted as a control group. At registration time, early in the semester, as Speech 540 sections reached capacity and registration for them was ended, a waiting list was compiled of people who wished to enroll in Speech 540. They were told there was a possibility one or more new sections might be opened, and were requested to sign their name, address, and telephone number.

About one week later each person was called, told that no new sections had been opened, but that we would like them to participate in some research on human rela-

tions groups (See Appendix F). They were requested to meet twice--once early in the semester, and once about the eighth week--to complete two instruments of approximately 25 true-false questions each. They were told it would take about 30 minutes each time, and that they would receive $2.00 for their assistance. Then they were offered three options of time, on three successive days, to appear in order to take the tests, and they were asked to select one time convenient to their schedule. Reminder cards, containing specific date, time, and place were then sent so that subjects would receive the cards the day prior to their appearance.

From the initial list of 40 names (16 males and 24 females) of people who wished to enroll in Speech 540 but were unable to do so, 33 (15 males and 18 females) agreed to participate in the study and made appointments to take the pre-test. Twenty-four of those appeared at the appointed time and completed the pre-test. Five individuals (3 males and 2 females) dropped out between the pre-test and the post-test, leaving 19 subjects (7 males and 12 females) who actually completed both the pre-test and the post-test. These 19 people became a control group for the Speech 540 groups. In order to assure that the attrition of potential control subjects did not significantly affect the make-up of the group, the Self-Monitoring

TABLE 3

NUMBER OF MALE, FEMALE, AND TOTAL SUBJECTS IN EACH GROUP OF STUDY 2

	Group	Male	Female	Total
Speech 540	1	6	10	n = 17
	2	4	10	14
	3	6	9	15
	4	6	11	17
	5	6	9	15
Speech 240	6	16	4	20
Controls	7	7	12	19

N = 117

scores of the people who completed only the pre-test were analyzed in comparison to the people who completed both the pre-test and the post-test.

Table 3 indicates the types of groups of subjects involved in this study and the number of male and female subjects in each group.

In each case, Self-Monitoring and Social Desirability pre-tests were administered during the first week of the semester, and post-tests were administered during the last class meeting (eight weeks later for four Speech 540 groups, eleven weeks later for one Speech 540 group, and eight weeks later for the Speech 240 group and the control group. In all cases, the exact nature of the study was disguised by explaining that we were "studying the effects of human relations groups on people." The Self-Monitoring and Social Desirability Scales were designated "Personal Reaction Inventory" and "Personal Attitude Scale," respectively (See Appendices C and D). Following completion of the post-tests, subjects were debriefed regarding the nature of the study, expected findings were explained, and questions were answered.

In addition to the Self-Monitoring and Social Desirability pre- and post-tests, several other pieces of data were gathered for this study, and are described in the following pages.

2. Honesty Scores

If the finding of the Pilot Study that Self-Monitoring scores in Speech 540 do decrease between administrations of a pre- and a post-test holds up, part of the reason may have to do with norms for honesty and openness of feelings in Speech 540. That is, perhaps Self-Monitoring scores decrease because those people who have highest tendencies toward self-monitoring of expressive behavior discover that one of the behaviors that is considered appropriate by other people in the group (due to the group norms) is honesty and openness. In a paradoxical way, perhaps people who are most self-monitoring in most situations will, in an interpersonal encounter group such as Speech 540, appear to be less self-monitoring <u>just because</u> the norms of the group indicate it is important to be less self-monitoring, i.e., to be more honest and open about feelings, attitudes, etc.

In order to study that possibility, the experimenter identified nine items on the Self-Monitoring Scale which appeared to relate directly to issues of honesty with self or others. Those items are:

2. "My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes, and beliefs."

3. "At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like."

4. "I can only argue for ideas which I already believe."

6. "I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people."

15. "Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time."

16. "I'm not always the person I appear to be."

17. "I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor."

19. "In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else."

25. "I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them."

These nine items were then analyzed separately from the other items on the Self-Monitoring Scale, with the expectation that most of the difference in Self-Monitoring scores between the experimental groups (i.e., Speech 540) and the control groups (i.e., Speech 240 and Controls) would be accounted for by these "Honesty Items."

3. Need for Approval

Previous research, as we have noted, indicated that the Self-Monitoring Scale is slightly correlated with Need for Approval. It is possible that, in the context of Speech 540 with its powerful norms, one's Need for

Approval may affect one's Self-Monitoring. Specifically, our expectation was that people with highest Needs for Approval would be most susceptible to Speech 540 group norms, including those norms which reinforce autonomous self-expression. As a result, the Self-Monitoring scores of people in Speech 540 who were high in Need for Approval were expected to decrease (indicating more autonomous self-expression) in relation to the scores of people who were low in Need for Approval. In order to test this hypothesis, Need for Approval was measured in addition to Self-Monitoring. An analysis of covariance was then conducted with Self-Monitoring as a dependent variable and Need for Approval as the covariate.

4. Longitudinal Follow-up

In order to determine whether changes in Self-Monitoring in Speech 540 were lasting changes, a follow-up administration of both the Self-Monitoring and the Need for Approval scales was conducted. The decision to carry out such a follow-up was made after the administration of post-tests (though prior to their computation), and was necessarily done by mail. As a result, returns were not complete.

Both scales were mailed, under a cover letter requesting further assistance in the study (Appendix H), approximately seven weeks following the ending of the

eight-week sections of Speech 540. Because Speech 540 classes had already ended, this follow-up was conducted after debriefing had already occurred, and we might expect that fact to affect the results. Only subjects in Speech 540 received the mailing. Of 78 subjects who initially completed pre- and post-tests, 32 returned usable follow-up questionnaires in time to be included in the computations.

B. Results

In this section, we present the results of Study 2. We are interested in several factors: 1) the degree of similarity of the five Speech 540 groups; 2) differences in Self-Monitoring scores between Speech 540, Speech 240, and Controls; 3) differences in Honesty Items between Speech 540, Speech 240, and Controls; 4) the effects of Need for Approval on Self-Monitoring scores; 5) the effects of subjects' sex; 6) the effects of subjects' year in school; and 7) special analyses related to the effects of Grading Alternatives and to the nature of subjects' interest in "self."

1. Speech 540 Groups Compared

As can be observed in Table 4, differences in Self-Monitoring scores among the five Speech 540 groups did not approach significance ($F = 1.73$; $df = 4/68$; n.s.),

TABLE 4

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SELF-MONITORING SCORES IN SPEECH 540 BY SECTION AND SEX

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Total Between	1923.20	77		
Section	150.52	4	37.63	1.73
Sex	114.44	1	114.44	5.26*
Section by Sex	178.61	4	44.65	2.05
Error	1479.63	68	21.76	
Total Within	361.02	78		
Trial	2.14	1	2.14	0.44
Trial by Section	16.87	4	4.22	0.86
Trial by Sex	0.14	1	0.14	0.03
Trial by Section by Sex	8.73	4	2.18	0.45
Error	333.14	68	4.90	

*$p < .025$ N = 78

TABLE 5

MEAN SELF-MONITORING SCORES IN SPEECH 540 BY SECTION AND SEX

SECTION	MALES	FEMALES	$\bar{X}$
1	14.58	9.36	11.20
2	13.63	12.50	12.82
3	10.83	9.94	10.30
4	10.08	11.27	10.85
5	11.75	8.78	9.97
$\bar{x}$	12.07	10.41	

N = 78

and thus, we may conclude that the five Speech 540 groups were substantially similar in Self-Monitoring.

Within the Speech 540 Instructional Condition, subjects' sex did produce a significant main effect ($F = 5.26$; $df - 1/68$; $p < .025$) (Table 4). Males ($\bar{x} = 12.07$) scored about 1½ points higher on the Self-Monitoring Scale than did females ($\bar{x} = 10.41$) (Table 5). The analysis includes scores from both the pre-test and the post-test.

As might be expected, just as there were no significant differences between Speech 540 groups on the Self-Monitoring Scale as a whole, there also were no significant differences between the five Speech 540 groups on the set of Honesty Items selected out of the Self-Monitoring Scale. In fact, the five groups were very nearly identical in Honesty Scores ($F = 0.16$; $df = 4/73$; n.s.).

Because Speech 540 sections were substantially similar in Self-Monitoring scores, in the discussion which follows we shall treat the Speech 540 sections jointly, as a single group, in comparison to the other Instructional Conditions.

