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COGNITIVE CONCRETENESS-ABSTRACTNESS
AND SOCIAL COMPETENCE

By

Dale Brounstein

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

June

1974

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LIFE

Dale A. Brounstein is the son of Bernard C. Brounstein and Celia M. Brounstein. He was born in Portland, Oregon on February 28, 1946.

He attended Fernwood Grade School for his elementary education and in 1964, was graduated from U. S. Grant High School in Portland, Oregon.

In June of 1969 he received the degree of Bachelor of Science with a major in Psychology from Portland State University. He further pursued the study of psychology and earned the degree of Master of Arts from the University of Portland in August of 1971.

Upon completion of his undergraduate study, Dale accepted employment for the State of Oregon, with whom he worked for one year as a vocational counselor. He was awarded a graduate assistantship at Loyola University of Chicago for the 1971-1972 academic year. In 1972, he completed his clinical psychology clerkship as a psychology trainee for the Veterans' Administration in Hines, Illinois. In the same year, he began his year-long clinical psychology internship at Chicago-Read Mental Health Center. Upon returning to Loyola to complete his academic requirements, he was granted a teaching assistantship for the 1973-1974 academic year.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

With the goal of gaining and expanding understanding of the complex interface between the individual and others in his environment, untold numbers of research projects have been undertaken in several disciplines. This study sought to investigate the organismic variable of cognitive concreteness-abstractness and the environmental variable of situational structure as both affect a specific type of interpersonal perception.

The development of emphases in the study of man as a social being has generally followed this sequence: (1) the individual; (2) the group; (3) a synthesis of both, an integration recognizing multiple determination of social behavior (Allport, 1954). While the first two orientations have contributed significantly to the fund of knowledge of interpersonal relations, the third has been most fruitful in past research and served as a foundation for this study.

The field of psychology itself has developed similarly. Psychologists have established and maintained specialty areas, but have come to recognize and affirm the necessity of and positive value in interdependent relationships between the various specialized areas. It has become increasingly apparent, for instance, that a clinical psychologist must have moderate sophistication in learning theories, social, cognitive, and biological psychology. Personality, once thought to be the domain of only a few subdisciplines, has since been

approached from all perspectives. Fiske and Maddi (1961) have endorsed a cognitive approach involving impact, activation, and arousal, while Levy (1970) has ambitiously presented and compared a number of approaches to personality.

One research area which has maintained the interest of social and clinical psychologists (and others) is social competence, particularly social perception. As Bieri (1955) pointed out, social perception, has been given several names, including person perception, interpersonal perception, understanding others, social sensitivity, and empathy. The importance or relevance of social perception to clinical psychology has been expressed by Sarbin, Taft, and Bailey (1960) and more recently by Adinolfi (1971).

The most often used measure of social perception is the accuracy with which one person predicts the behavior of another, usually the responses of the other to some questionnaire, checklist, or rating scale (Bieri, 1955). The proposed study, while maintaining the use of accuracy of prediction as a measure, departs from the previous research in that the individual was instructed to predict how another person would describe him after limited social interaction. The name here given to this type of person perception is "interpersonal Self-Perception" (ISP).

The central importance of ISP in the proposed study arises from the often expressed conviction that an individual's concept of himself is affected and, to some extent, determined by how he is perceived by others and by the behavior of others in relation to him. Newcomb, Turner, and Converse (1965) suggest that "our interest in others' impressions of us remains keen throughout our lifetime. In other words,

much of what we consider ourselves to be is a product of social interaction [p. 142]." In more detail, Cooley (in Newcomb, et al., 1965) relates that his concept of self-idea is made up of "the imagination of our appearance to the other person; the imagination of his judgment of that appearance, and some sort of self-feeling, such as pride or mortification [p. 142]." Cooley's poignant comment implies an ability to assume the role of the other or to "step into the shoes" of the other. This may indeed be an important variable in accuracy of person perception. His comment further suggests that the self-concept may be affected negatively or positively. May (1961) attributed significance of what is here termed ISP to the self-concept by remarking that it is "the aspect(s) in which I am accepted by others [p. 48]." May did not include nonacceptance, but the implications can easily be drawn.

Cantril (1957) discussed much of the above and stated that the psychotherapist (diagnostician) must continue to sharpen his ability to identify and recognize constancies in others, accurately perceive others "so that our own purposeful action will have a greater chance of bringing about the satisfying consequences we intended [p. 123]." Therapists should also be sensitive, suggested Pearce and Newton (1963), to the client's attempt to "act as he would like to be perceived by the therapist [p. 352]." Cantril and Pearce and Newton have laid the groundwork for the assumption that individuals vary in their ability to accurately perceive, predict, and alter the way they appear to others and/or how others will act in relation to them. It may be inferred from what Cantril said that an individual's success/failure in achieving his intended ends may depend somewhat on these same abilities. Further, it may be assumed that the abilities may

contribute largely to a person's social adequacy and that an assessment of levels of the abilities may serve as a measure of social competence.

It would seem worthwhile, then, to identify and investigate those variables which contribute to successful interface. Mancuso (1970) offered a possible direction for research when he proposed that an individual's cognitive framework or style may be a most important variable in his social facility. The cognitive dimension which Greaves (1971d) speculated may be related to some areas of social competence is the concreteness-abstractness dimension as posited by Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961).

Though concreteness-abstractness is thought to be of importance, situational influences on interpersonal behavior must also be taken into account in any study of social competence. Bieri (1955) mentioned that in his study involving cognitive complexity and social perception, his primary concern was with organismic variables to the partial exclusion of the external behavioral realm. Streufert and Schroder (1965) noted that "Data concerned with the interaction of conceptual structure and environmental complexity as they might affect perceptual characteristics would be of great value in further testing the relationship of conceptual structure to environmental and behavioral variables [p. 136]." The reported study included the manipulation of environmental complexity by varying the specificity of experimental task and the range of elicited behaviors. Environmental certainty has been found to distinguish the concrete persons from the abstract persons in adaptability and ease in adaptation (Harvey & Ware, 1967; Harvey, White, Prather, Alter, & Hoffmeister, 1965).

The intent or purpose of the present study was to test for and to investigate the relatedness or relationship(s) between cognitive concreteness-abstractness and experimentally derived measures of social adequacy or facility. Cognitive abstractness was assessed by means of the "This I Believe" Test (TIB) (Harvey, 1966a) (See Appendix A). Interpersonal Self Perception was derived from the Interpersonal Checklist (ICL) (LaForge & Suczek, 1955) (See Appendix B) after an experimental situation involving dyadic interaction. Low structured and high structured task conditions were defined by the instructions given subjects prior to their interaction (See Appendix C). Subject ease in the interactional situations was investigated by a Post-Experimental Questionnaire (PEQ) which utilized the semantic differential technique (See Appendix D).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEWS

Much of the theoretical bases for the hypotheses to be tested in the proposed study were developed from the Conceptual Systems Theory (Harvey et al., 1961). A brief overview of the theory is presented, followed by reviews of the relevant research on the measures to be employed.

Conceptual Systems Theory and the "This I Believe" Test

An individual carries with him into a social situation, or any situation involving his external world, a fairly consistent style or organized way of assessing, interpreting, and interacting with the problems he faces. One dimension which enables the identification of a person's style and competence level is the concreteness-abstractness dimension developed by Harvey et al., (1961). Harvey (1966b) posited that the person's position on the dimension represents a "more or less standardized way an individual articulates and organizes his concepts of relevant aspects of his environment, [p. 1]." The position or level on the dimension is seen to be determined primarily by his developmental history; more specifically, by his parental training history. The development follows a sequence beginning with a concrete conceptual system, System I or Stage I, progressing toward greater abstractness, System IV or Stage IV.

