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The Effect of Interpersonal Skills Training on the Levels of Accurate Empathy and Self Esteem in Preadolescents

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF EMPATHIC BEHAVIOR AND SELECTED
PREDISPOSING PERSONALITY FACTORS IN ADOLESCENTS

by

Thomas Schevers

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

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1978

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VITA

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Although the concept of empathy has been around for many years, relatively little research has been done with adults, and even less with children and adolescents, in identifying personality factors which may mediate empathy. Interpersonal communication skills such as empathy take on greater significance as the child reaches adolescence and continues to grow to adulthood. In adolescence there is an increasing need and demand for effective communication with peers, parents, teachers, and others. This study expects to examine how various personality components correlate with empathy.

In the past decade, much has been written in the area of interpersonal skills training (hereafter IST). These IST programs, under such titles as "human resources development," "human relations training," and "parent effectiveness training," have specifically aimed to train helpers in those helping skills which enable helpees to reach positive and growthful outcomes (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967; Carkhuff, 1969, 1971; Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977; Egan, 1975, 1976; Gordon, 1970). Empathy, which is seen by all of these writers to be an essential skill, is gen-

erally defined to include both the accurate discrimination of the helpee's feeling and experience, and the effective communication of this understanding to the helpee. The subjects of this study were about to begin a training program (Kapp and Simon, 1976) to teach them, among others, the helping skill of empathy or "active listening" (as it was labeled in the program). A measure which reflected the discrimination/communication definition of empathy was desirable. The literature concerning the measurement of empathy so defined and its appropriate applicability to the study of empathy in adolescents is reviewed below. Further, an integrative personality model is proposed for purposes of organizing existing literature on empathy and related personality factors, and for generating hypotheses about relationships and differences which may exist between the empathy and personality measures which were used in this study of an adolescent population.

Specifically, the present study will examine whether empathic behavior correlates positively with extroversion, intelligence and self-esteem, and negatively with anxiety and neuroticism in an adolescent population. Correlations of empathy with other personality variables will also be investigated.

CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF RELEVANT EMPATHY STUDIES: MEASUREMENT

The Historical Roots of Empathy Research

In the IST literature, empathy is seen as a characteristic behavior of the therapist, counselor, teacher, etc. which is necessary for effective helping. Historically, however, research on empathy under the different names of social intelligence, person perception, role-taking, etc. viewed the skill as an aspect or characteristic of all people, which varied in degrees and described the ways people understand and interact with other people. The discrimination/communication definition of IST theorists has early roots in social intelligence and person perception research. Thorndike (1920) defined social intelligence as ". . . the ability to understand and manage men and woman, boys and girls--to act wisely in human relations" (p. 228). Vernon (1933), an important and early contributor to person perception research, stated:

. . . social intelligence apparently includes ability to get along with people in general, social techniques or ease in society, knowledge of social matters, susceptibility to stimuli from other members of a group, as well as insight into the temporary moods or the underlying personality traits of friends and of strangers. (p. 44)

Since most social intelligence and person perception research was done with adults, and is only tangentially connected with the more narrow view of empathy as a helper characteristic, these areas will not be reviewed. An exception to this will be made for research flowing from the cognitive-developmental approach to social intelligence, role-taking, and empathy, since much of that work has been done with children. The reader who wished to gain a broader historical perspective is directed to excellent reviews of social intelligence (Walker and Foley, 1973) and person perception (Hastorf, Schneider, and Polefka, 1970). We will turn now to empathy as a helper characteristic, and subsequently to empathy in children.

Approaches to Defining and Measuring

Empathy as a Helper Characteristic

In 1957, Rogers listed empathy as one of the necessary conditions for therapeutic personality change. He stated:

For constructive personality change to occur, it is necessary that these conditions exist and continue over a period of time: . . . The therapist experiences an empathic understanding of the client's internal frame of reference and endeavors to communicate this experience to the client. (p. 96).

Further on, he elaborates on the meaning of empathy:

To sense the client's private world as if it were your own, but without ever losing the "as if" quality--this is empathy, and this seems essential to therapy. To

sense the client's anger, fear, or confusion as if it were your own, yet without your own anger, fear, or confusion getting bound up in it, is the condition we are endeavoring to describe. (p. 99)

Rogers (1975) recounts that the influence of a Rankian trained therapist "to listen for the feelings" and "to reflect these feelings back to the client" (p. 2) helped him concretize and clarify the importance of empathy. His prolific writing (1951, 1957, 1959, 1961) and his emphasis on empathy as well as on unconditional positive regard and congruence have had a heavy impact on the IST writers and have indirectly led to the promulgation of various measures of accurate empathy.

Barret-Lennard (1962) described empathy in a similar fashion to Rogers:

Qualitatively it (empathic understanding) is an active process of desiring to know the full, present and changing awareness of another person, of reaching out to receive his communication and meaning, and of translating his words and signs into experienced meaning that matches at least those aspects of his awareness that are most important to him at the moment. (p. 3).

Barret-Lennard's (1962) Relationship Inventory Scale provides dual questionnaires to be completed by client and therapist in order to get a reading of level of the therapeutic relationship as seen from the client-centered perspective. Empathy is only one component of the scale.

Truax (1967) devised the Accurate Empathy Scale (AE) which specifically intends to rate the level of empathy of the therapist by evaluating his responses to a

client on a nine-point scale. The scale also appears in Truax and Carkhuff (1967) where empathy is defined as follows: "Accurate empathy involves both the therapist's sensitivity to current feelings and his verbal facility to communicate this understanding in a language attuned to the client's current feelings" (p. 46). The scale ranges from Stage 1 where the "therapist seems completely unaware of even the most conspicuous of the client's feeling . . ." (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 47) to Stage 9 where the therapist "unerringly responds to the client's full range of feelings in their exact intensity." (p. 56) Carkhuff (1969) published the Empathic Understanding Scale (EU) which is essentially equivalent to the AE scale except that it evaluates therapist responses on a five point scale rather than a nine point scale. The EU scale has been used in evaluating counselors and psychotherapists but has also been applied in evaluating teachers, paraprofessionals and a variety of other helpers. Both scales and particularly Carkhuff's have been used in several studies to help substantiate the effectiveness of human resource development programs and theory. Truax and Carkhuff (1967), Carkhuff (1969, 1971, 1972), and Carkhuff and Berenson (1977) each contain references, reviews, and/or abstracts of several studies in which the scales have been used in assessing the methods and outcomes of the training model. At this point, literally hundreds of journal studies have used the scales.

The scales are easy to use, practical, and may be applied to a wide variety of situations where transcripts, audiotapes, or videotapes of helper response can be made available to raters.

The scales are not above criticism. Chinsky and Rappaport (1970) criticized the AE scale because it only judged helper responses and did not take sufficient account of helpee responses. Truax (1972) replied that "by listening only to the therapists responses (especially in client-centered therapy), one will hear a series of contingent responses from which one can reasonably judge" (p. 398). Additional support to Truax' position came from Bozarth and Krauft (1972) who designed a study which included the evaluation of helper responses taking into account helpee statements. Another criticism from Rappaport and Chinsky (1972) suggest that the AE scale may judge more than just empathy but may instead be rating a global "good quality" characteristic. McNally and Drummond (1974) criticized Carkhuff's EU scale finding that a factor analysis of Carkhuff's empathy and genuineness scales suggested that they evaluated the same factor. Thus whether the AE and EU scales actually evaluate only empathy is still a question, although both seem valid to the degree that they evaluate essential helping attributes. Most other criticism of the scales center on their application and utilization in various studies and not on their general validity.