2. Self-Monitoring in Speech 540, Speech 240, and Controls

Instructional Condition affected Self-Monitoring scores as a main effect, but no significant differences

TABLE 6

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SELF-MONITORING SCORES BY SEX IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Total Between	3416.11	116		
Instructional Condition	299.90	2	149.95	5.45*
Sex	29.11	1	29.11	1.06
Instructional Condition by Sex	30.93	2	15.47	0.56
Error	3056.17	111	27.53	
Total Within	534.87	117		
Trial	2.13	1	2.13	0.46
Trial by Instructional Condition	9.91	2	4.95	1.07
Trial by Sex	2.75	1	2.75	0.59
Trial by Instruction by Sex	3.90	2	1.95	0.42
Error	516.18	111	4.65	

*$p < .005$ N = 117

TABLE 7

MEAN SELF-MONITORING SCORES IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

TRIAL	SPEECH 540	SPEECH 240	CONTROLS	$\bar{x}$
1	11.13	14.30	11.84	11.79
2	10.88	15.20	11.89	11.79
$\bar{x}$	11.01	14.75	11.87	

N = 117

were detected between pre- and post-test scores. The differences between Speech 540, Speech 240, and Controls was significant ($F = 5.45$; $df = 2/111$; $p < .005$) (Table 6). Speech 240 subjects scored considerably higher in Self-Monitoring, on both the pre- and the post-tests than did either Speech 540 subjects or Control subjects. Mean scores were 14.75, 11.01, and 11.87 for Speech 240, Speech 540, and Controls, respectively (Table 7).

The expected changes in Self-Monitoring scores from pre- to post-test did not occur. While the Self-Monitoring score of Speech 240 subjects increased somewhat from pre- to post-test, and those of Speech 540 decreased somewhat (with Controls remaining substantially the same), the differences between pre- and post-test scores were not significant ($F = 0.46$; $df = 1/111$; n.s.) (Table 6) when the three groups were compared together.

3. Honesty Scores in Speech 540, Speech 240, and Controls

It was hypothesized that group norms for honesty with self and others which were unique to Speech 540 might account for most of the change, if any, in Self-Monitoring scores in Speech 540, and for any differences in Self-Monitoring scores between Speech 540, Speech 240, and Controls. To test this, nine questions (numbers 2, 3, 4, 6, 15, 16, 17, 19, and 25) on the Self-Monitoring scale which were related directly to honesty with self

TABLE 8

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF HONESTY SCORES BY SEX IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Total Between	826.39	116		
Instructional Condition	58.08	2	29.04	4.16*
Sex	0.21	1	0.21	0.03
Instructional Condition by Sex	12.65	2	6.33	0.91
Error	755.45	111	6.98	
Total Within	184.12	117		
Trial	0.19	1	0.19	0.13
Trial by Instruction	2.74	2	1.37	0.90
Trial by Sex	5.92	1	5.92	3.89+
Trial by Instruction by Sex	6.46	2	3.23	2.12
Error	168.81	111	1.52	

*p < .02
+p < .05

N = 117

TABLE 9

MEAN HONESTY SCORES IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

TRIAL	SPEECH 540	SPEECH 240	CONTROLS	$\bar{x}$
1	3.71	4.95	3.63	3.91
2	3.62	5.25	3.63	3.90
$\bar{x}$	3.66	5.10	3.63	

N = 117

TABLE 10

MEAN HONESTY SCORES IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS BY SEX AND TRIAL

TRIAL	MALES	FEMALES
1	4.40	3.51
2	4.25	3.62
$\bar{x}$	4.33	3.56

and others were separated out and analyzed separately.

Because differences between Instructional Conditions were significant when the entire Self-Monitoring Scale was analyzed, one would expect that differences between Instructional Conditions would also be significant when only Honesty Items from the Scale were analyzed. Such was the case ($F = 4.16$; $df = 2/111$; $p < .02$) (Table 8). Furthermore, differences between Instructional Conditions on Honesty Items followed the same pattern as differences for the entire Self-Monitoring Scale. Speech 240 subjects ($\bar{x} = 5.10$) scored considerably higher, on both pre- and post-tests, than did either Speech 540 subjects ($\bar{x} = 3.66$) or Controls ($\bar{x} = 3.63$) (Table 9). On the remaining sixteen Self-Monitoring items not related to honesty, scores follwed a similar pattern, with Speech 240 subjects scoring higher than either Speech 540 subjects or Controls.

Because there were no Trial differences between pre- and post-test administrations of the Self-Monitoring Scale as a whole, Honesty Items could not account, as we had earlier anticipated, for such differences. Trial did not affect Honesty scores significantly as a main effect.

However, a Trial by Sex interaction did significantly affect Honesty scores ($F = 3.89$; $df = 1/111$; $p < .05$) (Table 8) though no similar interaction effect

appeared in relation to the Self-Monitoring Scale as a whole. On the Honesty Items, males decreased from pre- to post-test ($\bar{x}$ = 4.40 and 4.25, respectively), while females increased ($\bar{x}$ = 3.51 and 3.62 for pre-test and post-test, respectively) (Table 10).

4. Effects of Need for Approval on Self-Monitoring

How does one's Need for Approval from others affect one's self-monitoring of expressive behavior in a group, such as Speech 540, which builds rather powerful group norms for cohesion, and therefore for appropriate behavior? Our expectation was that people with highest Needs for Approval would be most susceptible to any Speech 540 group norms which run counter to Self-Monitoring of behavior, and therefore the Self-Monitoring scores of people with high Need for Approval from others would decrease significantly more from pre- to post-test than would the scores of people with low Need for Approval from others.

Since pre- and post-test Trials did not significantly affect Self-Monitoring scores, subjects of high or low Need for Approval were not shown to respond differentially to the three Instructional Conditions. However, it still would be possible that Self-Monitoring and Need for Approval may be related. In order to test this possi-

TABLE 11

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF SELF-MONITORING SCORES WITH NEED FOR APPROVAL, BY SEX, IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

Source	SS	df	MS	F	β
Total Between	3499.80	116			
Instructional Condition	396.97	2	198.48	8.07*	
Sex	8.23	1	8.23	0.33	
Instructional Condition by Sex	50.46	2	25.23	1.03	
Need for Approval	337.80	1	337.80	13.73+	-0.24
Error	2706.34	110	24.60		
Total Within	534.94	117			
Trial	2.06	1	2.06	0.44	
Trial by Instruction	10.13	2	5.06	1.09	
Trial by Sex	3.06	1	3.06	0.66	
Trial by Instruction by Sex	3.32	2	1.66	0.36	
Error	516.37	111	4.65		

*$p < .001$ N = 117
+$p < .000$

TABLE 12

MEAN SELF-MONITORING SCORES IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS ADJUSTED FOR COVARIANCE WITH NEED FOR APPROVAL

TRIAL	SPEECH 540	SPEECH 240	CONTROLS	$\bar{x}$
1	11.03	14.54	12.02	11.79
2	10.78	15.44	12.07	11.79
$\bar{x}$	10.90	14.99	12.04	

N = 117

TABLE 13

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF NEED FOR APPROVAL IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Total Between	5390.39	116		
Instructional Condition	68.12	2	34.06	0.73
Error	5322.27	114	46.69	
Total Within	748.76	117		
Trial	32.47	1	32.47	5.17*
Trial by Instructional Condition	1.06	2	1.06	0.08
Error	715.23	114	6.27	

$p < .025$ N = 117

TABLE 14

MEAN NEED APPROVAL SCORES IN SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

TRIAL	SPEECH 540	SPEECH 240	CONTROLS	$\bar{x}$
1	12.86	14.25	14.00	13.28
2	12.12	13.15	13.11	12.45
$\bar{x}$	12.49	13.70	13.55	

N = 117

bility, an analysis of covariance was conducted, with pre-test Need for Approval scores as the covariate of pre-test and post-test Self-Monitoring scores.

The effect of Need for Approval on Self-Monitoring scores was found to be very highly significant ($F = 13.73$; $df = 1/110$; $p < .000$) (Table 11) and when Need for Approval was factored out, differences in Instructional Conditions remained highly significant ($F = 8.07$; $df = 2/110$; $p < .001$) (Table 11). Differences in self-monitoring scores <u>adjusted</u> to account for the covariance of Need for Approval were even more dramatic than prior to adjustment: $\bar{x} = 14.99$, 12.04, and 10.90 for Speech 240, for Controls, and for Speech 540, respectively (Table 12).