While the abstractness end of the dimension generally represents the most competent functioning level, and the concrete end the most primitive, Harvey (1963a) suggested that even more abstract levels are theoretically possible. With some reservation, what can be said about one end of the dimension represents the reverse of the other end. Those persons functioning at Stage I (System I individuals) are identified by several demonstrable and recognizable characteristics. They operate from a simple cognitive structure, are less capable of fine differentiation and complete integration, and have a disposition to compartmentalize their environment into rather broad categories (Harvey, Reich, & Wyer, 1965; Harvey, Wyer, & Houtaluoma, 1963). Evaluation and assessment of their environment is judgmental, tending toward fixed absolutes or polarizations, often dichotomized into black-white analogies (White & Harvey, 1965). There is greater dependence on external, authority originated rules. The dependence approaches the adoption of those cues or rules as inflexible behavioral and belief codes. The cues are characteristically accepted unchallenged (Harvey, 1964; Tiemann, 1965). System I individuals have difficulty in coping with ambiguities and are more authoritarian and dogmatic (Harvey, 1966a). Along with the inability to cope with ambiguity, Stage I is distinguished by quick discomfort with cognitive dissonance, and expressions of intense need for its resolution (Harvey, 1965). Change of flux in the environment presents a difficult situation for System I individuals, for they possess a rigid set, forcing stereotyped responses to new situations. Solutions to problems are conventional and uncreative (Felkner & Harvey, 1963; Harvey, 1966a). The solution of a problem or the achievement of a goal

is seen as either appropriate or inappropriate, thus limiting the richness of variety of alternative solutions (Harvey, 1966a). Role playing is especially difficult for the System I individual, as is working in a hypothetical situation (Harvey, 1963b; Harvey & Kline, 1965). Much of Stage I behavior is controlled by steadfast, unmodifiable opinion. In fact, the individual anticipates that his opinions will not change (Hoffmeister, 1965).

Certainly, Harvey et al. (1961) are not the first or only ones to suggest a continuum or hierarchy of human functioning, a developmental ladder of effectiveness in living. Neither is this notion limited to psychology or other sciences. Philosophers and writers of prose have observed and reported it, albeit through different media and styles. For example, Neitzche's Zarathustra represents in a different tongue what Herman Hesse (1971) called the man of "self-will," what Rokeach (1960) called "open-minded." In describing the dimension of openness-closeness, Harvey (1963a) wonders "if this dimension may not ultimately be synonymous with concreteness-abstractness [p. 115]." Maslow (1954) described the self-actualizing person as successfully responding to Zarathustra's plea to "Become what thou art!" and so the System IV individual takes heed to and "provides a paradigm of the Socratic exhortation to 'know thyself' [Harvey et al., 1961, p. 238]."

System IV persons and self-actualizing persons have more in common than their philosophical similarities. So often do nearly identical descriptions appear in the literature of both personality types that one may very well serve as a measure or index for the other. To the self-actualizing person, "means and ends are clearly

distinguishable [Maslow, 1954, p. 221]," so System IV persons can accurately delineate "between means and ends [Harvey, 1966, p. 1]." Both are seen as more sensitive perceivers of relevant aspects of their environments and of the fine nuances of their changing experiential world. Although these individuals are unusually perceptive, they are inner-directed, accepting, information oriented, and autonomous (Harvey, 1963a; Maslow, 1954). The System IV or self-actualizing person operates from a responsibility and task-centered base more than from shame, guilt, or fear (of the unknown, punishment, or exclusion). These persons are close to the traditional Nietzschean superior man and quite expectedly, are relatively few in number.

A greater portion of the population can be found in the systems or stages between I and IV. Rather than specific points on the concrete-abstractness dimension, they are ranges along the dimension, within which the individual is either progressing or arrested. It should be sufficient for the proposed investigation to present rather brief descriptions of the conceptual functioning of the various systems (general and interpersonal), presumably the resultants of particular forms of parental direction.

The functioning of System I, as already presented, is the most concrete of the four systems, and is assumed to result from early training which limits the individual's contact with his environment. The parenting agent restricts exploration, maintaining and exercising complete control over the child. The contingencies for reinforcement are established solely by the parental figure and are very specific. The behavior necessary for reinforcement, and possibly more important, for avoidance of punishment, is predominantly composed of conforming

to the rules or "omnisciently imposed standards of the training agent [Harvey, 1966b, p. 2]." The locus of control of reinforcement for System I is external (Greaves, 1971d). A narrow range of behavior is acceptable and the rationale for reinforcement or punishment of a specific act is rarely given to the child. If a justification is offered or provided, it takes the form of some extrapersonal force, leading to the establishment of an external locus of causality (Harvey, 1966b). As a product of this type of training, the individual expands his behavioral repertoire bit by bit, prevented from gaining an overview or developing an integrative style.

The System I individual is an authoritarian and is closed-minded. He is judgmental, is positively dependent on authority figures and is intensely conscious of and, identifies with role and status. He is apt to be a blind patriot as he very ethnocentric and conventional, ruled heavily by cultural norms (Greaves, 1971a). Internalized standards are heavily relied upon when there are no demands made from authority figures. However, independence from nonauthority cues is presumed to come from absolute nearness or distance (contrast) from those cues. This polarized position-taking provides a barrier to ambiguous or "potentially conflicting inputs from entering their conceptual or integrative matrix [Harvey, 1966b, p. 2]."

The interpersonal functioning of the System I individual is what might intuitively be expected. That is, persons with whom he associates are most likely to be, according to Harvey et al. (1961), "very conventional and behave according to the rules [p. 213]." Persons who are unconventional are characteristically avoided as are any situations (groups, behavior settings, etc.) with anything less

than a definite and high degree of structure (Harvey & Ware, 1967; Harvey et al., 1965). System I individuals set rigid standards for the acceptance of others--the standards of the System I person himself. Any if the standards are not met by the other person or object, rejection results. The use of superlatives is a marked feature of the language of System I. System I characteristics correlate with sensitization (Greaves, 1971b).

System II functioning is the next in the dimension of concreteness-abstractness and is the result of a training approach that is "capricious and arbitrary [Harvey, 1966b, p. 3]." Harvey et al. (1961) referred to this type of training as "unreliable unilateral training." The individual is provided with no stable reference points and uncertainty and diversity overload the integrative matrix. The individual is thought to make efforts toward independence from the training agent and these eventually take the form of negative attitudes toward the training agent. The child comes to distrust the authority and his cues and the child views attempts at training as malevolent or threatening. The controlling agent is eventually perceived as someone to avoid or destroy. This orientation becomes generalized so that the individual's behavior chiefly involves the avoidance of control in any form or the destruction (literal or not) of the potentially controlling source. System II individuals seem to require much certainty and structure in their environment (Harvey & Ware, 1967; Harvey et al., 1965), but feel that it does not exist, therefore choosing a rebellion as a behavioral guideline as the most certain or consistent. The nature or the expression of the control-avoidance or destruction, according to Harvey et al. (1961) is determined by which type of

unreliable unilateral training is implemented. They suggest two basic forms: (1) unreliable control and (2) neglect and indifference. If the individual is exposed to unreliable control, the general technique for avoidance is passivity, fear of others, and indirect expression of control avoidance. If the unreliable unilateral training is that of neglect and indifference, the expression of System II functioning is more direct and overt.

The System II person's view of his world is philosophically aligned with the Nihilists of nineteenth century Europe. He is cynical toward established values and regulations, though close to System I in his rigidity (refection). He is absolutist and tends toward stereotyped responses. System II individuals are aware of the many problems (uncertainties) in their world, but in keeping with their concreteness and lack of available alternatives, feel that relatively few changes would correct everything. Although his conceptual system involves stereotypy, he is a nonconformist and is unconventional. In the solution of problems, System II persons feel that a particular solution is the only one, using oppositional standards for judgment.