The AE and EU scales have proven to be useful and practical methods of appraising the level of empathy of helpers. Their use, however, has been restricted to adult populations. The question remains whether an empathy scale on the order of the AE or EU scales would be useful and appropriate for populations of children and adolescents.

Empathy Measurement with Children

Shantz (1975) and Ianotti (1975) in similar articles pointed out that the definition of empathy in child studies can be placed in two major categories: the cognitive and affective categories. The cognitive research has its origin in Piaget's work and is concerned with the decentering and role-taking abilities of the child. In assessing empathy from this point of view, great emphasis is placed on understanding the other person's point of view. The affective point of view has its origin in the psychoanalytic conception of empathy. Greater weight is given to the emotional component, and empathy is defined as a match in affective response between subject and object. It is seen as a process similar to identification. Measurement of empathy by members of these two viewpoints obviously differ. When examining the interaction between two or more people, the cognitive researcher would ask "What is the perspective of the other person?" The affective researcher would ask "How do you feel?" The cognitive viewpoint was judged to be more

pertinent to the areas under investigation in this research and is given greater emphasis in this review.

High levels of empathy as evaluated on the AE and EU scales would seem to parallel or require the existence of high levels of role-taking ability, nonegocentric thought, and decentering stressed by the cognitive theorists. Shantz (1975) and Ianotti (1975) stress that effective measurement of empathy must require a differential judgment by the subject, that is, in the test situation efforts must be made to insure that the subject is able to perceive and communicate the perspective or feelings of the other person as distinct from his own or from those that might be normative. Shantz pointed out that the greater the similarity and familiarity of social stimuli were to subjects, the greater the likelihood was of higher empathy findings if differential judgments were not implicitly demanded in the research design. Borke (1972) for example, stated that preschoolers were not egocentric as would be expected since they were able to perceive another's emotion response in normative situations. Chandler and Greenspan (1972) attacked her method, charging that the children could perform successfully in the testing simply by identifying their own emotional response to the stimuli presented them. They went on to state:

Nonegocentric thought, in the sense intended by Piaget, is not simply a synonym for accurate social judgment

but implies the ability to anticipate what someone else might think or feel precisely when those thoughts and feelings are different from one's own. (p. 105)

This description of nonegocentric thought as applied to social interaction seems to include an important component of the discrimination/communication definition of empathy flowing from Rogers and the IST theorists. (Ianotti, 1975, in fact classified Rogers within the role-taking school.) Successive ratings on the AE and EU scales seem to require greater degrees of nonegocentric thought.

A question relevant to this study concerns the age at which a child or adolescent is capable of mature nonegocentric thinking and role-taking. Milgram and Goodglass (1961) observed a developmental trend from second through eighth grade in the child's ability to predict with accuracy the normative word associations of young children versus adults. Dymond, Hughes, and Roab (1952) found that sixth graders were more disposed than second graders to make judgments about the covert thoughts and feelings of the characters in TAT-like pictures. Feffer's data (Feffer, 1959; Feffer and Gourevitch, 1960) suggest an increase across middle childhood, not only in the ability to take on a succession of different roles in a given depicted social situation, but also in the ability to keep each characterization in the series consistent with all others.

Flavell performed a series of studies (Flavell, 1966; Flavell, Botkin, and Fry, 1968) on role-taking designed

to find what gets attained and at what age. In summarizing his findings, he listed five constituents mediating successful role-taking behavior:

- 1) The understanding that there is such a thing as "perspective," that is, what you perceive, think, or feel in any given context need not coincide with what I perceive, think, or feel. (Existence)
 - 2) The realization that an analysis of the other person's perspective is warranted in this particular situation, that is, such an analysis would be a useful means to whatever one's goal is here. (Relevance)
 - 3) How actually to carry out this analysis, that is, possession of the ability to predict with accuracy the relevant attributes of the other. (Ability)
 - 4) How to maintain in awareness the fruits of this analysis, in competition with the unremitting press of one's own point of view, long enough for it to be able to fulfill its function as means or instrumentality for subsequent behavior. (Performance)
 - 5) How then to employ the fruits of this analysis as a means to some behavioral end, for example as an effective monitor of verbal communication. (Application)
- (1966, p. 175)

Flavell points out that existence begins to show up in the preschool period and he hypothesizes that "middle childhood will turn out to be the developmental epoch as far as basic role-taking and allied skills are concerned. . . ." (1966, p. 176). In addition to this, he states:

In contrast, the child 12 to 14 years old in our studies and in other studies shows himself to be a surprisingly adept role-taker across a wide range of tasks and problems. (1966, p. 176)

Finally, Flavell points to the need for greater research in this area, and to the lack of knowledge concerning the corresponding constitutional or situational factors which may inhibit or reinforce the likelihood of good role-taking performance.

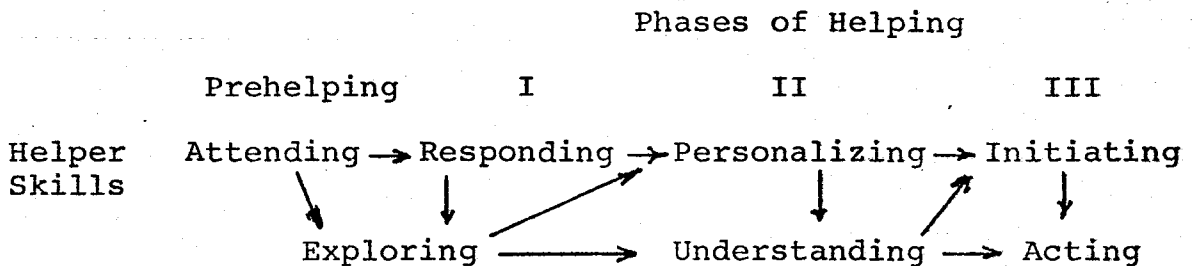
In summary the child empathy studies and the role-taking literature support the proposition that seventh and eighth graders have the potential to respond in mature emphatic manner, and that it may be legitimate to evaluate such responses using a rating scale patterned in the fashion of the AE and EU scales, especially to the degree that such a scale would take into account levels of nonegocentric thinking or role-taking ability.

CHAPTER III

EMPATHY AND OTHER FACTORS: A PERSONALITY MODEL AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Purpose of a Model

The IST programs are themselves based on models; helping models. Carkhuff (1969) and Egan (1975) describe three phase helping models of exploration which lead to understanding which leads to constructive action. Carkhuff's model has been diagrammed as follows:



(Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977, p. 23)

Egan (1975) presents a model which could be diagrammed almost identically. Various interpersonal skills are deemed appropriate for each phase of the model. Empathy, for example, is relevant to all phases particularly to those of exploring and understanding. Within the helping model, specific effort is not made to examine the pre-existing personality structure of the helper or helpee. Both Egan and

Carkhuff do describe the characteristics of the ideal helper, although neither could accurately be described as a personality theorist.