In order to check the applicability of using pre-test Need for Approval scores as the covariate for both pre- and post-test Self-Monitoring scores, several correlations were conducted. As would be expected, pre-test and post-test Need for Approval scores were rather highly and positively correlated ($r = .77$). On the other hand, Need for Approval pre-tests were slightly negatively correlated with Self-Monitoring pre-tests ($r = -.26$) and with Self-Monitoring post-tests ($r = -.25$).

When Need for Approval was considered separately as a dependent variable, unrelated to Self-Monitoring, a main Trial (pre- and post-tests) effect appeared ($F = 5.17$;

df = 1/114; $p < .025$) (Table 13). Subjects in each of the three Instructional Conditions decreased in Need for Approval from pre-test to post-test. The overall means were 13.28 and 12.45 for the pre-test and post-test, respectively (Table 14). The groups did not differ significantly in Need for Approval.

5. Effects of Year in School on Self-Monitoring

Significant differences between subjects' year in school were not apparent when compared across four years (i.e., Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior) perhaps because of the limited numbers of freshmen and sophomore subjects (4 and 15 subjects, respectively). When Freshmen and Sophomores were grouped together, and Juniors and Seniors were grouped together, however, some differences did begin to appear. There was no main effect due to Year in School, but the three-way interaction between Class Level (i.e., Upper or Lower), Instructional Condition, and Trial (pre- and post-tests) approached significance ($F = 2.86$; df = 2/111; $p < .06$) (Table 15). The three-way relationship is complex, however, and impossible to interpret (cf. Table 16).

TABLE 15

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SELF-MONITORING SCORES FOR TWO LEVELS IN SCHOOL FOR SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Total Between	3530.78	116		
Instructional Condition	335.43	2	167.71	5.91*
Level in School (Upper-Lower)	8.44	1	8.44	0.30
Instructional Condition by Year	35.19	2	17.60	0.62
Error	3151.72	111	28.39	
Total Within	544.13	116		
Trial	1.02	1	1.02	0.23
Trial by Instructional Condition	26.59	2	13.30	3.01
Trial by Level in School	0.03	1	0.03	0.01
Trial by Instructional Condition by Year	25.34	2	12.67	2.86+
Error	491.15	111	4.42	

*p < .005
+p < .06
N = 117

TABLE 16

MEAN SELF-MONITORING SCORES FOR TWO LEVELS IN SCHOOL FOR SPEECH 540, SPEECH 240, AND CONTROLS

INSTR. COND.	Speech 540		Speech 240		Controls		
LEVEL	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	$\bar{x}$
TRIAL							
1	10.99	12.10	14.13	14.80	12.60	9.00	11.79
2	11.01	10.00	15.07	15.60	12.13	11.00	11.79
$\bar{x}$	11.00	11.05	14.60	15.20	12.37	10.00	

N = 117

6. Additional Analyses

a. Effects of selection of grading alternatives.

As a part of the course design, initially unrelated to the research design per se, but fortuituously available, students in two of the Speech 540 groups (Groups 1 and 3) had the option of selecting the method by which they wished to be evaluated for one-half of their course grade. Because of the nature of the grading alternatives, it seemed likely that they would reflect some of the same issues involved with Self-Monitoring, i.e., relative independence or dependence of behavior.

The options were a Point System and a Self-Evaluation procedure. Students who selected the Point System contracted to complete a certain number and variety of assignments, known beforehand, for which they would receive a contracted grade as one-half of their course grade. The specific grade (A, B, or C) they received depended upon the number and difficulty of the assignments. The second half of their grade was dependent upon the quality of their participation in class, and was judged by the instructor.

Students who opted for the Self-Evaluation procedure were not required to produce written work (though some students desired to do so and did) or to complete any specific assignments. Instead, they were expected to

outline their own course of study, to devise their own "assignments," and to meet their learning goals for the course in a manner suitable to them. The instructor was available for consultation. At the conclusion of the course, they conferred individually with the instructor about new content they had learned, evidence of their comprehension of major concepts related to the course, evidence of innovation and risk-taking on their part, and applications of their learnings to their daily life. At the conclusion of that conference, they assigned themselves a grade which weighed as one-half of their course grade. The instructor reserved the right to give feedback to the student on the self-assigned grade, but could not unilaterally change it. As with the Point System, the remainder of their grade was based on class participation, and was assigned by the instructor.

All information about the grading options was provided to students in the two classes in both written and oral form on the first day of class. Students then had one week in which to select an option. They could not change from one Grading Alternative to another at any later time.

The Self-Evaluation Option represented a choice for autonomy and self-direction to a degree the more structured Point System did not. Self-Evaluation required

that students work more independently and on their own, that they exercise greater creativity, and that they work under greater ambiguity of expectations from the instructor or their peers. We may suppose that people who selected the Self-Evaluation option at the beginning of the human relations class were more autonomous and therefore less concerned about the appropriateness of their behavior in relation to others than were people who selected the Point System.

If this is true, people who selected Self-Evaluation, being more autonomous, would be least self-monitoring and so would have their Self-Monitoring scores affected least by the human relations experience precisely because they already would be relatively less self-monitoring at the beginning. Hence, we would expect that the Self-Monitoring scores of those subjects who selected Self-Evaluation as their Grading Alternative would decrease less than the scores of those subjects who selected the Point System.

Conceived in this manner, the Grading Alternatives, available in the given class structure and early made a part of the research design, was used as a fortuitous check on possible explanations for decreases in subjects' Self-Monitoring scores.

In fact, the Grading Alternative did not operate in

such a manner. There was no main effect (Table 17). The interaction of Group and Grading Alternative, however, did have a significant effect ($F = 4.56$; $df = 1/28$; $p < .05$) (Table 17). In Group 1 of Speech 540, the Self-Monitoring scores of people who selected Self-Evaluation were considerably lower than the scores of people who selected the Point System. Means for the Self-Evaluation and Point Systems were 8.80 and 12.21, respectively (Table 18).

For Group 3 of Speech 540, however, the relative position of the respective scores was reversed. $\bar{x}$ = 11.44 and 9.00 for Self-Evaluation and the Point System, respectively, in this group (Table 18).

People in Group 1 who selected Self-Evaluation did, as we predicted, have initially lower Self-Monitoring scores (indicating greater autonomy initially), but in Group 3, our prediction was turned on its head and people who selected to be graded on the Point System obtained initially lower Self-Monitoring scores. The Grading Alternative had an effect on Self-Monitoring scores only as it interacted with a particular group.

b. Stability of changes over time. Under the assumption that decreases in Self-Monitoring scores may occur as the result of the sensitivity experience in Speech 540, we wished to know if such decreases would be

TABLE 17

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SELF-MONITORING SCORES BY GRADING ALTERNATIVE, IN TWO SPEECH 540 GROUPS

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Total Between	889.10	31		
Group	1.18	1	1.18	0.04
Grading Alternative	3.42	1	3.42	0.13
Group by Grading Alternative	124.00	1	124.00	4.57*
Error	760.50	28	27.16	
Total Within	91.03	32		
Trial	0.94	1	0.94	0.32
Trial by Group	0.18	1	0.18	0.06
Trial by Grading Alternative	7.45	1	7.45	2.55
Trial by Group Grading Alternative	0.74	1	0.74	0.25
Error	81.72	28	2.92	

*$p < .05$ N = 32

TABLE 18

MEAN SELF-MONITORING SCORES BY GRADING ALTERNATIVE IN TWO SPEECH 540 GROUPS

GROUP	1		3		
GRADING ALTERNATIVE	Self Eval.	Point System	Self Eval.	Point System	$\bar{x}$
TRIAL					
Pre	8.40	12.75	11.38	9.43	11.00
Post	9.20	11.67	11.50	8.57	10.56
$\bar{x}$	8.80	12.21	11.44	9.00	

N = 32

retained over time, or if rather, they would be simply the product of the immediate group context. Would the changes, if any, diminish rapidly following the end of the group? A follow-up administration of the tests was conducted by mail approximately seven weeks after the end of the class sessions, following, it should be noted, the debriefing of subjects.