In interpersonal situations, System II persons are generally distrustful, pessimistic, and fearful of close relationships with others. They value friendship very highly, but are cynical toward it. The most common basis for friendship is a mutual opposition to authority (Harvey et al., 1961). When a casual relationship is experienced, the System II individual is uncooperative and feels that he accomplishes most when he is alone. The locus of control for System II persons is the most external of the four systems,

accompanied as expected, by displeasure and futility. Greaves (1971a) reported a preponderance of System II persons living in "hippie" communities.

System III functioning is in contrast to System II functioning in that there is a high optimistic and positive value placed on friendship in System III. System II colors friendship in a more cynical light. System III persons view friendships very positively, expressing the necessity for many friends. This dependency on others, which is a dominant characteristic of this system, is thought to be the product of protective interdependent training (Harvey et al., 1961). Under this technique, reinforcement is for instrumental behavior rather than exact prescribed behavior as in unilateral training. The protective nature of the training implies, according to Harvey et al., "a form of intrinsic evaluation embedded in the relationship between the source and the object [p. 128]." The parent figure views failure as rejection or lack of support given to the child. The training agent, in attempts to prevent failure (lack of support), intercedes between the subject and his environment to insure success (support, acceptance). Harvey (1966b) suggested that protective interdependent training involves over-indulgence. The parent acts as an intermediary, restricting somewhat the subject's experimentation in "social intercourse and manipulation of people [p. 3]." As the individual is prevented from failure and, indeed, is partially instrumental in success, he eventually develops an inflated evaluation of himself as responsible for change in his environment. His perceived locus of control of reinforcement is internal (Greaves, 1971d). At the same time, due to his limited actual problem-solving, a generalized dependence on others

grows, promoting the image of external causality. Thus, the System III person expresses the importance and establishment of many friendships, thereby preventing or reducing the risk of failure and the necessity of reliance on his own abilities.

The System III person is rather sophisticated in interacting with his environment and views his world more relatively than do the System I or System II persons. Environmental inconsistencies and lack of high structure cause him less dissonance than they do persons of the more concrete systems (Harvey & Ware, 1967; Harvey et al., 1965). He is more able to see integrative relationships rather than compartmentalizations. He tends to be neither cynical nor critical; in more ways than one, he is a fence-walker. Although sophisticated, most of his behavior is rather conventional; he is quite aware of and sensitive to social requirements. In problem-solving, he is utilitarian rather than dogmatic, solution oriented and distinguishes between means and ends.

Quite obviously, persons in System III are dependent on social interaction and much of their behavior has as its goal the acceptance and prevention of rejection by others. They view close relationships as paths to growth and self-understanding. Indeed, these people are socially competent, but are fearful of having to rely completely upon themselves. They are very cooperative and conforming, especially to their desired reference group. The individuals in this system use conventional language and more specifically, the language of the group to which they belong or in which they desire membership. Greaves (1971b) has found System III persons to be repressors.

The functioning of System IV individuals is quite independent and self-reliant, as differentiated from System III. This system was described earlier in general terms, but must be dealt with in more detail. The System IV individual is autonomous and is the most abstract. Interdependent training is the technique supposedly responsible for System IV development. Harvey et al. (1961) described this training as employing environmental programming in which the parental figure serves as an "interpreter of reality rather than as the source of order [p. 124]." As opposed to the unjustified (to the subject) imposition of rules or standards for behavior in unilateral training, the parent of the System IV person explains reality to the child, thus offering the rationale for instrumental behavior. As children, System IV persons are not under the same threats of punishment or rejection as persons of the other systems are. Independent environmental exploration by the individual is encouraged and the parent values the child independent of his success or failure, often utilizing failures in positive ways. The System IV person comes to adapt an internal locus of control of reinforcement (Greaves, 1971d). The parental direction is consistent and stable, providing maximum development in cognitive complexity in interpretation of the environment.

The System IV individual is problem-solution and information oriented; he is most relative in his outlook and interface with his world. As his conceptual system allows for subtle and accurate differentiation, he is also adaptive and integrates new material into his system. He is most able to test reality and relevance, and is more accepting of cognitive dissonance. System IV persons have the least

difficulty in situations of low external structure and certainty (Harvey & Ware, 1967; Harvey et al., 1965). This enables the System IV person to be flexible and open to a variety of alternatives or interpretations (Harvey, 1966b). Generally, these persons seek new and innovative situations and solutions and, as such, are not usually committed to a single set or approach, assuming different rules independent of cultural prescription (Greaves, 1971a).

Just as the System IV individual seeks out variety in his world of situations, he also associates with persons of varied interests and avoids rigid people. However, the System IV person is largely independent from a strong need for friends, as contrasted with the other systems. He is typically tolerant, open and mutually respecting in social situations. He relies more on his own decisions and solutions than he does on those of others, even though his disposition is to utilize the informational input from others. In group situations, the System IV individuals can be seen as "neither indiscriminant yielders to, nor invariant rebels against... authority [Harvey, 1966b, p. 4]." This attribute further distinguishes System IV from the other systems.

Individuals characterized by concrete conceptual systems can be differentiated from those with abstract systems by their reactions to ambiguous situations or situations of low structure. In the absence of highly specific environmental cues, they are forced to rely on their limited ability to adapt and differentiate. Concrete persons characteristically respond to low structure with uneasiness and resort to imposing conventional responses to novel or ambiguous settings. They are, therefore, able to see fewer alternative solutions to problems--

a situation resulting in less adequate solutions.

Low environmental structure is less demanding on the more abstract persons. These persons are characterized by a greater ability to finely differentiate and more completely integrate new material in their environment. This allows the more abstract person to function with less discomfort in low-structured settings. He is more flexible, responds to dissonance with less discomfort, and has more alternatives available to him for the solution of problems.

In his discussion of the effect of person and context on the accuracy of interpersonal perception, Tagiuri (1969) asserted that "Taken separately, then, either the person or the situation allow nonrandom, but indeterminate, judgements. Jointly they yield highly determinate judgments [p. 421]." He further contended that certain situations tend to evoke certain feelings or behaviors and that when the situation is considered, an individual seem to exhibit a behavior which reflects more than one feeling (or attribute), the feeling which is usually evoked in the situation will be the one chosen by the perceiver in his judgment. Jones and Thibaut (1969) support Tagiuri by their contention that when looking at the perception of persons, "we will have to deal with inferences about their behavior in relation to the interaction context [p. 151]."

Those emotions or behaviors which overlap or appear in the person and are evoked by the situation are referred to by Tagiuri (1969) as redundancies. Situations which define the task with greater specificity and evoke a limited range of behaviors should therefore produce more redundancies or cues for accurate perception than more ambiguous situations in which there is little limitation in range of behaviors.

Social situations can be seen to vary according to the specificity of the task undertaken and the range of elicited behaviors. In the light of the differences between concrete and abstract persons in their reaction to situational structure and their ability to productively use minimal external cues (Harvey & Ware, 1967; Harvey et al., 1965), it seemed appropriate to test the accuracy of their interpersonal perception in conditions varying in task specificity. Prior to the present investigation, the Conceptual Systems Theory had not been tested in such a way.

The "This I Believe" Test

Harvey developed the "This I Believe" Test (TIB) (Harvey, 1966a; Harvey, Reich, & Wyer, 1968) to provide a measure for identifying the system level functioning of an individual. The instrument allows the scorer to classify the written responses of an individual into one of the four systems. The responses are made to a number of sentence completion-type referents. The dimensions used as criteria for evaluation or scoring as suggested by Harvey (1966b) are: (1) Absolutism vs. Relativism, (2) Cliché vs Originality, (3) Naiveté vs Awareness, (4) Cynicism vs Criticalness, (5) Sophistication vs Openness, (6) Causality: External vs Internal, (7) Need for Friends: High vs Low, (8) Defensiveness vs Cooperation, and (9) Criterion for Solving Problems.