It is the present task of this study to formulate a broader model which will include a model of the personality of the person entering the helping model, and which is consistent with the explicit and implicit viewpoints of IST theorists, but which will go beyond the more restricted emphasis of the helping model. It is hoped that a broader personality model will serve the following purposes:

- 1) to help focus on the individual traits and differences within persons which may mediate the greater or lesser existence of interpersonal skills (including empathy), and which may contribute to the likely success or failure of IST programs for those persons;

- 2) to help organize and make meaningful existing research which has examined interpersonal skills (empathy) and other factors such as intelligence, self-esteem, extroversion, etc.;

- 3) to provide a structure which will generate hypotheses and have predictive validity for research done in the present study and in future studies; and

- 4) to promote research using the model, which will ultimately lead to improvement and greater specialization in the formulation and application of helping programs.

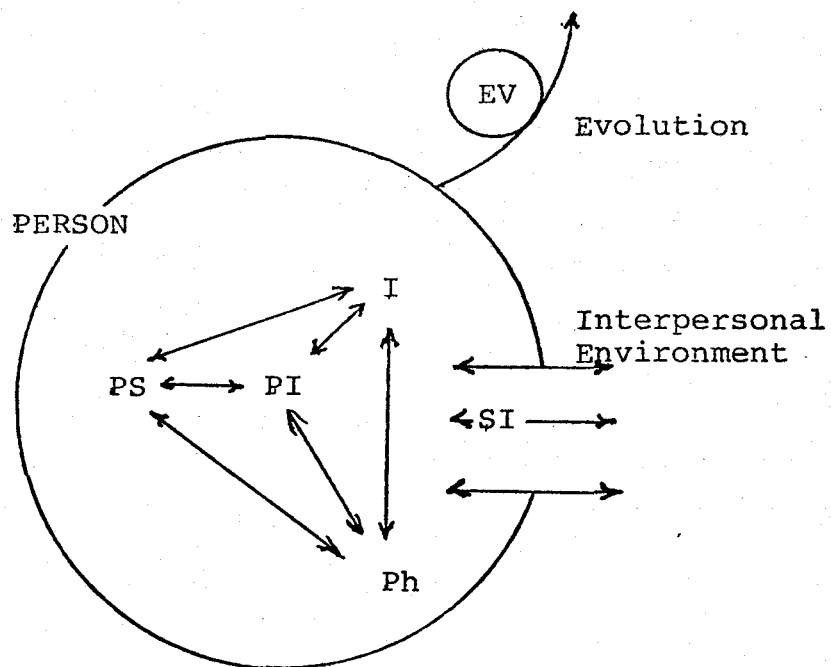
An Interactional Model of the Person

Figure 1 is a diagram of a model of the whole person which is interactional, systematic, and evolutionary. That is, it suggests that the person's behavior is a function of both the interaction of components within the individual as well as of the person's interaction with other persons. It is systematic in that it maintains that interactions within and between persons occur in a non-random and lawful fashion. It is evolutionary in that it maintains that the person will grow and actualize through successful and effective interactions.

The four components of the person are described below. (1) The Physiological component (Ph) allows that the person is a biological or physical entity. Health, illness, sex, age, and all those aspects of the person which are inherent in his physical makeup belong in this area. (2) Personality Style (PS) refers to those enduring characteristics which typically describe his manner of interacting and being, such as extroversion, introversion, dominance, submissiveness, and other traits. (3) The Intellectual component (I) refers to the person's intellectual and cognitive abilities such as verbal and non-verbal IQ scores and creativity. (4) Personal Integration (PI) refers to those characteristics of self definition and self understanding which are represented by measures of self-

FIGURE 1

An Interactional Model of the Person



Code

Ph--Physiological component

PS--Personality Style

PI--Personal Integration

I--Intellectual component

SI--Social Interaction

awareness, self esteem and general mental health. While the person is divided into four components for organizational and research purposes, in reality no component can operate in isolation. The person operates as a total being. Each component may vary in quality and/or quantity and each interacts with the other three. Together they mediate social interaction.

The interaction of the four components comprises the person but it is through social interaction (SI) that all change, for better or worse, takes place. Interaction with the environment is the avenue of learning and development on all levels, and it triggers the interaction of components within the person. Social interaction involves accommodation and assimilation (Piaget, 1950). It is a giving and taking which represents the impact of the person on his environment and of the environment on the person. The interpersonal environment consists of all individuals and interpersonal systems with which the person has contact. It includes parents, siblings, friends, peers, and teachers, as well as larger systems such as culture, class, and nationality. The spiraling arrow coming out of the diagram of the person represents the evolutionary characteristic of the model which maintains that the integrated person or interpersonal system is growthful and actualizing rather than static or merely tension reducing

The helping models of Egan and Carkhuff can be

mapped into the social interaction area of the diagram. The intent of the personality model is to provide a broader framework with which to examine social interaction and the personality. That specific aspect of social interaction called empathy and the Personality Style, Intellectual, Personal Integration and Physiological components of the person are given the main focus of this investigation. Assuming from the model that various components may vary quantitatively and qualitatively, several hypotheses may be generated to investigate empathy's relationship to isolated components or interactions of components. With this in mind, the PS, I, PI and Ph components are discussed below. Existing related literature is reviewed and expected relationships and differences of these components with empathy are drawn from IST theory.

Personality Style and Empathy

Considering the amount of research which has been done on empathy relatively few studies seem to exist which relate empathy to personality. Of those studies found, great variability exists among them as to the measures and definitions of empathy and personality which were used. For example, Dymond (1950) found high empathy subjects to be more emotionally expressive and more flexible than low empathy subjects. She used her own empathy test and Rorschach

and TAT responses. Heck and Davis (1973) also found highly empathic counselors to be more cognitively complex or flexible than lower empathy counselors using the Truax scale and sentence completion test. Jackson and Thompson (1971) using still different measures found no differences in cognitive flexibility in effective and ineffective counselors.

One group of studies shows a consistent relationship between empathy and sociability or extroversion. Hogan (1969) developed an empathy scale from CPI and MMPI items which seek to measure empathy as a personality trait. Using this scale, Greif and Hogan (1973) found empathy to be highly related to three factors. The empathic person seems to be (a) tolerant and even-tempered, (b) self-possessed, outgoing, and socially ascendant, and (c) possessing a humanistic and tolerant set of socio-political attitudes. Using Hogan's scale, Hekmat, Khajavi, and Mehryar found empathy to be significantly correlated with extroversion in two studies (1974, 1975).

To sum up, the empathic person is likely to be extroverted, sociable, tolerant, emotionally expressive, and flexible. These findings seem consistent with the expectations one might have of successful participants in the helping models and programs of Egan and Carkhuff. Egan (1975) portrays the ideal helper as a hard worker, an integrated and an action oriented person who is at home with people. All in all, a person effective in helping must be one who

is effective in living and growing. Carkhuff (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977) similarly perceives counseling as a way of life for the whole person.

The whole person does not merely live in the external world. The life of the whole person is made up of actions fully integrating his emotional, intellectual and physical resources in such a way that these actions lead to greater and greater self definition. (p. 238)

He goes on to describe the whole person as risktaking, energetic, active, creative, and generally effective. Considering these descriptions of the helper, one would expect the empathic person to be not only sociable, but also energetic, conscientious, emotionally stable, and self assured.