No significant changes in Self-Monitoring scores were found between Trials 2 and 3 in Speech 540.

c. The nature of interest in "self." Early indications from data in the study implied that some changes which seemed to be occurring in Speech 540 Self-Monitoring scores may have been simply regression toward the mean. It appeared, early on, that students in Speech 540 tended to enter the class with higher than usual Self-Monitoring scores. As it turned out, this was not the case. Nevertheless, on the basis of these early scores, we inferred that students entering Speech 540, if they had relatively high Self-Monitoring scores, might have a special interest in themselves--an awareness of themselves, of their behavior, of their appearance to other people, etc. Speech 540 students appeared to have some kind of concern about "Self" that set them apart from other populations, particularly the college population represented by students in Speech 240.

We set out to investigate the nature of this special concern with self. Were they, for instance, more self-oriented than people who enroll in Speech 240? Or did their concern with self have, rather, to do with a <u>self-reflectiveness</u>? Given that they entered Speech 540 with relatively high initial Self-Monitoring scores, either interpretation--selfishness or self-reflectiveness--would be possible. But which interpretation would be correct?

To answer that question, we administered a simple questionnaire (Appendices I and J) in the Summer, 1975, to two groups, a Speech 540 section and a Speech 240 section, neither of which were included in the original study. Using the ruse of gathering feedback for re-evaluating the future direction of Speech courses, we asked whether people would prefer "More emphasis on things that would be of practical use to me in getting what I want out of my relationships" (the "self-oriented" alternative) or whether they would prefer "More emphasis on things that would help me to understand myself and reflect about my life, whether or not they directly affect my relationships with other people" (the "self-reflective" alternative).

To counteract any possible influence of priority, the order of the two alternative preferences was alter-

nated on successive questionnaires, so that successive subjects received the alternatives in reversed order. Responses were obtained from 15 Speech 540 students (9 males and 6 females) and from 12 Speech 240 students (8 males and 4 females).

No differences were apparent between Speech 540 and Speech 240 on the issue. Neither was more Self-oriented or Self-reflective than the other. Similarly, no differences were found based on sex: neither males nor females were more Self-oriented or Self-reflective.

C. Discussion

In this section, we shall discuss the results of Study 2 reported above. We shall summarize the most important findings, discuss their importance, and raise questions and point directions toward further research. The discussion is organized around seven topical issues: 1) The Viability of Comparison Groups; 2) Self-Selection in Speech 540; 3) The relationship of Self-Monitoring and Need for Approval; 4) Honesty and Self-Monitoring; 5) Need for Approval and Test-retest correlations; 6) Self-Monitoring and Grading Alternatives; and 7) Variant findings of Study 1 (the Pilot Study) and Study 2.

1. The Viability of Comparison Groups

The research design aimed to develop comparison groups (Speech 240 and Controls) which would function adequately as controls for Speech 540 subjects. Controls were selected in a manner designed to allow them to be as much like Speech 540 subjects as possible, but so that they would not receive the human relations experience which Speech 540 subjects received. Another group of subjects, the Speech 240 group, was selected with the aim of receiving content similar to that received by Speech 540, but rather than dealing with the content through a human relations laboratory methodology, Speech 240 would use a case study method. The expectation was that together, these two types of comparison groups would provide good controls for the Speech 540 experimental group.

Indications are that the Controls--having been recruited from a pool of people who, under slightly different circumstances, themselves might have been among the Speech 540 subjects--had a Self-Monitoring orientation very similar to that of the experimental group. Throughout the analyses, no significant differences were discovered between Speech 540 and Controls. At several points, they were strikingly similar, e.g., in pre-test Honesty Item scores and Need for Approval. In addition, the

Speech 540 groups themselves were remarkably similar.

Speech 240 students, by contrast, differed in important ways from the other two groups. As indicated above, Self-Monitoring scores in Speech 240 were markedly different from those in Speech 540, even in initial scores. In fact, the most apparent indication of dissimilarity between Speech 540 and Speech 240 is the average scores on the Self-Monitoring pre-test. They differed considerably: $\bar{x}$ = 11.13 and 14.30 for Speech 540 and Speech 240, respectively. Speech 540 and Speech 240 also differed considerably in the proportion of males and females, with Speech 540 having about 60% females, and Speech 240 having about 20%. It should be noted, however, that sex differences did not account for group differences; there were no consistent sex differences.

2. Self-Selection into Speech 540

It was expected that the Self-Monitoring scores of students in Speech 540 would decrease significantly more than the scores of students in either Speech 240 or the Controls. This did not happen. However, it was discovered that significant self-selection into Speech 540 takes place on the basis of Self-Monitoring scores. Those students who choose to enroll in Speech 540 report significantly lower Self-Monitoring than do those students who enroll in Speech 240 ($p < .001$). The Self-Monitoring

of the Control group was, as one might expect because of the method of their selection, essentially similar to that of Speech 540 subjects.

Although this is not the finding we anticipated at the outset of the study, it, in itself, is important. Among people connected with the Speech 540 program at the University of Kansas there has been an awareness for some time that Speech 540 probably draws students who are not typical of the college population as a whole. Yet, we have been able to compile very little data to indicate <u>how</u> they might be different.

It seems that Speech 540 subjects enter the class with less concern for monitoring their expressive behavior than do Speech 240 subjects. Perhaps, we might infer, they tend initially to be more autonomous and self-directing--or at least to report that they are. They seem to pay less attention to cues from others as to appropriate behavior and attempt (or at least report that they attempt) to adjust their behavior to a lesser degree to fit the cues they pick up from others concerning appropriate behaviors.

This finding that Speech 540 students are, in fact, self-selected so as to be different from, at least, Speech 240 students calls for further research in extended areas:

1. Given that self-selection of students into Speech

540 takes place in relation to Self-Monitoring scores, how would the Self-Monitoring of Speech 540 students compare to that of students in humanities other than Speech Communication?

2. How would the Self-Monitoring scores of Speech 540 students compare to the scores of students in fields other than the humanities?

3. In what ways other than Self-Monitoring do Speech 540 students self-select? In what other ways are they different from the general college population?

4. What does the lower-than-average Self-Monitoring of Speech 540 students imply about teaching methods? What methods for teaching human relations are most appropriate and effective with students of relatively lower Self-Monitoring? Are the most effective teaching methods currently being used?

3. The Relationship of Self-Monitoring and Need for Approval

As we have seen, Self-Monitoring and Need for Approval were slightly negatively correlated ($r = -.24$). This inverse relationship means that about 6% of the variance in Self-Monitoring scores was accounted for by Need for Approval. Those subjects with high Need for Approval tended to have low Self-Monitoring scores and vice-versa.

Snyder, in earlier studies on Self-Monitoring, reported somewhat similar results. With a sample of 192 subjects, he found a similar inverse relationship ($r = -.19$), between Self-Monitoring and Need for Approval and concludes that people who report that they observe, monitor, and manage their self-presentation are unlikely to report that they engage in rare but socially desirable behaviors (p. 530).

This study has confirmed Snyder's earlier finding that Need for Approval and Self-Monitoring covary inversely.

4. Honesty and Self-Monitoring

Is the concern of subjects for honestly presenting themselves a key factor in Self-Monitoring scores in the context of special norms for honesty in Speech 540? It was expected that much of the anticipated decrease in Self-Monitoring in Speech 540 might be attributable to those items on the Self-Monitoring Scale which related directly to honesty with oneself or others, since one of the norms of Speech 540--a powerful one--is toward self-revelation, i.e., honesty with oneself and others. People in Speech 540 might appear to be less Self-Monitoring because they come to perceive that one of the behaviors that is considered appropriate by others in the group (due to group norms) is honesty and openness.

Self-Monitoring is no more related to Honesty Items than to other items on the Self-Monitoring Scale. Furthermore, the expected finding could not have occurred since there was no decrease in Self-Monitoring per se in Speech 540, as was anticipated. The results on the Honesty Items closely paralleled the results on the Self-Monitoring Scale as a whole.

5. Need for Approval and Test-Retest Correlations

It was discovered that Need for Approval decreased significantly ($p < .025$) between pre-tests and post-tests, and that the decrease was unrelated to the Instructional Condition in which subjects participated. This finding would seem to call into question the stability of the personality characteristic measured by the Marlowe-Crowne scale.