The Absolutism vs. Relativism dimension is characterized by a conviction of only one true or right way on the absolute end and by pluralistic views and possible alternatives on the relative end. Systems I and II are found to be absolute in responses, while Systems

III and IV are more relative. The chief distinction between System III and System IV is that in the former there is an inclination to view all ways as possible and legitimate. System IV persons may align themselves with a particular way for specified reasons while acknowledging others as possible but perhaps less effective.

Systems I, II, and III rely heavily on clichés, while those of System IV are less dependent on them, utilizing original expressions. The distinction between cliché and originality in this context deals with "catch phrases...and...fresh, novel, or unique statement [Harvey, 1966b, p. 6]."

On the Naiveté vs. Awareness dimension, the systems are divided in a different manner. Both System I and System III suggest a Pollyanna approach, expressing an "everything is just fine" attitude. System II responses show a deep awareness of a multitude of problems, but propose a simple, grand solution for all problems. System IV persons deal with problems and are aware of them, at both the abstract and pragmatic levels, not suggesting an all-encompassing, one-step solution.

In the Cynicism vs. Criticalness dimension, cynicism is steeped with anger or bitterness (negativism). Criticalness is a problem analysis and solution orientation which is characteristic of System IV. Systems I and III are seen as neither cynical nor critical. System II is predominantly cynical.

In Harvey's (1966b) structure, sophistication involves an acceptance of the values and customs of the culture with Systems I and III tending toward sophistication. Openness suggests a tolerance for out-

side goals or values but also inner direction for weighing evidence. System II individuals are rigid non-conformists who are neither open nor sophisticated, unless seen as "anti-sophisticated." System IV persons are open.

Locus of causality, defined as the locus of sources of truth, morality, etc., is external for Systems I and III, though different within the external setting. Causality for System I is often some allpowerful religious construct, while for System III, the locus of causality is usually other people. System II is not only of internal causality, but much emphasis is placed on supporting the internality. Almost invariably System II persons respond in manners which are opposite to those prescribed by the culture. It is as though their locus of causality is determined by external expectations, but mirrored or reversed internally by the individual. System IV locus of causality is internal, with less emphasis or concern for maintaining the image of internality.

Though Systems I, II, and III persons all place high value on friends and friendship, their orientations are different. System I individuals report that having friends is the most important thing in life. Although System II persons value friendship highly, they are cynical toward it, mistrust it, maintaining that it is difficult to establish and easily undermined. To System III persons, friendship is a necessary condition for personal growth and fulfillment. There seems to be no exaggerated need for friends in System IV individuals, but not to the point of rejection. Rather, System IV persons welcome friends, but there is no overriding dependence on friendship.

Cooperation in the TIB context is identified by responding fully to the referents and providing all requested information (especially in group administration). System III and IV persons are cooperative and System I and II persons are defensive. Defensiveness comes in several forms, most often in guarded statements or refusal to respond. Abbreviated statements or short, negative, cursive remarks and denial of the construct also characterize defensiveness.

The last evaluative dimension is Criterion for Solving Problems. The systems are divided into concrete (I and II) and abstract (III and IV). The concrete systems use criteria derived from their value systems, while the abstract systems rely more on information and pragmatics.

With the criteria for scoring now covered (see Table 1), a presentation of the referents is appropriate. Though most of the referents are constant, there is some latitude for particular situations or differing populations. The standard referents are (1) American way of life, (2) Compromise, (3) Education, (4) Religion, (5) Morality, (6) Friendship, (7) Marriage, (8) Religion, (9) People, (10) Guilt. Other referents can be added or substituted to the list of referents, but should be of central importance (high ego involving) to the respondent or subject. Ten referents are usually used.

Although a moderate amount of research on the TIB has been reported, most of it has come from Harvey and his associates (Greaves, 1971). Much of the findings have not made their way to national publications, but can be found in unpublished masters theses and doctoral dissertations and other unpublished manuscripts. Several key findings are to be found in some U.S. Navy Technical reports, by

Harvey and others. Without providing exact figures, Greaves (1971d) reported the TIB to have "high predictive validity and construct validity [p. 56]." Further, interjudge reliability has been found to be .91 among experienced judges, with test-retest reliability from in the high .80s to .94 (Greaves, 1971c, 1971d; Harvey, 1969).

Interpersonal Perception

Research in the area of interpersonal perception has been voluminous and varied in focus. The volume represents, at least in part, the interest value and an assumed day-to-day practical value of the ability to accurately perceive or understand other persons. The focus of study in interpersonal perception has included: (1) the nature of the stimulus object characteristics, (2) the product (accuracy) or process (mechanisms), (3) the identification of good perceivers, and (4) the generality-specificity of the ability to accurately perceive others. Naturally, these focuses are not mutually exclusive and most research involves more than one.

The stimulus object characteristics fall into the two broad areas of emotions and personality traits or characteristics (Hastorf, Schneider, & Polefka, 1970; Tagiuri, 1969; Warr & Knapper, 1968). Historically, emotions in stimulus materials, such as photographs and drawings of persons, appeared first. Tagiuri (1969) suggested, in his review of this area, that the recognizability of emotions depends on the type of stimulus materials, the expressed emotion, the number and kind of judging categories, and the amount of contextual data provided the judge.

TABLE 1

Conceptual Systems Response Characteristics

According to the TIB Evaluation Dimensions

Evaluative Dimension		Conceptual System			
A	B	I	II	III	IV
1. Absolutism	Relativism	A	A	B	B
2. Cliché	Originality	A	A	A	B
3. Naiveté	Awareness	A	B	A	B
4. Cynicism	Criticalness	-	A	-	B
5. Sophistication	Openness	A	B	A	B
6. Causality: External	Internal	A	B	A	B
7. Need for friends: High	Low	A	A	A	B
8. Defensiveness	Cooperative	A	A	B	B
9. Criteria for solving problems: Values	Information	A	A	B	B

The perception of personality traits appeared next and gained the interest of most researchers in the person perception field. However, after a considerable amount of research had been carried out and had yielded equivocal results, several authors indicated their preference for a change toward investigating the process of interpersonal judgment rather than the product (Fiedler, 1958, 1964; Hastorf, Richardson, & Dornbusch, 1958; Tagiuri, 1958; Warr & Knapper, 1968). After taking an extreme process stand, Tagiuri (1969) and others later reasoned that the accuracy of judgment and the process of judgment were not mutually exclusive and that both areas were worthy of study.

The process factors of person perception which are included in the present investigation are cognitive abstractness, and situational structure or specificity of task. Process factors similar to those studied in the present investigation, such as developmental trends, dyad interplay, and the relationship between judge and other were reviewed by Tagiuri (1969).

Related to the investigation of both the process and the accuracy of interpersonal perception are the efforts aimed at identifying the "good judge." Variables such as intelligence and academic ability (Wedek, 1947), amount of training in psychology (Estes, 1938; Wedell & Smith, 1951), self-insight (Norman, 1953), salesmanship (Tobolski & Kerr, 1952), leadership and authoritarian attitudes (Chowdhry & Newcomb, 1952; Crockett & Meidinger, 1956; Scodel & Mussen, 1953), and the attitudes and productivity of employees (Nagle, 1954), as well as others, have been investigated to test for relationships with

accurate perception. Those who have reviewed the research literature dealing with the generality-specificity issue (Bruner & Tagiuri, 1954; Cline, 1964; Taft, 1955) generally concur with Allport's (1939) suggestion that the ability to accurately perceive others should be viewed as more general than specific.

There have been refinements in the notion of a generalized ability which suggest rather specific components. The refinements stem mostly from Cronbach's (1955) work in accuracy measure research. Cronbach identified four components: (1) elevation, (2) differential elevation, (3) stereotype accuracy, and (4) differential accuracy. Since Cronbach's refinements, others have proposed components which closely resemble stereotype accuracy and differential accuracy (Bronfenbrenner, Harding, & Gallway, 1958; Cline & Richards, 1960). Cline (1964) likens the general trait of person perception accuracy to intelligence. Both can be conceptualized as global traits with independent contributing components or sub-traits.