Intelligence and Empathy

Fewer studies were found which examined intelligence and empathy. Dymond (1950) found that low empathy college students scored significantly lower than high empathy students on WAIS performance scores. However, this part of her study involved only thirteen subjects, all of whom scored in the above average to superior range of intelligence.

Bergin and Jasper (1969) in a study with graduate students found no correlations between empathy levels and GRE scores. They do point out, however, that the GRE scores were uniformly high.

Carkhuff (1971), while not discussing IQ scores per se, states that the better an individual functions physically and intellectually, the better one functions inter-

personally (p. 93). Taking this into account and assuming that the discrimination and communication aspect of empathy involve verbal ability, it would not be unreasonable to hypothesize a linear relationship between intelligence and empathy. However, the studies mentioned above, though tentative, seem to indicate that subjects of high intelligence do not by virtue of that possess high empathy. This does not, however, rule out the possibility that a relationship exists in the lower or middle ranges of intellectual and empathic functioning. Further, it is quite possible that intelligence may be a very significant component to empathy to the degree that it interacts with other components which facilitate empathic output, such as self esteem or various personality factors.

Personal Integration and Empathy

Self Esteem

Aspy and Hadlock (1967) found that grade school students of higher empathic teachers showed higher self esteem than students of lower empathic teachers. Lin's (1973) results indicated that the degree of "perceived counselor's empathy, warmth, and genuineness . . . was linearly related to the level of the counselor's self confidence" (p. 293). Altman and Scollon (1973) reviewed studies which indicated that low self esteem has been related to poor social interaction. Altman's study showed that expected gains in self-

esteem did not occur when facilitators were not minimally helpful as judged on Carkhuff's EU scale. Jackson and Thompson (1971) found "the most effective counselors were more positive than the least effective counselors in their attitudes toward self, most clients, and counseling." (p. 252)

Roger's Self theory (Hall and Lindzey, 1970) and the implicit assumptions of IST theorists propose that if quality communication (implying high empathy) exists, then self esteem will grow. On the other hand the assumption is made that if good self esteem exists, it should be easier to raise the level of empathy (Carkhuff, 1971). It is difficult to call self esteem either a cause or an effect of empathy. In either case both theory and research suggest that a positive linear relationship exists between empathy and self esteem.

Mental Health and Anxiety

Hekmat et al. (1974) found empathy scores in college students to be negatively correlated with scores measuring predispositions toward neuroticism and psychoticism. Bergin and Jasper (1969) and Bergin and Solomon (1968) found high empathy levels in psychotherapists to be negatively correlated with almost all pathology scales on the MMPI. In their study, they also found empathy to be negatively correlated with MMPI indicators of depression and anxiety.

Gurman (1972) found that happier therapists are more facilitative therapists. He also found that therapists who were more aware of and willing to report day to day differences in their level of anxiety were more empathic and facilitative. Gurman's results suggest that "therapists relatively free of psychological disturbance, yet willing to acknowledge emotional disturbance when it is present, are better able to respond facilitatively to their patients" (p. 190). Feschbach (1975) reports that low empathy levels are associated with aggressive and behaviorally disordered children.

Given that the empathic person needs to be well tuned to other persons' feelings and experiences, and given the proposition of IST theorists that those who are most effective in the skill of empathy are those most effective in living, it seems logical to hypothesize a negative correlation between empathy and neuroticism, psychoticism, anxiety, and other pathological tendencies.

Physiological Component and Empathy

Sex

There was no evidence found that one sex is more empathic than the other. None of the empathy studies concerning adults or children, which were surveyed by the author, yielded evidence of sex differences. Flavel et al. (1968) found no significant differences in role taking per-

formance of boys and girls although boys tended to perform slightly better than girls. In this study the expectation is that no sex differences will be found in the empathic behavior of boys and girls.

Age and Grade

In adult populations, the presumption seems to exist that empathic ability does not change for better or worse with age. Several studies of child populations indicate that empathic ability increases significantly with age (Milgram and Goodglass, 1961; Dymond et al., 1952; Feffer, 1959; Feffer and Gourevitch, 1960; Flavell, 1966; Flavell et al., 1968). Specific findings of all these studies were discussed above. Several of these studies noted significant differences in empathy and role taking between first or second graders and sixth, seventh, or eighth graders. In this study, the population sampled is relatively restricted and homogeneous as to age and grade. Therefore, in this study, the expectation is that no age or grade difference will be found in the empathic behavior of the subjects.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects were 146 seventh and eighth graders from two urban parochial schools. These were 66 boys (31 from School 1 and 35 from School 2) and 80 girls (61 from School 1 and 19 from School 2). They ranged in age from 11 to 14 (although only one subject was younger than 11 years, 10 months). School 1 is located in a predominantly middle to upper-middle socio-economic class neighborhood. School 2 is located in a predominantly lower to middle socio-economic class neighborhood. The subject population was chosen because the two schools were about to participate through their guidance programs in an interpersonal skills training program designed specifically for junior high school students (Kapp and Simon, 1976). All data was collected prior to the onset of the training program (with the exception of the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test which was administered midyear). Neither the schools nor the subjects had participated in a similar training program or in related research prior to this study. The attempt was made to test all seventh and eighth graders on all measures.

Nine students were not included because they had left their schools before completing the Otis-Lennon test. Two more students were not included because of language problems. All other students who had completed all measures used in this study were included.

Measures

The intent in choosing instruments was to provide measures suited for this age group and to provide data which can be used meaningfully within the framework of the personality model described above. The measures consisted of three published group tests and one individually administered analogue situation designed for this study.

Jr.-Sr. High School Personality Questionnaire--
Form A (HSPQ). The HSPQ (Cattell and Cattell, 1975) is a 142 item inventory which measures fourteen primary level source traits and ten second stratum factors in adolescents in grades 7 to 12. It can be used in a guidance or clinical situation as a screening or diagnostic device. It is also recommended for research purposes. It takes about an hour to administer. Answers are recorded on a separate answer sheet. Separate tables are provided for computing male and female scores. The traits, which the HSPQ reports, correspond to those in the adult (16PF) and child (CPQ) versions. Source traits are identified by letters of the alphabet A through Q₄ and represent bipolar dimensions of

personality, such as lower ego strength versus higher ego strength, submissiveness versus dominance, group dependency versus self-sufficiency. Second stratum factors are derived from source traits and they represent more general dimensions of personality, such as extroversion versus introversion. Because of the potential changeability of personality traits over time, Cattell (1975) publishes two types of reliability coefficients. The dependability coefficient presumes to report the consistency of the test itself and yields coefficients ranging from a high of .90 on factor I to a low of .74 for factor G when comparing Form A with itself on an immediate retest. The stability coefficient is based on a long term retest and "is fixed in value more by the stability of the trait than the dependability of the test" (Cattell, 1975, p. 9). Form A when compared with a retest after six months yields a range of coefficients for the fourteen factors from a high of .69 to a low of .53. Construct validity coefficients ranging from a high of .74 on factor Q_4 to a low of .57 on factor Q_3 are claimed for Form A. These coefficients are called direct validities, that is, "the correlation of the scale with the factor it is supposed to represent" (Cattell and Cattell, 1975, p. 12). Best validities are claimed for factors C (ego-strength), H (adventurousness), I (tender-mindedness), A (warmheartedness), B (Intelligence), F (surgency), G

(superego strength) and Q_4 (tension level). Less success is claimed for D (excitability), E (dominance), and Q_3 (self concept).