Test-retest correlations on Need for Approval were relatively high ($r = .77$). As a comparison, Crowne and Marlowe (1964) conducted two separate test-retest measures of reliability of the Social Desirability Scale. In the first, completed at a one-month interval with no intervening treatment, $r = .88$. A separate test-retest measure was conducted for patients in psychotherapy at a five-month interval, $r = .68$. There were no systematic shifts in scores in this latter study. As many scores shifted

up as shifted down, and in about the same degree.

The test-retest correlations of the present study seem in line with those of the earlier Crowne-Marlowe studies. Still, the question remains, Why did Need for Approval decrease significantly from pre- to post-test without reference to Instructional Condition? Data in this study do not supply answers, but we may speculate on the reasons.

One possibility is simply that there may be a testing effect inherent in the Crowne-Marlowe Instrument. It may be that scores tend to change downward in a second administration of the test. The findings of Crowne and Marlowe weigh against this interpretation, however, because they found no consistent changes, at least among patients in psychotherapy. Still, it is conceivable that such a testing effect may appear among college students, but not among people in psychotherapy. Crowne and Marlowe provide no data about the direction or consistency of changes in their earlier test-retest measurements which involved no intervening treatment.

Another possible reason for the downward shift in Need for Approval in the present study may be that as students in classes become more familiar with other students they begin to lose their need for so much approval from others. This explanation does not account, however,

for the fact that Controls, who did not meet together in classes, also decreased in Need for Approval in the second Trial.

6. Self-Monitoring and Grading Alternatives

As we reported earlier, the interaction of Group and Grading Alternative was significant ($p < .05$). In one Speech 540 group, people who chose to be graded by a Self-Evaluation method were considerably lower in Self-Monitoring than were people who chose to be graded on a Point System. In the other Speech 540 group where the option was available, the reverse was true, and people who chose to be graded by the Self-Evaluation method were higher in Self-Monitoring than were people who chose the Point System.

Though a relatively minor finding in the context of the entire study, this is a surprising and interesting discovery, which also is uninterpretable. Apparently there were variables idiosyncratic to the groups which acted to affect the selection of grading options or the Self-Monitoring scores, or both. We do not know what those variables are. Perhaps they relate to particular group norms for behavior, or at least for reporting behavior on an instrument such as the Self-Monitoring Scale. The two groups, though taught by the same instruc-

tor, seemed to have different climates or "tones." The climate of one group was relatively collaborative and conducive to learning. The climate of the other group was unusually combative and defensive. Did these different climates affect the relationship between selection of Grading Alternative and Self-Monitoring scores? It seems plausible, but we do not know the nature of the effect.

7. Self-Monitoring in Study 1 and Study 2

The decreases in Self-Monitoring in Speech 540 between pre- and post-tests which were anticipated in Study 2 did not occur. The basis for the anticipated decreases were the significant decreases ($p < .005$) between pre- and post-test administrations of the Self-Monitoring Scale in the Pilot Study, Study 1. A major question is, Why did changes in Self-Monitoring scores occur so dramatically in the Pilot Study, but not in Study 2? It would seem that the subjects should be similar, for they were students enrolled in Speech 540 in successive semesters at the same university. And it would seem that the treatment should be at least comparable. No changes were made in course content or methodology between the conduct of Study 1 and Study 2. Furthermore, the same instructors taught Speech 540 during both studies, and the instrument was administered by the same person in all cases. The

Self-Monitoring instrument seems to have been tested sufficiently to be considered reliable. Perhaps there were differences in testing conditions or in the manner in which the instrument was introduced. Still, the question remains, Why did the changes which apparently occurred in the Pilot Study not occur in Study 2?

CHAPTER IV

STUDY 3: SELF-MONITORING IN A MULTI-PHASE RESIDENTIAL SKILL LABORATORY

Following completion of the previous study, an opportunity became available to follow up the investigation of Self-Monitoring in a multi-phase residential skill laboratory. Comparisons of findings between the previous study and this one would be enlightening because both Speech 540 and the skill laboratory were focused on human relations, yet they varied greatly in context, structure, subjects, and purpose. This study may be considered as a case study providing suggestions for future research.

A. Method

The skill laboratory which became available was the program in Organizational Effectiveness Training (O.E.T.) sponsored by Consultant/Trainers Southwest. O.E.T. is described on the publicity brochure:

> This program is a six month intensive training and practice in skills and understanding enabling more effective personal and organizational functioning. The design of each phase of the program grows out of the recognized needs and goals of the participants, and is based on the optimum utilization of participant and staff resources. The

> laboratory method of learning will be the primary mode: drawing learning from the immediate experience and behavior within the laboratory setting. Participants will also work with their individual organization concerns. (O.E.T. Brochure, Appendix K)

The program was designed to develop skills such as:

--gathering, analyzing, and diagnosing data about an organization

--determining goals and priorities for renewal action

--setting measurable objectives

--planning for implementation and for change

--evaluating

--recognizing and managing conflict

--consulting internally in an organization

--managing organizational development

As indicated above, O.E.T. was a six-month program, with three weeks in a residential laboratory setting during the six months. These three residential weeks comprised three "phases":

Phase 1	October 20-26, 1974
Phase 2	January 5-11, 1975
Phase 3	April 6-12, 1975

The laboratory was conducted by qualified personnel from Consultant/Trainers Southwest, including the researcher.

Participants in O.E.T. were 11 people in positions of high responsibility in religious, educational, and

community organizations. They ranged in age from approximately 30 to 60 years old, and included 7 men and 4 women. Usable tests, from four administrations of the scales, finally were available from 5 men and 3 women.

As in Study 2, the Self-Monitoring Scale and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (which measures Need for Approval) were administered. However, rather than simple pre- and post-tests, pre- and post-tests were conducted for both Phase 2 and Phase 3 of O.E.T., making a total of four administrations of the scales. No tests were administered during Phase 1. Below is a schedule of test administrations for each of the four trials:

Trial 1:	Pre-test for Phase 2	January 5, 1975
Trial 2:	Post-test for Phase 2	January 11, 1975
Trial 3:	Pre-test for Phase 3	April 6, 1975
Trial 4:	Post-test for Phase 3	April 12, 1975

B. Results

Data in the O.E.T. study focused on a primary question: Is there a pattern of Self-Monitoring scores across the four administrations of the Self-Monitoring Scale? As indicated in Figure 3, a striking pattern of Self-Monitoring scores related to Sex occurred through Trials 1-4. Females started with rather high scores ($\bar{x}$ = 15.33) and decreased dramatically through successive Trials.