Only 1 of Cronbach's components of accuracy is directly relevant to the current study. The predictive task is clearly one which depends on differential accuracy. Each subject was asked to predict how a particular person would describe him. Stereotype accuracy refers to the knowledge of the norms of the subculture of which the object is a member. That is, stereotype accuracy deals with those attributes of the perceived person which reflect the norms of his particular subculture. In the present study, stereotype accuracy would, at most, affect scores on ISP very indirectly. The individual subject would first have to assess the norms of his own subculture and how much he reflects them, and second, estimate his partner's awareness

of the norms and his ability to accurately perceive them in the subject.

The effects of elevation and differential elevation are controlled by the nature of the predictive task. The actual number of attributes checked was specifically limited so that all subjects checked the same number of interpersonal adjectives or phrases. Differential elevation refers to the differences between individuals in their tendencies to ascribe more or less of a particular attribute to another person. The Interpersonal Checklist allows only for a check or no check for each adjective, leaving no provision for assessing degree of the attribute in the perceived person.

The Interpersonal Checklist (ICL)

Another important concern of those doing research in interpersonal perception involves the sources for deriving criteria against which the perceiver's judgments are compared for accuracy. The three principle sources from which criteria are derived are self-provided information (by the perceived), associate-provided information, and expert-provided information. Researchers are not in agreement about the use of any of the criteria sources, (Hastorf et al., 1970).

For the present investigation of Interpersonal Self-Perception, self-provided information is the only applicable source for deriving criteria. The Interpersonal Checklist (ICL) provided the adjective pool from which the predictions were made and compared in the present study.

The ICL is a 128-item list of adjectives and adjective phrases which represent a sampling of the range of interpersonal attributes. LaForge and Suczek (1955) developed the ICL in response to the need

for a measurement device compatible with Leary's (1957) system of personality diagnosis. It was designed for self-report and report-by-others. The items of the ICL are all interpersonal, the focus of this study, and are representative of Leary's (1957) "sixteen generic interpersonal purposes [p. 135]."

Hypotheses Tested

From the descriptions of the conceptual systems' (and the preceding review) characteristic ways of responding to new situations and differing abilities to utilize environmental cues and to take the role of another, a number of hypotheses were generated. The hypotheses fall into two general categories: (1) ISP Accuracy and (2) Reported Ease. Subcategories in both accuracy and ease hypotheses include: (a) Abstractness, (b) dyad composition, (c) structure level of the experimental situation.

The following hypotheses dealing with ISP accuracy were tested: (1a) Abstract persons, capable of finer cognitive differentiation, flexibility in new settings, greater ability to utilize minimal cues and take the role of another achieve higher ISP accuracy than concrete persons. (1b) Because the task specificity manipulation should evoke different ranges of behaviors and differing amounts of redundancies, ISP accuracy is greater for both abstract and concrete subjects in a highly structured situation than in a low structured situation. (1c) The difference in ISP accuracy between the high and low structured situations is greater for concrete subjects due to their difficulty in adapting to new or novel situations than for abstract subjects.

The following hypotheses regarding reported subject ease were tested: (2a) Abstract subjects, since they typically experience less dissonance and discomfort in new situations, report feeling more at ease than concrete subjects. (2b) Since concrete subjects characteristically avoid persons different from themselves, it was anticipated that these subjects would report more ease in the experiment when working with concrete partners than when working with abstract partners. (2c) Concrete subjects would report more ease in highly structure situations than in low structured situations.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

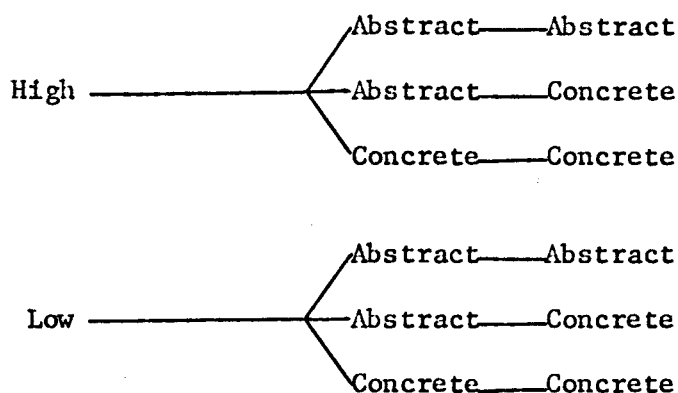
Subjects and Experimental Conditions

Subjects were selected from spring semester undergraduate psychology courses at Loyola University of Chicago. Most subjects were first year level students who received course credit for participation.

Subjects, once assessed for cognitive abstractness, were randomly assigned to same-sex dyads, according to concreteness-abstractness and level of situational structure. Situational structure was defined by the specificity of the experimental task. Specificity of task was determined by the written instructions which were provided for the subject dyads at the beginning of the interactional stage of the study. Concrete subjects were those found to be either System I or System II persons. Abstract subjects were those found to be either System III or System IV persons. Studies testing the differential functioning of abstract and concrete individuals typically select System I persons as representative of concrete functioning and System IV persons as representative of abstract functioning. The inclusion of System II in the concrete group and System III in the abstract group for the present study was to provide for more conservative comparisons between abstract and concrete functioning and to increase sample size. Subjects were assigned to dyads in the following manner:

Situational Structure

Dyad Composition



The total number of subjects was 84, 14 subjects in each experimental condition. The three levels of dyad composition represent the first independent variable (level one, abstract-abstract; level two, abstract-concrete; level three, concrete-concrete). The two levels of situational structure represent the second independent variable (level one, low structure; level two, high structure).

Structure refers to the amount of limitation in the range of behaviors evoked by the specificity of the experimental task which was determined by the experimental instructions. There were two levels of experimental situation structure: (1) High, (2) Low.

Subjects in the high structure situation were instructed, in writing, to read the 3/4 page account of a pre-adolescent boy who presents some serious behavior problems (Shoben, Mowrer, Kimble, Rogers, & Miller, 1962) (See Appendix C). Subjects were further instructed to discuss with each other, for 15 minutes, what should be done to help the boy. At the end of the 15 minutes, the experimenter interrupted the discussion and provided each subject with a blank piece of paper and a pen, so that they could, as instructed, write a 5-sentence paragraph telling what each would do to help the boy. Sub-

jects were given 5 minutes to complete the paragraphs.

Subjects in the low structure situation were presented with brief written instructions concerning getting "to know each other" without any indication as to how to pursue the task. Subjects were informed that they were to take 20 minutes to accomplish their task (See Appendix C).

Procedure

The procedure is divided into two stages: (1) "This I Believe" Test administration and subject selection, and (2) Experimental situations; interaction, prediction and report on partner on ICL, and response to Post-Experimental Questionnaire (PEQ),

Stage 1. The administration of the TIB was done in groups, according to the manner prescribed by Harvey (1966b). The TIB administrator read the standardized instructions aloud as the subjects read along silently. The instructions ask the subjects to write, at a rapid pace, a minimum of three sentences expressing their genuine beliefs about the topics presented (see Appendix A). Once the written instructions were read, the administrator instructed the subjects to respond to the statement "This I believe about (topic)." At the end of the 2 minutes allotted for the completion of the response to each topic, the administrator instructed the subjects to turn the page, and then read aloud the next topic. This procedure was repeated until all 10 topics were presented. All subjects were assured of the confidentiality of their responses. Two raters evaluated the individual TIB protocols independently and achieved an interrater reliability of .92. Those few subjects whose protocols produced disagreement between

raters were excluded from further participation in the experiment.