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale

(The Way I Feel About Myself). This scale (Piers, 1969) is an eighty question inventory intended for use with students in grades three to twelve. It required a third grade reading level and can be group administered in about twenty minutes. "The Scale was designed primarily for research on the development of children's self attitudes and correlates with these attitudes" (Piers, 1969, p. 2). A single raw score may be converted to stanine and percentile scores. No age or sex differences were found in establishing the norms table. Reliability coefficients were reported ranging from .78 to .93 for internal consistency and from .71 to .77 for stability after a four month retest. Concurrent validity was established on the basis of a significant positive correlation (.68) with another children's self concept scale, significant negative correlations (-.48 and -.64) with children's problem inventories, and significant positive correlations with teacher and peer ratings of "socially effective behavior" (.43 and .31) and of "superego strength" (.40 and .42).

Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test--Form J (MAT). The MAT (Otis and Lennon, 1969) is an eighty question timed

test (40 minutes) intended to measure verbal, numerical, and abstract reasoning abilities. Form J is an intermediate level test intended for use in grades 7 to 9. The MAT represents the latest edition of the Otis series which has a history of over fifty years of use. The Handbook for Administration states: "The new Otis-Lennon tests, like the previous editions in the Otis series, were constructed to yield dependable measurement of the 'g' or general intellectual ability factor" (p. 4). Tables are provided from which IQ and percentile scores are derived using a single raw score and the subjects age. Age and grade stanines can also be derived from separate tables. The device is suited well as a school and guidance tool, as a screening device, and as a research instrument. The instrument was standardized on tens of thousands of children. Several measures of internal consistency yield coefficients of .90 and above; stability measures yield coefficients of .80 to .94 after a one year retest. Twenty-five tables including hundreds of high coefficients (.60's to .80's) are published to support claims of criterion-related and construct validity. The MAT is shown to correlate highly with several achievement tests and with several other intelligence measures.

Empathy or Active Listening Analogue. A means was sought whereby subjects' responses to another person could

be recorded and evaluated on a rating scale. An analogue situation was devised because a relatively realistic situation could be presented to each subject while maintaining similar conditions for all subjects. An analogue could also lend itself to reliability in the future for repeated measures. Each subject was asked to listen to the tape recorded statements of four adolescents who talked about a variety of mild problem issues. (See Appendix A for exact instructions.) Each of the subjects was asked to imagine that each of the troubled adolescents was talking specifically to him or her. Each subject was asked to respond verbally to these statements in a helpful and understanding way. The subjects were given one practice stimulus to insure that instructions were understood. Their next three responses were tape-recorded and were later judged on a scale to determine the level of empathy.

Active Listening Rating Scale. The Active Listening Scale (ALS) was devised specifically for this study, (see Appendix B). It is a four level, 16 point scale which is intended to measure empathy as a discrimination/communication process. The four levels correspond roughly to the middle and lower end of the AE and EU scales. The 16 points represent four sublevels within each level. The 16 point scoring hierarchy allows finer discrimination and was generated from a review of adolescent group process tapes and from discussion with group facilitators about the

range of real responses given by adolescents in a helping situation. The raters were two graduate students in doctoral programs, one male and one female. Each had been trained in IST programs and was familiar with the EU scale. An interjudge reliability coefficient of .85 was achieved after approximately two hours training on the ALS.

Procedure

At the beginning of the school year, a psychologist, who directed the interpersonal skills training program presented the format of the program to the students. She also made it known that measures would be taken over the course of the year to evaluate the students even though all students would not be involved in the training groups. They were told that individual and group measurements would be taken. The students were later interviewed individually and asked to fill out a form in which they stated their desire to participate or not to participate in a skills training group. Some students from School 2 chose not to participate. In regard to the individual measurement (a short analogue situation), the students were instructed to notify the examiner at the time of testing if they did not wish to participate in the research. Four male students from School 2 discussed hesitancy about participating but agreed to cooperate when it was made clear that participation in the research did not necessitate participation

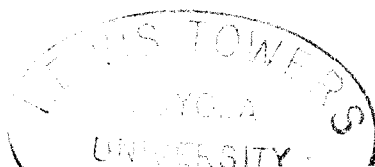
in a skills training group. There was one female student who chose not to participate in the individual measurement.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and the Jr.-Sr. High School Personality Questionnaire were administered to groups in their classrooms according to the instruction in the respective manuals. In addition, the students were told that the information being gathered was to be used for research purposes only. They were told that the examiner was interested in looking at different characteristics of children. They were told that the intent of the research was to look at group scores and that results of individuals would not be made known to other students or to their teachers. Further, they were told to feel free not to answer any questions about themselves which they would not feel comfortable in revealing. Cooperation was virtually unanimous. No student left more than five questions blank on either test, and all results were usable. The examiner solicited comments and criticisms from the groups subsequent to testing. The response was overwhelmingly positive. Students reported that the questionnaires were interesting, fun, and easy. Perhaps the predominant positive statement was that the testing was preferable to their regular class activity or lesson for which it substituted. Criticisms were that it took too long, was boring, and that some of the questions were confusing or difficult.

Restatement of the Hypotheses

Subjects were given the measurement instruments described above. Specific scores from the HSPQ, the Otis-Lennon test, and the Piers-Harris test were chosen to represent samples of traits corresponding to the PS, I, and PI components of the personality model which was expected to correlate with empathy scores. The HSPQ secondary stratum factors of extroversion and independence were the measures chosen for the PS component. The HSPQ primary level factors of warmheartedness, dominance, enthusiasm, and adventurousness are associated with the secondary stratum factors of extroversion and/or independence, and were also investigated as measures of the PS component. The Otis-Lennon IQ and the HSPQ primary level factor of intelligence, represent the measures of the I component. The Piers-Harris self-concept test and the HSPQ secondary stratum factors of anxiety and neuroticism were chosen as measures of the PI components. Pearson correlations were generated for empathy scores with HSPQ factor sten scores, with the Piers-Harris stanine score, with the Otis-Lennon IQ stanine score, and with the PH variables of sex, age, grade, and school to test the following hypotheses:

- 1) Empathy scores will correlate positively with scores for extroversion, independence, warm-



heartedness, dominance, enthusiasm, adventurousness, intelligence, and self esteem.

- 2) Empathy scores will correlate negatively with scores for neuroticism and anxiety.
- 3) Empathy scores will not correlate with the PH variables of sex, age, grade and school.
- 4) Correlations for subgroups divided by sex, age, grade and school when generated will reveal similar relationships between empathy and PS, PI, and I measures for all subgroups.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Table 1 yields information about the empathy level performance of the total population. The mean score was 6.51 and the mode was 6.0, "Advice giving" (see Appendix B). While the range of scores covered all four levels of empathy it can be seen that 87.7 percent of the subjects received scores from Levels 1 and 2 with the vast majority (77.4 percent) receiving Level 2 scores. Level 2 represents low level, less helpful empathic behavior in which the subject focuses on content material and avoids or ignores the other person's feelings.