FIGURE 3

MEAN SELF-MONITORING SCORES IN O.E.T. FOR MALES AND FEMALES ACROSS FOUR TRIALS

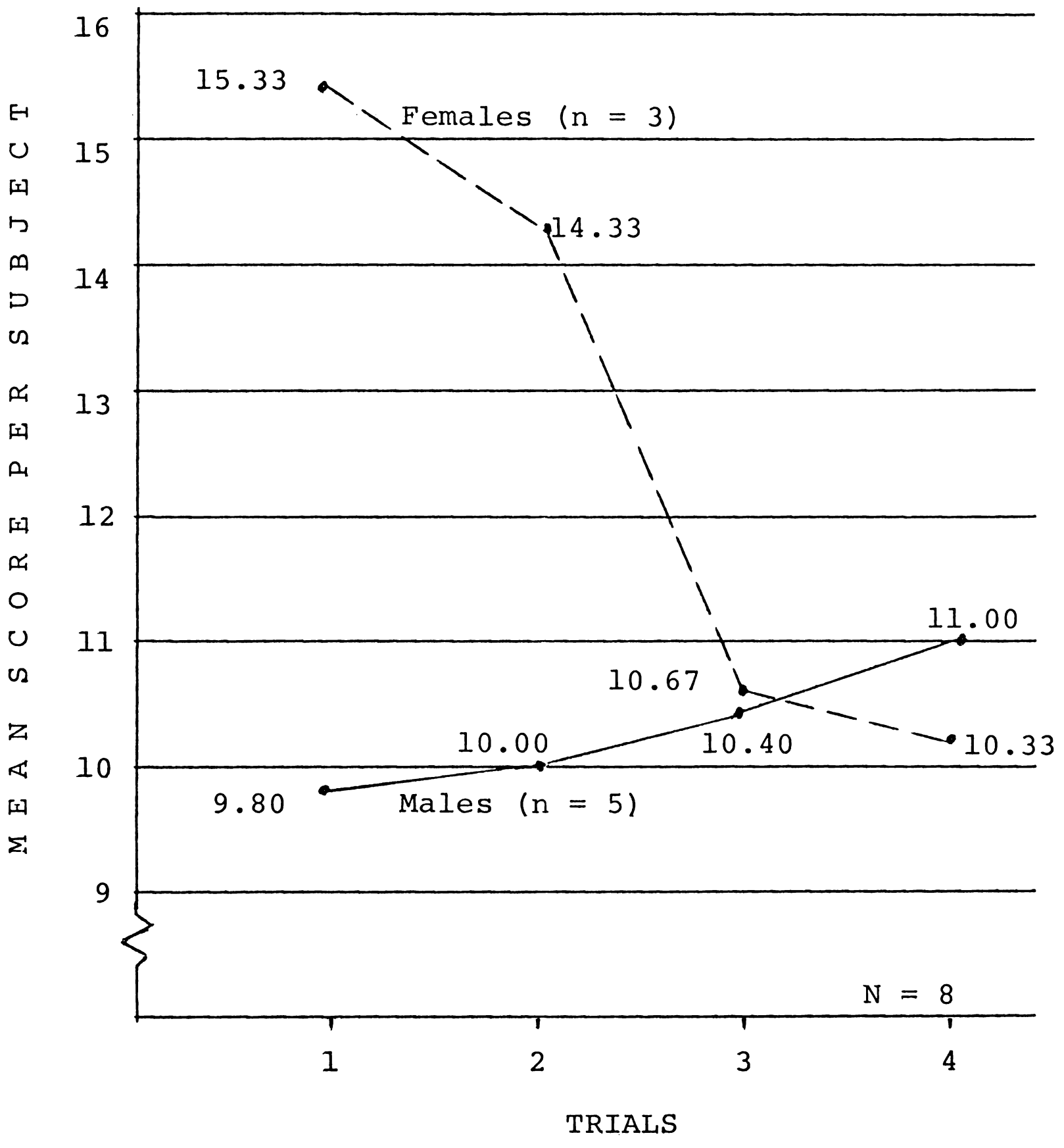


TABLE 19

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SELF-MONITORING SCORES IN O.E.T. BY SEX, FOR TRIALS 1, 2, 3, AND 4

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Total Between	424.38	7		
Sex	42.01	1	42.01	0.66
Error	382.37	6	63.73	
Total Within	131.96	24		
Trial	24.08	3	8.03	1.36
Trial by Sex	51.58	3	17.19	2.91*
Error	106.30	18	5.91	

*$p < .06$ N = 8

Males, on the other hand, with comparatively much lower scores ($\bar{x}$ = 9.80), increased slowly but steadily through each Trial until, at Trial 4 males obtained a slightly higher mean score than did females ($\bar{x}$ = 11.00 and 10.33, respectively (Figure 3).

Though dramatic, the changes did not quite reach significance ($F = 2.91$; $df = 3/18$; $p < .06$) (Table 19). The fact that the changes did not reach significance may be attributable to the fact that there were but 8 subjects in the O.E.T. study. No other main or interaction effect reached significance or near-significance across the four Trials.

C. Discussion

In this case study of Self-Monitoring in a multi-phase laboratory, only one difference between Trials appeared, and that was not quite significant ($p < .06$). It was related to sexual differences. Women started O.E.T. with very high Self-Monitoring scores and decreased scores all four Trials. Males, on the other hand, began the experience with rather low scores and increased slightly but consistently through all four Trials. This, in itself, implies only some kind of initial difference, of course, not a difference due either to participation in O.E.T. or to successive administrations of the Scale.

Apart from initial sexual differences, other differences related also to the O.E.T. treatment may be implied by the pattern of scores across all four Trials. The pattern of consistent decrease by females and consistent increase by males may be simply regression to the mean, but the changes appear dramatic enough to invite an interpretation of real differences related to sex. This latter possible interpretation is supported by the fact that the trends for both sexes continue throughout the four Trials to the point that, in Trial 3 the scores of males and females are very close ($\bar{x}$ = 10.40 and 10.67, respectively), and in Trial 4 males' scores finally surpass those of females ($\bar{x}$ = 11.00 and 10.33, respectively), though the differences on this fourth Trial are still well within a random range.

Comparisons of the Self-Monitoring scores in Trial 1 between O.E.T. and Speech 540, and between O.E.T. and Speech 240, indicate that men at the beginning of O.E.T. had very low Self-Monitoring scores ($\bar{x}$ = 9.80), somewhat lower than the mean for Speech 540 ($\bar{x}$ = 11.13). On the other hand, women in O.E.T. had relatively high initial scores ($\bar{x}$ = 15.33), higher even than the Trial 1 scores for Speech 240 ($\bar{x}$ = 14.30). Perhaps the experience of participants in O.E.T. established norms for openness, honesty, and disclosure which ran counter to Self-Moni-

toring with the result that those individuals who had greatest Self-Monitoring upon entering the experience were most affected by the norms within the group, and therefore, indicated the greatest change in the direction of reduced Self-Monitoring.

In the O.E.T. group, all of the people held positions of administrative responsibility in traditionally male domains, e.g., church judicatory and community agency offices. It may be the case that women in such positions perceive it to be especially advantageous to their functioning in the position to maintain relatively high Self-Monitoring. Hence, they enter the O.E.T. experience reporting high Self-Monitoring in Trial 1. Then, throughout the laboratory experience, they are especially susceptible to the human relations norms for openness, honesty, and disclosure, and their relatively high Self-Monitoring scores drop through successive Trials.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

This set of three studies investigated the effects of various types of human relations groups upon the Self-Monitoring of Expressive Behavior. Three separate studies were reported. The first was a Pilot Study involving 68 undergraduate students in six human relations classes. The second study, the major study of the three, investigated the relative effects on Self-Monitoring of three Instructional Conditions: human relations classes using an experiential laboratory method (Speech 540), a human relations class using a case study method (Speech 240), and a control group which received no treatment. A total of 117 undergraduate subjects were involved in the second study. The third investigation was a case study report of Self-Monitoring in a multi-phase residential skill laboratory, involving 8 subjects in responsible administrative positions in religious and community agencies.

Important outcomes included the following:

1. In the Pilot Study Self-Monitoring decreased

from pre-test to post-test at a high level of significance ($p < .005$).

2. Students entering Speech 540 classes report considerably lower Self-Monitoring ($p < .005$) than do students entering Speech 240.

3. The Self-Monitoring of Speech 540 students decreases slightly from pre-test to post-test and the Self-Monitoring of Speech 240 students increases slightly from pre-test to post-test, but the differences are not significant.

4. Honesty Items selected from the Self-Monitoring Scale follow the same pattern as the Scale as a whole, i.e., initial differences between Instructional Conditions are significant ($p < .02$) and there are no Trial differences.

5. Need for Approval is a very highly significant covariate of Self-Monitoring ($p < .000$), and the relationship between Self-Monitoring and Need for Approval is inverse ($r = -.26$).

6. Students' Need for Approval decreases from pre-test to post-test ($p < .025$) regardless of Instructional Condition.

7. A complex interaction exists, in regard to Self-Monitoring, between students' selection of a Self-Evaluation or a Point System Grading Alternative and the section

of Speech 540 in which they happen to be enrolled.

8. Women in a multi-phase, residential skill laboratory report initial Self-Monitoring which is considerably higher than that of men, and following the pretest, their Self-Monitoring decreases across four Trials, with the Trial by Sex interaction approaching significance ($p < .06$).

These findings suggest several possibilities for future research. Three research questions which seem particularly compelling are discussed below.

The first question (previously discussed in Chapter III) is, Why did changes in Self-Monitoring scores occur so dramatically in the Pilot Study ($p < .005$), but not in the main study? Subjects were similar. The treatment was similar. The same instructors were involved. The administrator of the Scale was the same for both the Pilot Study and the main study. And the Self-Monitoring instrument had been extensively validated in studies conducted by Snyder (1974), in which reliability had been demonstrated. It is possible that testing conditions were not the same in the main study as in the Pilot Study. For instance, the Social Desirability Scale was administered in the main study but not in the Pilot Study. However, no other differences in testing conditions are apparent, and this single administrative difference should

not produce such varied outcomes. Some important differences may have been occurring in the instruction of Speech 540 in the successive semesters. What were they?