Stage 2. The duration of the actual experimental situation was 20 minutes, involved strangers (to each other), and was varied according to situational structure.

All experimental interactions were audio recorded with the recording instrument in view of the subjects. Subjects were informed of the recording by the experimenter and the confidentiality of their interactions was assured.

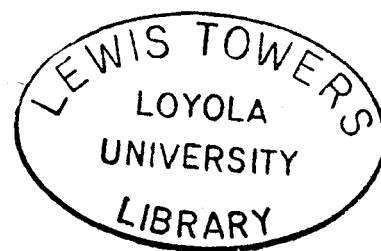
None of the subjects were informed of the predictive task prior to completion of the interaction stage of the study. The procedures of the predictive task and responding to the Post-Experimental Questionnaire (PEQ) were identical for all subjects.

After the experimental situation was completed, the experimenter gave each subject a copy of the Interpersonal Checklist with written instructions to check those adjectives "which you feel to be most descriptive of HOW YOU SEE YOUR PARTNER." (See Appendix B).

When both subjects in each dyad had completed responding, the experimenter collected the checklists and gave each subject a copy of the ICL with instructions to check those adjectives "which you feel to be most descriptive of HOW YOUR PARTNER SEES YOU." With both instructional sets, the instructions directed the subjects to check the appropriate adjectives, count the adjectives checked, and add to or subtract from those checked to total 30.

When both subjects in a dyad had completed both forms of the ICL, they were administered the PEQ, which consisted of 10 semantic differential type items with 7 choice points for subject evaluation (See Appendix D). The first 5 items dealt with the subject's comfort

with his partner and with their interaction. The second 5 items dealt with comfort in the experimental situation. To control for response set, the item comfort-discomfort direction was varied. For 6 items, a response of "6" indicated comfort, for 2 items "6" indicated discomfort, and for 2 items, "0" and "6" indicated discomfort with "3" indicating comfort.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

To evaluate the hypotheses advanced in the study, the data were submitted to separate 3 by 2 by 2 analyses of variance for each of the dependent variables: (1) ISP Accuracy, (2) The 10 Ease Items. When indicated by significant F values, comparisons on treatment means were applied to further investigate specific sources of variance. The results of those analyses are presented by hypothesis, in this chapter.

In the analyses of variance, three independent variables were investigated. The first variable was Dyad Composition, with three levels: (1) abstract-abstract, (2) abstract-concrete, and (3) concrete-concrete. The second variable, Situation Structure, had 2 levels: (1) low structure and (2) high structure. A two level third variable, Member, was included so that the abstract-concrete dyad composition could be further analyzed: (1) abstract, and (2) concrete.

Hypotheses for Interpersonal Self-Perception

The first major group of hypotheses to be tested in the study included three minor hypotheses under the general category of ISP Accuracy. ISP accuracy was determined by comparing the adjectives checked off on the ICL by each subject and his partner. The forms of the ICL compared were the subject's "HOW YOUR PARTNER SEES YOU" and the partner's "HOW YOU SEE YOUR PARTNER." The number of matching adjectives or phrases checked was tabulated and used as the ISP accuracy measure.

Each subject's responses to the PEQ were recorded directly from the form.

A 3 by 2 by 2 analysis of variance, with number of matching adjectives or phrases checked as the ISP Accuracy measure and dependent variable, was performed to test the hypotheses in this category. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 2. Table 3 contains the treatment means.

Hypothesis 1a. It was predicted that the more abstract persons would achieve greater ISP Accuracy than the more concrete persons. As indicated in Table 2, the effect of subject abstractness is significant beyond the .001 level of significance. To further analyze this main effect, a comparison of treatment means was applied. The abstract persons in the abstract-concrete condition were pooled with the other abstract persons to provide an overall ISP Accuracy mean for the abstract subjects. The same pooling was done for the concrete subjects to provide their overall mean. The comparison of treatment means yielded a $t = 5.99$, which is significant, for a one-tailed test, at beyond the .005 level of significance, further supporting the hypothesis that abstract persons achieve greater ISP Accuracy. That is, abstract persons did a better job of estimating how they were perceived by their partners.

Hypothesis 1b. The second hypothesis concerning ISP Accuracy to be tested was that for both abstract and concrete persons, greater ISP Accuracy would be achieved in the high structure situation than in the low structure situation. As indicated in Table 3, the ISP

TABLE 2
Analysis of Variance:
Interpersonal Self-Perception Accuracy

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	55.76	7.89*
Situation Structure (S)	1	16.30	2.31
Member (M)	1	6.30	.89
AxS	2	2.48	.35
AxM	2	8.61	1.22
SxM	1	0.12	.00
AxSxM	2	3.19	.45
Error	72	7.07	

* $p < .001$

TABLE 3
 Interpersonal Self-Perception Accuracy Means
 According to Dyad Composition
 and Situation Structure Level

Structure Level	Dyad Composition			
	A-A	A	C	C-C
Low	15.79	14.57	12.29	12.57
High	16.00	15.43	14.14	13.64

a Abstract in abstract-concrete dyad composition

b Concrete in abstract-concrete dyad composition

Accuracy means increase consistently from low structure to high structure for both abstract and concrete subjects as predicted. However, the effect of structure failed to reach an acceptable level of statistical significance.

Hypothesis 1c. The data indicate that the Dyad Composition-by-situation structure interaction failed to reach significance (Table 2). The difference in ISP Accuracy as affected by situational structure was greater for concrete persons than for abstract persons, as predicted, but the differences did not reach an acceptable level of significance (See Table 3). The mean difference for the concrete persons was +1.46 and the mean difference for the abstract persons, was +.53.

Hypotheses for Reported Subject Ease in Experiment

The second major group of hypotheses advanced dealt with subject ease in the experimental situation. Ten separate analyses of variance were performed to test the three hypotheses: (1) that abstract persons report more ease than concrete persons, (2) that concrete subjects report more ease in the experiment when working with other concrete subjects as partners than with abstract persons as partners, (3) that concrete subjects report more ease in the high structure situation than in the low structure situation.

Hypothesis 2a. For 8 of the 10 items of the PEQ, illustrated in Table 4, the abstract subjects reported more ease. Five of those 8 items differentiated the abstract subjects from the concrete subjects and supported the hypothesis at or beyond the .01 level of significance. Two items yielded results which were contradictory, but not significant-

TABLE 4
Mean Ratings According to Dyad Composition,
Situation Structure, and PEQ Item

PEQ Item	Dyad Composition and Situation Structure							
	A-A		A ^d		- C ^e		C-C	
	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High
1. 'Same partner' ^a	5.57	4.74	5.14	5.00	3.86	5.14	4.64	4.86
2. 'Someone else' ^b	1.07	2.64	1.57	2.57	2.71	1.86	2.29	2.43
3. 'Smooth' ^a	5.79	4.21	4.14	4.43	4.00	5.14	4.29	4.07
4. 'Encouraging' ^b	.64	1.93	1.43	2.14	1.29	2.00	2.21	2.36
5. 'Depth' ^a	4.00	3.64	3.29	3.57	2.00	2.86	2.86	3.00
6. 'Detail' ^c	3.86	3.29	3.14	3.43	3.71	2.71	3.29	2.64
7. 'Rewarding' ^a	4.93	3.86	4.14	4.00	3.43	3.57	4.00	3.29
8. 'Structured' ^c	3.93	3.50	3.14	3.57	3.00	3.14	3.29	3.50
9. 'Relaxed' ^a	5.07	4.71	4.43	5.00	4.43	3.86	3.57	3.43
10. 'Comforting' ^a	4.79	4.14	4.29	4.00	3.71	4.14	3.71	3.50

^aEase increases from 0 to 6.

^bEase increased from 6 to 0.

^cEase is highest at 3, then drops to 0 and 6.

^dAbstract in abstract-concrete dyad composition.