Table 2 represents a listing of variables with significant or near significant correlations with empathy. Groups ranging in size from the whole population to smaller groups divided by sex, school, and grade are represented. Mean empathy scores for each group are listed. Correlation coefficients and levels of significance are listed. For the personality variables listed in bipolar fashion, negative coefficients indicate correlations between empathy scores and the first pole listed; positive coefficients indicate correlation with the second pole. For all subjects,

TABLE 1

INFORMATION ON EMPATHY SCORES

A. Information on Empathy Scores Obtained from the Active Listening Scale for All Subjects

Mean	6.51
Mode	6.00
Median	6.03
S.D.	1.83
Range	1.0-13.7

B. Distribution of Scores Across Levels of the Active Listening Scale

Level	No. of Subjects	% of Population
1	15	10.3
2	113	77.4
3	17	11.6
4	1	0.07
	146	100.00

TABLE 2

PEARSON CORRELATIONS OF EMPATHY WITH PERSONALITY VARIABLES
FOR ALL SUBJECTS AND FOR GROUPS DIVIDED
BY SEX, SCHOOL AND GRADE

Group	Personality Variable	r	Level of Significance
All (N=146) $\bar{X} = 6.51$	Grade 7-Grade 8	-.20	.01
	Sober-Enthusiastic	.135	.10
	Girl-Boy	-.135	.10
Girls (N=80) $\bar{X} = 6.73$	Grade 7-Grade 8	-.30	.01
	Submissiveness-Dominance	-.21	.05
	Low ego strength- High ego strength	.15	.10
Boys (N=66) $\bar{X} = 6.24$	Sober-Enthusiastic	.29	.01
	Submissiveness-Dominance	.28	.05
	Low superego strength- High superego strength	-.23	.05
	Introversion-Extroversion	.26	.05
	Dependence-Independence	.27	.05
	Neuroticism	-.22	.05
	Reserved-Warmhearted	.19	.10
	Phlegmatic-Excitable	.17	.10

TABLE 2.--Continued

Group	Personality Variable	r	Level of Significance
School 1	Girl-Boy	-.17	.05
N = 92	Grade 7-Grade 8	-.23	.05
\bar{X} = 6.60	Shy-Adventurous	-.14	.10
	Tough minded-Tender minded	.15	.10
School 2	Introversion-Extroversion	.23	.05
N = 54	Reserved-Warmhearted	.20	.10
\bar{X} = 6.35	Phlegmatic-Excitable	.18	.10
	Sober-Enthusiastic	.18	.10
Grade 7	Girl-Boy	-.23	.05
N = 69	Relaxed-Tense	.22	.05
\bar{X} = 6.90			
Grade 8	Sober-Enthusiastic	.22	.05
N = 77	Low Superego Strength-High Superego Strength	-.24	.05
\bar{X} = 6.61	High Ego Strength-Low Ego Strength	.15	.10

NOTE: For the personality variables listed in bipolar fashion, negative coefficients indicate correlations with the first pole listed; positive coefficients indicate correlations with the second pole.

the only variable significantly related to empathy suggests that seventh graders score better than eighth graders. Correlations with enthusiasm and sex suggested that trends exist such that girls score better than boys and that enthusiasm is associated with empathy. For all subjects, little support for the hypotheses was found. Since the results for all subjects suggested that girls score higher in empathy than boys, a t test was computed to compare mean empathy scores of boys and girls. No significant differences were found ($t = 1.64, p > .10$).

When separate correlations are generated for groups divided by sex, support for the hypotheses appeared in the boys' group but not in the girls'. The correlations for girls show that seventh grade girls scored higher than eighth grade girls and that empathy in girls was associated with submissiveness. Although a trend toward ego strength was suggested, the only significant relationships with empathy ran counter to expectations.

There are five significant correlations in the boys' group which were generally in line with expectations. Positive relationships with enthusiasm, dominance, extroversion, and independence and a negative relationship with neuroticism supported the hypothesis. In summary, the findings for the boys' group were supportive of the hypothesis but this was not true of the girls' group where some results ran counter to expectations.

Correlations for the two schools were generated to see if differences would occur between the groups due to neighborhood, atmosphere, socio-economic class, etc. The school variable, however, was confounded by sex. School 1 subjects were predominantly female (61 girls, 31 boys) and School 2 subjects were predominantly male (19 girls, 35 boys). Thus the significant relationships with sex, grade, and extroversion are likely to be an artifact of predominance of one sex over the other in the respective schools.

Correlations for the two grades suggest that in seventh grade, girls scored higher in empathy and that tension was related to empathy. In eighth grade empathy was found to be related to enthusiasm and to low superego strength or a disregard for rules. Because of correlations which had suggested differences in empathy scores in sex and grade, a two way analysis of variance was computed for empathy by sex and grade. A significant main effect was found for grade ($F = 5.27, p < .05$) but not for sex or for the interaction of sex and grade. In addition correlations were generated for subgroups divided by sex and grade to obtain a better picture of the four groups.

Table 3 was constructed in similar fashion to Table 2 and gives the correlations of empathy with personality variables for groups divided by sex and grade. Results with the more narrow scope provided by Table 3 reinforced the notion that correlations for boys' scores, particularly

TABLE 3

PEARSON CORRELATIONS OF EMPATHY WITH PERSONALITY VARIABLES
FOR GROUPS DIVIDED BY SEX AND GRADE

Group	Personality Variable	r	Level of Significance
7th Grade Girls	Submissiveness-Dominance	-.32	.05
N = 42	Self-Assured-Apprehensive	-.27	.05
\bar{X} = 7.26	Low Superego Strength-High Superego Strength	.22	.10
	Zestful-Circumspect	-.21	.10
	Low Self Esteem-High Self Esteem	.19	(p>.10)
8th Grade Girls	Low Self Sentiment-High Self Sentiment	-.31	.05
N = 38	Low Self Esteem-High Self Esteem	-.32	.05
\bar{X} = 6.15	Low Superego Strength-High Superego Strength	-.21	.10
	Self-Assured-Apprehensive	.22	.10
	Sober-Enthusiastic	.21	.10
7th Grade Boys	Low Anxiety-High Anxiety	.47	.01
N = 27	Introversion-Extroversion	.37	.05
\bar{X} = 6.33	Dependence-Independence	.36	.05
	Sober-Enthusiastic	.41	.05
	Phlegmatic-Excitable	.37	.05

TABLE 3.--Continued

Group	Personality Variable	r	Level of Significance
	Shy-Adverturous	-.41	.05
	Relaxed-Tense	.41	.05
	Self-Assured-Apprehensive	.26	.10
	Low Self Sentiment- High Self Sentiment	-.26	.10
	Low Self Esteem- High Self Esteem	-.30	.10
8th Grade Boys	Neuroticism	-.30	.05
N = 39	Submissiveness-Dominance	.30	.05
\bar{X} = 6.17	Low Self Esteem- High Self Esteem	.27	.05
	Low Superego Strength- High Superego Strength	-.28	.05
	Dull-Bright	.31	.05
	Intelligence	.25	.10
	Sober-Enthusiastic	.23	.10
	Introversion-Extroversion	.21	.10
	Dependent-Independent	.23	.10

NOTE: For the personality variables listed in bipolar fashion, negative coefficients indicate correlations with the first pole listed; positive coefficients indicate correlation with the second pole.

eighth grade boys' scores were more consistent with the hypotheses. For eighth grade boys nearly every target variable was found to correlate significantly or near significantly as predicted. In looking at all four groups, however, relationships were seen to exist in one grade or sex while the opposite relationship existed in the opposite sex or grade. In seventh grade girls' group empathy was positively associated with self assurance and high superego strength while in eighth grade girls' the trend was just the opposite. In eighth grade girls empathy was marginally associated with lower superego strength and apprehensiveness. In seventh grade boys anxiety was found to be related to empathy. This is logically inconsistent with the negative correlation of empathy and neuroticism found in eighth grade boys. Within the seventh grade boys' group, another logical inconsistency seems to exist in that both shyness and extroversion were correlated with empathy. Another inconsistent set of relationships concerned the variable of self esteem, which was positively related to empathy in eighth grade boys and negatively related to empathy in eighth grade girls. In seventh grade groups the relationships, although not significant, were reversed. In seventh grade boys, empathy was negatively related to self esteem; in seventh grade girls empathy was positively associated with self esteem.