The second question for further research involves the relative Self-Monitoring character of human relations students and other university students. Differences were discovered among students who enrolled in Speech 540 and those who enrolled in Speech 240. Speech 540 students entered the class with significantly less Self-Monitoring ($p < .005$) than did students who enrolled in Speech 240. Yet, on the face of it, the classes seem relatively similar, at least in comparison to other types of university classes. Would differences in Self-Monitoring be found among students in English, Anthropology, or Chemistry? How would students in Human Relations compare with students in other disciplines? In regard to Self-Monitoring, how representative of the college population as a whole are students in Human Relations? Of what importance might such difference be if they, in fact, exist? Are Self-Monitoring scores related to other personality characteristics, or perhaps to students' values or vocational goals? If students in Human Relations, English, or Chemistry report different Self-Monitoring, what implications would that finding have for either content or methodology of instruction in the various disciplines?

A third area for further research concerns the changes discovered in Self-Monitoring in the case study of a multi-phase laboratory. Why did Self-Monitoring decrease so dramatically among women in the O.E.T. study? Why did similar changes not also occur among men? In both the main study and the work by Snyder, Self-Monitoring is a relatively stable personality inventory. (Snyder found in a test-retest correlation, $r = .83$, $df = 51$, $p < .001$, one month time interval). Why, in the O.E.T. study, did such changes appear among women in four successive tests? What are the important factors involved in those changes?

These are but three areas which invite further research. The Self-Monitoring Scale is new and has not been used in a broad variety of situations. There is much work to be done. This set of three studies has expanded its use into the area of human relations groups. Interesting outcomes have been discovered and further areas of research have been suggested.

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APPENDIX A

CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM

The Division of Speech Communications & Human Relations supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate you are free to withdraw at any time.

These two questionnaires are being used in an attempt to find out how people behave in different situations, and to investigate the impact of courses such as this one on people's behavior. Your answers will be anonymous, and results will be related to groups, and in no way to individuals.

Your participation is solicited, but is strictly voluntary. Do not hesitate to ask any questions about the study. Be assured that your name will not be associated in any way with the research findings. At the end of the semester, a description of the study can be presented to you.

We appreciate your cooperation very much.

Sincerely,

Dennis Maack

_____

Signature of student agreeing to participate

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER FOR SELF-MONITORING AND SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SCALES

These two questionnaires are being used in an attempt to find out how people behave in different situations, and to investigate the impact of courses such as this one on people's behavior. All the questions can be answered with simply "True" or "False." Your answers will be anonymous, but because we are testing both before and after the course, we need an identifying mark to match the pre- and post-tests which only you will know, and will remember. Therefore, in the space below, please write your mother's maiden name. Finally, please indicate whether you are male or female.

Mother's Maiden Name _____

I am a ____male

____female

I am (circle one): Fr. Soph. Jr. Sr.

I am on ____point system

____self evaluation

Thank you,

Dennis Maack

APPENDIX C

SELF-MONITORING SCALE

("PERSONAL REACTION INVENTORY")

PERSONAL REACTION INVENTORY

The statements on the following pages concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. If a statement is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE as applied to you, blacken the space marked T on the answer sheet. If a statement is FALSE or NOT USUALLY TRUE as applied to you, blacken the space marked F.

It is important that you answer as frankly and as honestly as you can. Your answers will be kept in the strictest confidence.

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people. T F

2. My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes, and beliefs. T F

3. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like. T F

4. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe. T F

5. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information. T F

6. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people. T F

7. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues. T F

8. I would probably make a good actor. T F

9. I rarely need the advice of my friends to choose movies, books, or music. T F

10. I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone. T F

11.	I sometimes appear to others to be experiencing deeper emotions than I actually am.	T	F
12.	In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.	T	F
13.	In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.	T	F
14.	I am not particularly good at making other people like me.	T	F
15.	Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time.	T	F
16.	I'm not always the person I appear to be.	T	F
17.	I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.	T	F
18.	I have considered being an entertainer.	T	F
19.	In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.	T	F
20.	I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.	T	F
21.	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	T	F
22.	At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.	T	F
23.	I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.	T	F
24.	I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end.)	T	F
25.	I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.	T	F

APPENDIX D

SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SCALE

("PERSONAL ATTITUDE SCALE")

PERSONAL ATTITUDE SCALE

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally.

1.	Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all the candidates.	T	F
2.	I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.	T	F
3.	It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.	T	F
4.	I have never intensely disliked anyone.	T	F
5.	On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to succeed in life.	T	F
6.	I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.	T	F
7.	I am always careful about my manner of dress.	T	F
8.	My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant.	T	F
9.	If I could get into a movie without paying for it and be sure I was not seen, I would probably do it.	T	F
10.	On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.	T	F
11.	I like to gossip at times.	T	F
12.	There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	T	F
13.	No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.	T	F

14.	I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.	T	F
15.	There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	T	F
16.	I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	T	F
17.	I always try to practice what I preach.	T	F
18.	I don't find it particularly difficult to get along with loud mouthed, obnoxious people.	T	F
19.	I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.	T	F
20.	When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it.	T	F
21.	I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	T	F
22.	At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.	T	F
23.	There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.	T	F
24.	I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings.	T	F
25.	I never resent being asked to return a favor.	T	F
26.	I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	T	F
27.	I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car.	T	F
28.	There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.	T	F
29.	I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off.	T	F
30.	I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.	T	F

31. I have never felt that I was punished without cause. T F

32. I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they only got what they deserved. T F

33. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. T F

APPENDIX E

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTIONS FOR SELF-MONITORING AND SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SCALES

E: Hello, I'm Dennis Maack, and I'm doing some work with Speech 540 groups, and other human relations classes, to try to find out something about the effect these classes have. (name of instructor) has agreed to let me come in for a few minutes today and ask you to help me.

I will take about 15-20 minutes I think, and involves filling out two True-False questionnaires of about 25 questions each. But first we need to get your consent to do this - it's a University regulation, and a protection for students, so they are not misused for research, and to be sure that they know they are participating voluntarily. We would appreciate your help, but we are not twisting anyone's arm. So...I'm sending these Consent forms around, and would appreciate your reading and then signing them if you will help.

S: (Read and sign Consent Forms, which are then collected by Experimenter.)

E: Fine. Now, these next sheets are the questionnaires themselves. They are simple True-False questions, and I think, are pretty self-explanatory. (Pass out questionnaires.) I'd like for you to take as much time as you need, but don't try to puzzle over each question. On this kind of quiz, often it's

better just to give your first response.

You will notice that there is a cover sheet on the front of the questionnaires. I'd like for you to read that, and be sure to give your mother's maiden name. This is essential, because we will not be using your real name at all with this, but we do need a way to pair up these questionnaires with the ones you'll be filling out later in the semester without confusing yours with someone else's. And your mother's maiden name is a good way to do that - it's something you won't forget (like you might a number), and it's something no one else, including me, will know. It might not be very liberated to have maiden names, and I don't know what will happen to research if we ever eliminate them! - but we do need it here.

Also be sure to check on that sheet whether you are male or female, and your year in school. (Added, for the two sections with Grading Alternatives, is the phrase, "and whether you have chosen the Point System or Self Evaluation.")

Ok. Now, do you have any questions?

(If Subjects have questions, they are answered directly, with the exception of questions about the precise nature of the research, or the expected findings. Such questions are answered by saying, "I'd

rather not go into that now, but when I come back later in the semester, I'll be glad to explain to you exactly what it's all about.")

(After a pause for questions, Subjects fill out questionnaires, which are then collected.)

E: Thank you very much. I appreciate your help. And I'll see you later in the semester again. (Exit.)

APPENDIX F

TELEPHONE REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION OF CONTROLS

E: Hello, _____. My name is Dennis Maack, and I have your name from a Speech 540 list, which you signed at Registration, of people who wanted to enroll in Speech 540 if places opened up. There are no new openings, but I am doing some research on Speech 540, and would like to know if you would help me. Let me tell you a little more about it. Okay?

S: Okay.

E: It will involve about a half-hour of your time twice during the semester, once next week, and once about half-way through the semester. Each time, you would complete two True-False questionnaires of about 25 questions each. And for your time, if you come both times, I will pay you $2.00. Are you interested?

S: Well, yes...(or otherwise indicating interest). When would I come?