^eConcrete in abstract-concrete dyad composition.

ly so, to the hypotheses. Table 5 shows the ease means by dyad composition and situation structure for all PEQ items. Tables 6 through 15 show the results of the individual analyses of variance performed for each PEQ item.

When asked if they would be willing to work with their partners, should the study be extended in the future (PEQ item 1), both abstract and concrete subjects indicated that they would be more willing than not ($\bar{x} = 4.67$, see Tables 4, 5, and 6). The abstract subjects were more affirmative than were the concrete subjects, as predicted, but the difference was not significant.

All subjects were asked in PEQ item 2 whether they could have worked better with someone other than their partner (compared with their partners). The results in Tables 4, 5, and 7 indicated both abstract and concrete subjects responded negatively with the abstracts slightly, but not significantly, more negative (in favor of their partners) than the concrete subjects.

The significant overall F value for dyad composition in the analysis of variance for PEQ item 3 (Table 8) justified a test on comparison of means. The results of that test (see Table 5) suggested that though both abstract and concrete subjects felt their interactions with their partners were smooth as opposed to awkward, the abstract subjects reported more "smoothness" ($p < .01$) than did the concrete subjects.

Item 4 of the PEQ required subjects to indicate whether they felt discouraged or encouraged by their partners. This item also differentiated abstract subjects from concrete subjects. The analysis of variance shown in Table 9 yielded a significant F value for dyad

TABLE 5
Mean Ratings and Differences
Between Means According to Subject
Abstractness and PEQ Item Number

PEQ Item Number	Subject Abstractness		Difference Between Means	df	t
	Abstract	Concrete			
1. Same partner	5.14	4.67	.67		
2. Someone else	1.93	2.33	-.41		
3. Smooth	4.76	4.30	.46	72	2.48*
4. Encouraging	1.45	2.07	-.62	72	3.28**
5. Depth	3.71	2.76	.95	72	4.24**
6. Detail	3.48	3.05	.44		
7. Rewarding	4.29	3.60	.70		
8. Structured	3.59	3.29	.31		
9. Relaxed	4.69	3.71	.97	72	4.32***
10. Comforting	4.36	3.71	.64	72	3.35**

* $p < .01$., one-tailed test

** $p < .005$., one-tailed test

*** $p < .0005$., one-tailed test

TABLE 6
Analysis of Variance:
PEQ Item 1
"Work with same partner"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	1.58	1.06
Situation Structure (S)	1	.00	.00
Member (M)	1	3.05	2.04
AxS	2	3.46	2.31
AxM	2	.76	.51
SxM	1	3.73	2.49
AxSxM	2	1.50	
Error	72		

TABLE 7
 Analysis of Variance:
 PEQ Item 2
 "Better with someone else"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	1.79	.76
Situation Structure (S)	1	7.44	3.14*
Member (M)	1	6.29	2.66
AxS	2	5.01	2.12
AxM	2	12.15	5.13**
SxM	1	.96	.41
AxSxM	2	11.17	4.72**
Error	72		

* $p \leq .10$.

** $p \leq .05$.

TABLE 8
 Analysis of Variance:
 PEQ Item 3
 "Awkward-smooth"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	4.96	4.26**
Situation Structure (S)	1	2.68	2.30
Member (M)	1	.12	.01
AxS	2	9.25	7.93***
AxM	2	3.73	3.19*
SxM	1	.96	.83
AxSxM	2	3.68	3.15*
Error	72		

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .025$.

*** $p < .001$.

TABLE 9

Analysis of Variance:

PEQ Item 4

"Encouraging-discouraging"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	7.05	4.70*
Situation Structure (S)	1	10.71	7.14**
Member (M)	1	2.33	1.56
AxS	2	2.29	1.52
AxM	2	6.33	4.22*
SxM	1	.19	.13
AxSxM	2	2.33	1.56
Error	72	1.50	

* $p < .025$

** $p < .01$

TABLE 10
 Analysis of Variance:
 PEQ Item 5
 "Superficial-in-depth"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	7.44	3.56*
Situation Structure (S)	1	.30	.14
Member (M)	1	11.44	5.47**
AxS	2	1.51	.72
AxM	2	.58	.28
SxM	1	3.44	1.65
AxSxM	2	2.94	1.41
Error	72		

* $p < .05$

** $p < .025$

TABLE 11

Analysis of Variance:

PEQ Item 6

"Not enough detail-too specific"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	2.58	2.44
Situation Structure (S)	1	5.76	5.44*
Member (M)	1	1.19	1.12
AxS	2	.16	.15
AxM	2	.16	.15
SxM	1	1.39	.41
AxSxM		1.06	1.32
Error			

* $p < .025$

TABLE 12
 Analysis of Variance:
 PEQ Item 7
 "Waste-rewarding"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	4.44	2.46*
Situation Structure (S)	1	7.44	4.12**
Member (M)	1	8.68	4.81**
AxS	2	2.08	1.15
AxM	2	.11	.06
SxM	1	1.44	.80
AxSxM	2	1.94	1.08
Error	72	1.81	

* $p \leq .10$

** $p \leq .05$

TABLE 13

Analysis of Variance:

PEQ Item 8

"Not structured-too structured"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	1.80	1.90
Situation Structure (S)	1	.12	.01
Member (M)	1	.12	.01
AxS	2	1.08	1.14
AxM	2	.73	.77
SxM	1	.12	.01
AxSxM	2	.58	.62
Error	72	.95	

TABLE 14
 Analysis of Variance:
 PEQ Item 9
 "Nervous-relaxed"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	14.08	6.66*
Situation Structure (S)	1	.58	.28
Member (M)	1	5.25	2.48
AxS	2	.23	.11
AxM	2	1.11	.52
SxM	1	.12	.01
AxSxM	2	1.87	.88
Error	72	2.12	

* $p < .005$

TABLE 15
 Analysis of Variance:
 PEQ Item 10
 "Threatening-comforting"

Source	df	MS	F
Dyad Composition (A)	2	5.14	3.33*
Situation Structure (S)	1	1.44	.93
Member (M)	1	2.68	1.74
AxS	2	.91	.59
AxM	2	.14	.09
SxM	1	.11	.07
AxSxM	2	.57	.37
Error	72	1.54	

* $p < .05$

composition. The test on comparison of means (Table 5) indicated that the difference was significant at the .005 level. While abstract and concrete subjects reported feeling encouraged by their partners, the abstract subjects reported feeling more so.

Subjects were asked on item 5 of the PEQ to assess the depth of their interactions with their partners. Concrete subject reported that their interactions were slightly more superficial than in-depth and abstract subjects reported theirs to be somewhat more in-depth than superficial. The difference between the responses of abstract subjects and those of concrete subjects reached the .005 level of significance in a test based on the comparison of treatment means (see Tables 5 and 10).

Items 6, 7, and 8 of the PEQ failed to differentiate the abstract subjects from the concrete subjects at acceptable levels of significance, as shown in Tables 4, 5, 11, 12 and 13. Abstract subjects reported that the experimental instructions were slightly too detailed and the concrete subjects reported that the instructions were slightly lacking in detail. Participation in the experiment was somewhat rewarding to both abstract and concrete subjects, with abstract subjects responding more positively than the concrete subjects. Both groups of subjects indicated that the experiment was a little too structured. The concrete subjects reported less dissatisfaction with the structure than did the abstract subjects.

Both groups of subjects reported being more relaxed than nervous during the experiment. The abstract subjects reported being more relaxed than did the concrete subjects ($p < .0005$). The data for PEQ item 9 are presented in Tables 5 and 14.

The subjects were asked to assess the experiment on the dimension of "threatening-comforting" (PEQ item 10). Abstract subjects indicated more comfort than did concrete subjects ($p < .005$, Table 15), though both groups reported the experiment was more comforting than threatening.