The inconsistencies found above suggest that some

other variable or population characteristic might exist which confounds the hypothesis. To investigate this possibility, the racial background of the population was investigated.

The subjects were found to be very heterogeneous as to racial background. To facilitate statistical investigation, the subjects were divided into four racial groups: White, Spanish, Oriental, or Black. The Spanish group included Mexican, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and representatives of other Central or South American countries. The Oriental group was represented by Philipinos, Japanese, Chinese, Thai, and East Indian. Also, all groups were represented by both native and foreign born individuals.

Table 4 lists the number of subjects in each racial group and the percentage of the total population represented by that number. Information is listed for all subjects and for subgroups divided by sex, and by sex and grade. Table 4 reveals that the population is 29.5% White, 41.1% Spanish, 21.9% Oriental, and 7.5% Black. It can be seen, however, that these same proportions do not exist within each of the subgroups. In the Oriental population over two-thirds (22 of 32) of the group were girls and nearly half of the Orientals were seventh grade girls. Over one-third (23 of 60) of the Spanish population was composed of eighth grade boys. Table 5 lists the percentages of each of the subgroups which are respectively White,

TABLE 4

RACIAL COMPOSITION FOR ALL SUBJECTS AND FOR GROUPS DIVIDED
BY SEX AND BY SEX AND GRADE

	White		Spanish		Oriental		Black		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
All	43	29.5	60	41.1	32	21.9	11	7.5	146	100.0
Male	20	13.7	31	21.2	10	6.8	5	3.4	66	45.1
Female	23	15.8	29	19.9	22	15.1	6	4.1	80	54.9
7th Grade Boys	11	7.5	8	5.5	5	3.4	3	2.0	27	18.4
7th Grade Girls	9	6.2	14	9.6	15	10.3	4	2.7	42	28.8
8th Grade Boys	9	6.2	23	15.7	5	3.4	2	1.4	39	26.7
8th Grade Girls	14	9.6	15	10.3	7	4.8	2	1.4	38	26.1

TABLE 5

RACIAL COMPOSITION BY PERCENTAGE OF SUBGROUPS
DIVIDED BY SEX, AND BY SEX AND GRADE

	White	Spanish	Oriental	Black
All	29.5	41.1	21.9	7.5
Boys	30	47	15	8
Girls	29	36	28	7
7th Grade Boys	41	30	18	11
7th Grade Girls	22	33	36	9
8th Grade Boys	23	59	13	5
8th Grade Girls	37	40	18	5

Spanish, Oriental, and Black. The subgroups divided by sex and grade did not have the same proportionate composition as that of the total group or of the sex groups. Whites were the largest group within the seventh grade boys. Orientals were the largest group within the seventh grade girls, and eighth grade boys were over represented by Spanish. To examine whether the disproportionate distribution of race within these subgroups was associated with the inconsistencies in relationships discussed above, correlations were generated for empathy with the personality factors in question for groups divided by sex, grade, and race. Self-esteem, self-assurance, superego strength, anxiety, and tension were investigated.

The inconsistencies in the correlations which were most relevant to the hypothesis concern self esteem. Table 6 lists the correlation of empathy with esteem for subgroups of the total population divided by sex and grade and the same correlations for the subgroups further divided by race. For all subjects, empathy was shown to correlate negatively with esteem for seventh grade boys and eighth grade girls, and to correlate positively for seventh grade girls and eighth grade boys. If specific uniform positive or negative correlations existed within the racial blocks, it might be possible to begin to explain the inconsistencies found across grade and sex as due to the disproportionate distribution of race across grade and sex suggested

TABLE 6

CORRELATIONS OF EMPATHY WITH SELF ESTEEM FOR GROUPS DIVIDED BY SEX, GRADE AND RACE

	All Subjects		White		Spanish		Oriental	
	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 7	Grade 8
Boys	-.30**	.27*	.18	-.42	-.78*	.11	-.41	.81*
Girls	.19	-.32*	-.04	-.39**	.06	.01	.50*	-.90*

* indicates $p < .05$.

** indicates $p < .10$.

in Table 5. However, Table 6 reveals a lack of consistency of correlation within the racial blocks. For white and oriental boys and girls and for Spanish boys striking differences between seventh and eighth graders were seen to exist. Similar results were found for the other personality factors of self-assurance, superego strength, anxiety, and tension. In each case there was no consistency of correlation within race or grade. Thus racial subgroup differences do not seem to be helpful in explaining inconsistencies in the results.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

Using the proposed personality model, hypotheses were made which suggested that empathy scores of all subjects would correlate positively with extroversion, independence, intelligence, and self-esteem, and negatively with neuroticism and anxiety. These and other expected relationships were not supported by the results for all subjects. In fact very few significant correlations of any kind were found between empathy and other variables for the whole population. The results that seventh graders score higher than eighth graders in empathy and the trend suggesting that girls score higher than boys was not expected. When the population was divided by sex, the results for boys were much more in line with expectations of proposed relationships whereas results for girls remained unsupportive or counter to expectations. For boys, empathy was positively correlated with extroversion, independence, dominance, and enthusiasm, and negatively correlated with neuroticism. These findings are in line with expectations, whereas empathy scores of girls were negatively correlated to dominance and grade. Thus a contrast exists between boys and girls such that a boy who is enthusiastic, dom-

inant, and outgoing, and who is less of a neurotic and more of an objective and flexible thinker is more likely to be empathic. But for the empathic girl, little can be said other than that she is likely to be a submissive seventh grader.

Although it seems clear that the hypotheses predicted empathy relationships more accurately for boys than girls, what is most challenging about the results for girls is not simply that they generally do not conform to the hypotheses but that significant findings run counter to predictions. The existence of other inconsistent correlations running counter to the hypotheses also make any simple explanation of findings unlikely.

Within various subgroups several examples exist in which correlations were either found to exist in the opposite direction as hypothesized or in which hypothesized correlations were found to correlate positively within one subgroup and negatively within another subgroup. For example, anxiety was found to be positively correlated with empathy in seventh grade boys. Empathy was positively related to self-esteem in eighth grade boys but negatively related to eighth grade girls. In other subgroups divided by sex, grade, and race more examples can be found of inconsistent correlations of empathy with target factors. The implication of these findings call into doubt not only whether the specific hypotheses hold up but whether empathy

as measured here, can be seen to correlate consistently with any personality factor.