E: Good. I have three times set up in order to try to work around people's schedules, and you can choose any of the three times you want next week. Then, during the last week of March, you would come again, on the same day of the week and at the same time. Here are the times next week:

Tuesday, 1:00 p.m.

Wednesday, 11:30 p.m., or

Thursday, 4:00 p.m.

Which time suits you best?

S: Well, I think that _(day and time)_ would be OK. Where do I go?

E: We'll meet in 119 Fraser. Do you have something to write that down on? And, let's see, that's _(day and time)_, right? And then, on March _(date)_, I'll see you again, at the same time. It probably would be a good idea to write that down now too, if you would. (pause for time to write) But I'm going to send out cards to remind people. If you just can't come, or need to get ahold of me for some other reason, please call. My name is Dennis Maack, and the number is 842-5340. Do you have any questions?

S: No.

E: Okay. Good. I appreciate your help very much. And I'll see you on _(day)_, at _(time)_ in 119 Fraser. Good-bye.

S: Good-bye.

APPENDIX G

CERTIFICATION TO CONTROLS OF PARTICIPATION IN PRE-TEST

February 4, 1975

_____ has participated in the first phase of a current research project and, upon completion, will receive $2.00 on March 27, 1975.

Dennis Maack

APPENDIX H

COVER LETTER FOR SPEECH 540 FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONNAIRE

THE UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS · LAWRENCE, KANSAS · 66045

130

SPEECH AND DRAMA DEPARTMENT

- SPEECH COMMUNICATION AND HUMAN RELATIONS
- SPEECH PATHOLOGY AND AUDIOLOGY
- RADIO-TELEVISION-FILM
- THEATRE AND DRAMA

May 5, 1975

Dear Friend,

I am doing some follow-up on a study of Speech 540 classes this semester (Spring, 1975), and need one last bit of help from you. Probably you remember filling out a questionnaire like the one enclosed with this letter. I would appreciate it very much if you would fill it out again and mail it in the self-addressed (Stamped, too!) envelope.

Finals week is upon us, and I know you are busy, but don't delay!! Fill out the questionnaire now while you are thinking about it. It will take only 10 minutes or so, and will be immensely useful to me.

If you have any questions, please call: 842-5340.

Thank you, and best wishes with final exams!

Dennis Maack

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE ON INTEREST IN "SELF," FORM I

The Speech Department is in the process of re-evaluating some of its courses, including this one. And we would like your opinion about the directions the course should take in the future.

Two alternatives are described below. Read each of them carefully, then indicate which of the two directions you would prefer this course to take in the future.

A. More emphasis on things that would be of practical use to me in getting what I want out of my relationships.

B. More emphasis on things that would help me to understand myself and reflect about my life, whether or not they directly affect my relationships with other people.

In the future I would suggest that this course emphasize: (check one)

____Option A ____Option B

APPENDIX J

QUESTIONNAIRE ON INTEREST IN "SELF," FORM II

The Speech Department is in the process of re-evaluating some of its courses, including this one. And we would like your opinion about the directions the course should take in the future.

Two alternatives are described below. Read each of them carefully, then indicate which of the two directions you would prefer this course to take in the future.

A. More emphasis on things that would help me to understand myself and reflect about my life, whether or not they directly affect my relationships with other people.

B. More emphasis on things that would be of practical use to me in getting what I want out of my relationships.

In the future I would suggest that this course emphasize: (check one)

____Option A ____Option B

APPENDIX K

PUBLICITY BROCHURE FOR

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS TRAINING

WHEN

Phase 1 - October 20 - 26, 1974
Phase 2 - January 5 - 11, 1975
Phase 3 - April 6 - 12, 1975

Each Phase begins at 6:00 p.m. on Sunday with dinner, and ends with lunch on the following Saturday.

WHERE

Phase 1: Winecale Inn, Round Top, Texas
Phase 2-3: Center for Christian Renewal, Oklahoma City, Okla.

COST

Tuition, room and board for the six month program is $600.00.

For teams of two or more persons from a single organization, tuition, room and board is $750.00 per team member.

STAFF

Eleanor Hill, Dean. Ms. Hill is a consultant and trainer in human relations and organizational development with experience in voluntary, educational and religious systems. She is recognized by C/TS and the Association for Creative Change as a Facilitator in Organization Development, Group Development and Personal Growth. She has been on the staff of all previous OET (OD-VRS) labs. She will be on the staff of each phase of this training experience.

Staff for each phase of the program will also include an recognized trainer experienced in organization development training and practice, and an intern trainer from the C/TS training network. Thus participants will work with a staff of seven persons over the six month period, having the advantage of a variety of leadership styles and experience.

HOW TO APPLY

Submit the attached application prior to September 15, together with a registration deposit of $100. Applicants will receive confirmation of registration and suggested reading material immediately. If an applicant withdraws before September 15, the registration deposit will be refunded. A refund fee will be charged those who withdraw later. The balance of the total lab cost is payable by October 15, or arrangement for payment may be made with Lee Douthit, Executive Vice President, C/TS. Make checks payable to Consultant/Trainers Southwest.

CONSULTANT/TRAINERS SOUTHWEST

Consultant/Trainers Southwest is a learning/teaching community of persons and organizations whose primary purpose is to make available highly qualified professional training and consultation. Incorporated in 1968 as a non-profit educational institution, it is operative in Kansas, Texas, Oklahoma, Missouri, Arizona and Nebraska. C/TS serves institutions and systems interested in manpower development, organizational effectiveness and renewal, and individual persons interested in developing skills in affecting their own personal growth and organizational effectiveness.

Consultant/Trainers Southwest
ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE P.O. BOX 947
EMPORIA, KANSAS 66801

Address Correction Requested
Return Postage Guaranteed

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS TRAINING

A SIX MONTH TRAINING PROGRAM. . . THREE WEEKS IN RESIDENCE

Consultant/Trainers Southwest

ABOUT THIS PROGRAM. . .

Consultant/Trainers Southwest invites you to the 4th annual ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS TRAINING (formerly called OE-VRS). This program is a six month intensive training and practice in skills and understanding enabling more effective personal and organizational functioning. The design of each phase of the program grows out of the recognized needs and goals of the participants, and is based on the optimum utilization of participant and staff resources. The laboratory method of learning will be the primary mode: drawing learning from the immediate experience and behavior within the laboratory setting. Participants will also work with their individual organization concerns.

THIS PROGRAM IS FOR:

individuals and persons in:

+ volunteer organizations
+ business/professions
+ education
+ religious institutions
+ community organizations
+ helping professions

who hold positions as:

-administrators
-department heads
-supervisors
-judicatory staff
-parish clergy
-deans
-committee heads
-leaders of volunteers
-managers
-advisors

SOME EXPECTATIONS. . .

Applicants are asked to seriously consider the time and expectations involved in taking part in this program. This is a professional training program and it is expected that participants in developing new skills and insights will be involved in change. Thus applicants need to be aware that actualizing the learned skills will require time and energy, a willingness to take a fresh look at present work procedures with the view of possible change within the framework of their organization.

THE FUNCTIONAL DETAILS. . .

This is a six month program. Registration is for the total program. It is not possible to participate in only one phase of the training. The program includes three separate weeks of residential training with supervised practice in the interim periods. Total cost of the program is $800. (includes tuition, room, board). C/TS recognizes the added benefit to organizations which have a team of persons utilizing organizational effectiveness skills: thus the special price of $750 per team member is offered to organizations sending teams of two or more.

PERSONS WHO COMPLETE THIS PROGRAM SHOULD BE ABLE TO:

- —Utilize a variety of approaches to gather, analyze and diagnose data
- —Determine goals and priorities for renewal action
- —Set measurable personal and organizational objectives
- —Plan for goal implementation and for change
- —Develop methods of evaluation of program effectiveness
- —Aid an organization in identifying and diagnosing its own disorders
- —Isolate problem areas
- —Recognize options in conflict situations and possibilities for management of conflict
- —Make a systems analysis
- —Identify the effects of own behavior on others, develop and practice options for behavioral change
- —Recognize the effects of others' behavior on own life and develop options for responses
- —Recognize the characteristics of organizational health and have skills to facilitate individual effective functioning within an organization
- —Act as an internal consultant to own organization
- —Function as an OD manager
- —Gain confidence in self

O.E.T. offers the opportunity for major learning and development of personal effectiveness. The responsibility for learning is on the individual. It is an exciting, challenging, rewarding program! You are invited to take part!