One reason why expected relationships do not hold up may be related to the empathy level of the population. The mean score of 6.51 is relatively low on the ALS (see Appendix B). Empathy scores ranged from a low of 1.0 to a high of 13.7 on the 16 point scale. Seventy-eight percent of the population received scores below 9.0, which placed the majority of the population at Levels 1 and 2. The ALS, like the EU and AE scales, presumes that a continuum of empathic behavior exists ranging from non-helpful to helpful responses. Level 1 and Level 2 performance on the ALS represents neither accurate discrimination nor effective communication of the other person's feelings. At the primitive level of empathy represented by the majority of the population, it is possible that empathy does not correlate with any specific personality factors. It is possible that different levels of empathy correlate with different personality factors. The review of the literature used to create the hypotheses often focused on subjects of established empathic ability. It is possible that the hypothesized correlations would hold up consistently with adolescents (or adults) who exhibited high level empathy scores. However, only one subject gained a Level 4 empathy score, therefore, investigation of that hypothesis was not feasible using the data from this sample.

Another important question concerns whether the relationships that do exist in the results, including the inconsistent or seemingly contradictory findings, reveal anything. The original hypotheses generated using the personality model suggested that specific personality components would correlate with empathic behavior. In a sense, one personality type or one composite of personality characteristics was hypothesized to correlate with empathy. Some of these specific correlations were found to exist with boys. However, some personality factors were found to correlate positively with empathy in one subgroup while correlating negatively in another. In addition, other personality characteristics or factors were found to correlate with empathy for various subgroups which did not hold for the larger groups. Often, the characteristics of these subgroups which correlated with empathy represented characteristics which might be associated with a stereotyped or culturally expected trait of that subgroup. Examples of these groups with the stereotypic characteristics which correlate with empathy are listed in Table 7. The dominant boy, the submissive girl, the rule-breaking eighth grader, the individualistic White, the warmhearted and extroverted Spanish person, and the shy Oriental are more likely to behave empathically. It seems that the more strongly a subject can identify himself with a stereotypic characteristic

TABLE 7

EXAMPLES OF CORRELATIONS OF EMPATHY WITH PERSONALITY FACTORS WHICH REPRESENT STEREOTYPES OF SEX, GRADE, AND RACE SUBGROUPS

Group	Personality Factor Correlated with Empathy	r*
Boys	Dominance	.28
Girls	Dominance	-.30
8th Graders	Superego Strength	-.24
Whites	Individualism	.41
Spanish	Warmheartedness	.27
Spanish	Extroversion	.27
Orientals	Shyness	.43

* For all correlations $p < .05$.

typical of his specific subgroup, the more likely he is to behave empathically.

The postulation of an identification process might unify or clarify some of the findings. Initially, the assumption was made based on the model and literature review that a factor such as extroversion should be correlated with empathic behavior. If it is hypothesized that one is more empathic, the more one is able to identify with a personality trait or set of personality traits, then extroversion may be only one of many possible identifications which might correlate with empathy. It is possible that boys fit the initial hypotheses better because they identified with that set of factors more than girls did. There is no direct evidence for this identification process. However, if it is assumed that the early part of adolescence is a state of self-definition or identity formation, it might follow that the degree to which an adolescent would associate himself with a sexual, social, or other group of which he is a member, could be taken as a sign of the strength of his self-definition or identity. The interpretation that is being suggested is a simple one; that the better one knows one's self or can identify one's own personality characteristics, the better one can deal empathically with others. Dymond (1949, 1950, 1952) and Feschbach (1975) related self knowledge to empathy. Feschbach, representing the affective or more psychoana-

lytically oriented viewpoint of empathy, emphasized the identification process in empathic behavior of children, that is, she stressed the stimulation and self awareness of the subject concerning his own feelings as the major characteristic of empathy in children.

This viewpoint of empathy is less strict in requiring the differential judgment called for by role-taking theorists or the discrimination-communication process emphasized in the higher level empathic behavior described by IST theorists. However, it is consistent with the Level 1 and Level 2 performance on the ALS where the majority of the subjects in this study performed, and which was discussed above. There was no explicit instrument or index of self knowledge or identification used in this study, rather the identification process was inferred as a possible construct to explain the existence of several inconsistent, yet stereotypic relationships. If one assumes the existence of an identification process, it follows logically that a person of very unsterotypic personality might accurately describe himself and might correspondingly be quite empathic, yet there would be no way to find evidence for that phenomenon within this study. It is recommended that future investigation of the relationship of empathy to personality utilize an instrument to specifically measure the self knowledge or identification process.

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONS FOR EMPATHY ANALOGUE

Hello _____ My name is _____

The reason I asked you to be here is that I am interested in finding out how well kids your age talk to and listen to one another.

All the 7th and 8th graders will be seen.

As you can see I have two tape recorders here. On this tape recorder I have the voice of four (4) boys/girls about the same age as you. Each one is talking about a problem that concerns him/her.

I'm going to play them to you one at a time. As you listen I want you to imagine that each boy/girl has chosen to talk to you about his/her problem. You might pretend you're talking on the telephone.

When each boy/girl is finished I want you to respond as if he/she were here talking to you.

Try to be as helpful as you can.

Try to give an answer that shows you really listened to what he said.

I'm going to record what you say but first let's do a practice one.

APPENDIX B

ACTIVE LISTENING SCALE

Level 1 Misses both feeling and content.

1. Sentence fragments, silence.
2. Changing topic, going off on a tangent.
3. Put downs.
4. Contradictions (e.g., "You shouldn't feel/think that way," "That's not the way it happened.")

Level 2 Focus on content, avoids other person's feelings.

5. Generalizations (e.g., "That happens to everybody.")
6. Advice giving.
7. Focus on third person other than helper or helpee (e.g., "Parents are always like that.")
8. Focused question asking to clarify or get more information.

Level 3 More accuracy on content and more focus on feelings, but emphasis on helper's feelings (e.g., sympathy).

9. Supportive phrases without real self disclosure. (e.g., "I understand how you fell." or "That's happened to me.")
10. Talking about someone else who has gone through similar experience with description of feelings and content.
11. Sharing own experience that is similar.
12. Sharing own feelings from a similar experience.

Level 4 Focus on other person's feelings and content.

13. Responds to other person's experience, summary without feelings.
14. Responds to and labels other persons feelings accurately.
15. Responds to both feeling and experience of other person summary with feelings.
16. Response was additive and showed evidence of advanced empathy skills.

APPROVAL SHEET

The thesis submitted by Thomas Schevers has been read and approved by the following committee:

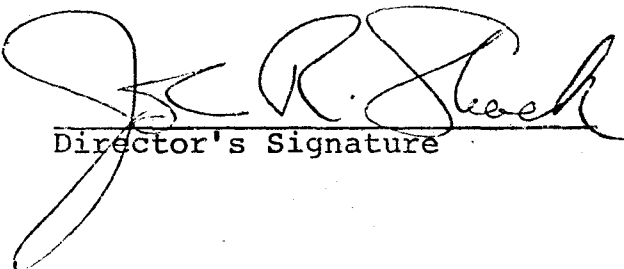
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The final copies have been examined by the director of the thesis and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the thesis is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The thesis is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

6-29-78
Date


Director's Signature