Hypothesis 2b. It was predicted that concrete subjects would report more comfort in the experimental situation when working with other concrete subjects than when working with abstract subjects. None of the analyses of the PEQ items yielded results reaching acceptable levels of statistical significance. The data for every PEQ item except the "encouraging-discouraging" item showed a trend in the direction contrary to the hypothesis (Table 4). Since dyad composition-by-member interaction yielded significant F values for PEQ items 2, 3, and 4, (Tables 8, 9, and 10), tests of comparisons of means were applied. No difference between means relating to the hypothesis reached significance.

Hypothesis 2c. It was anticipated that concrete subjects in the high structure condition would report more ease than concrete subjects in the low structure condition. Four of the 5 PEQ items dealing specifically with comfort with the subjects' partners showed results in the predicted direction, though none reached statistical significance (Table 4). Since the dyad composition-by-member-by-situation structure interaction yielded significant F values for PEQ items 2 and 3 (Tables 7 and 8), tests of comparisons of means were used. Neither test achieved significance. Concrete subjects reported less encouragement when working with their partners in the high structure situation than in the low structure situation.

Table 4 reveals that in the high structure condition, 3 of the 5 items of the PEQ dealing with situationstructure were answered by concrete subjects in the direction opposite of that which was predicted. However, none of the 3 items reached significance in their analyses. Item 6, which questioned the subjects about their satisfaction with the experimental instructions, was answered by the concrete subjects more favorably in the high structure situation. The magnitude of the difference failed to reach significance. The concrete subjects reported being neither more threatened nor more comforted in the high structure condition than in the low structure condition.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study was implemented with the purpose of further investigating the Conceptual Systems Theory of Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961) and of testing for relationships between cognitive concreteness-abstractness and certain areas of interpersonal competence. Implications of the results of the study are presented in this chapter.

It has been demonstrated that after actual social interaction of a limited duration and in differently structured situations, the concreteness-abstractness dimension is an important factor in the accuracy of interpersonal perception. It should be noted here that given random checking of 30 interpersonal adjectives on the ICL by two partners, the number of matching adjectives (ISP accuracy measure) by chance alone would be 7. The results in all conditions in the study suggest that the level of performance differed significantly from chance ($\bar{x} = 14.37$, $z = 25.41$, $p < .001$).

The particular type of interpersonal perception investigated, Interpersonal Self-Perception, seemingly requires a cognitive flexibility allowing an individual to "step away" from himself and "look back" through the "eyes" of another. That the more abstract persons achieved greater ISP accuracy ($p < .001$) supports earlier findings of their superior roletaking abilities (Harvey, 1963a, 1966a; Harvey & Kline, 1965).

The limited duration of the interpersonal contact in the study (20 minutes) limited the number of cues available to the participants for use in the predictive task. That the more abstract subjects achieved greater ISP accuracy after such short contact with a stranger lends support to earlier claims for their greater use of minimal cues from the environment (Harvey, 1966a), and finer differentiation (Harvey, Wyer, & Hautaluoma, 1963).

Accurate awareness of the social impact of the self on others suggests potential for other capabilities. The individual who knows his social impact has data from which he can evaluate his efforts to monitor and alter his social image and perhaps others' impressions of him and behaviors toward him. The individual is potentially capable of knowing, more precisely, "where he stands" with others and can move through his social world with an increased sense of social assuredness and with less risk of frustration from unfulfilled expectations. It becomes apparent that if the possibilities mentioned are realized, the more abstract individuals can see themselves as instrumental in their lives. This assumption is, to some extent, supported by the internal locus of control of reinforcement of the more abstract persons (Greaves, 1971d).

The failure of the effect of situational structure to reach significance on ISP accuracy suggests some possible problems in the manipulation of this variable. There was an effect in the predicted direction. Situational structure was expected to be positively related to accuracy. The first possible problem of the manipulation which could have minimized the structure effect may be the focuses of the two tasks. The low structure task was person and interaction oriented.

Subjects, though not told how, were instructed to "get to know each other." This instructional set may have directed the interaction toward a more direct exchange of attributes. The high structure situation, regarding the interaction over a problem case, may have influenced the participants toward a problem-solution orientation and away from personal influence and attributes.

In the manipulation of situational structure, caution should be exercised to minimize the influence of differing instructions. The instructions could be varied in detail rather than in both detail and task or focus. For example, it may be possible to vary the "get to know each other" condition of the present study by instructing some subjects to follow a provided written interview outline. Other subjects might be given only the instructions given to the subjects of the reported experiment.

Another explanation of the failure of the results of situational structure to reach significance may be derived from the symmetry and reciprocity conditions described by Taft, Sarbin, and Bailey (1960). Reciprocity and symmetry are discussed by Taft et al. in relation to interaction involving some form of planned assessment, but may be applied to the current problem, which has its assessment aspects. Reciprocity refers to the degree of mutual contribution in the give-and-take of interaction. The reciprocal condition is that in which the behavior of one party occurs in response to that of the other. Symmetry refers to the relative reciprocity of both parties in the interaction. An example of one type of reciprocal condition is that in which the object (assessee) behaves reciprocally and the observer (assessor) does not. This is an asymmetrically reciprocal condition

and it is this type which provides the greatest information value of elicited cues for inference. There are several combinations of reciprocity and symmetry, each combination with its own range of cue information value. In the current study, the manipulation of task specificity may have allowed for considerable variation of reciprocity and symmetry in both high and low structure situations, so that the variations in these two variables may have minimized the structure effect. Further studies involving situational structure and predictive accuracy would do well to take reciprocity and symmetry into account.

The comments about social impact awareness and social assuredness provide some direction for discussing the findings in connection with the hypothesis that abstract persons would report greater ease in the experiment. Indeed, the results tend to lend some support to the contentions about social assuredness and less risk of frustration in the more abstract persons. The abstract subjects reported their interaction to be more smooth, more encouraging, and more in-depth than did the concrete participants. With regard to the experimental situation, abstract subjects reported it as more relaxed and more comfortable than did the concrete subjects. When entering new situations, abstract individuals bring with them an adaptive cognitive structure which enables them to function with minimal dissonance and with little discomfort.

It was anticipated, in recognition of the concrete subjects' hesitance to venture into relationships with persons who are more open-minded and novelty-seeking and their preference for others like themselves, that the concrete subjects would report more comfort with

other concrete subjects as partners than with abstract subjects as partners. The results indicated a trend, though not significant, in the direction opposite to that predicted.

Concrete subjects reported more ease with their partners and with the experimental situation in the abstract-concrete condition than in the concrete-concrete condition. Since concrete persons are more dependent on authority figures, especially in a new situation, and since abstract persons are more autonomous, it may have been that the abstract persons were seen by their concrete partners as authorities of some sort. When with concrete partners, who are also seeking established reference points in a new situation with little direction, concrete subjects may have felt relatively "lost" or without appropriate rules to follow. These conditions, known to cause discomfort to concrete individuals, may have been accentuated by another anxious person with whom the concrete subject must interact.

Since concrete individuals have been shown to respond to situations of low environmental structure with dissonance and discomfort (Harvey, 1965, 1966b; Harvey & Ware, 1967; Harvey et al., 1965), it was predicted that concrete subjects would report more ease in high structure conditions than in low structure conditions. The hypothesis was not supported. It would seem that in a situation in which interaction is secondary to the main task, though necessary for task accomplishment, concrete subjects report feeling at ease with their partners. However, in that same situation, if the problem seriously challenges the integrative matrix of the concrete individual, he may experience some discomfort with the experimental task. In the study,

3 of the 5 items on the PEQ which dealt with structure of task yielded nonsignificant results opposite to what was predicted. The low structure task posed little or no threat to the concrete subjects and may have been less ambiguous than was anticipated. The comments regarding structure and ISP accuracy are likely to have application to these particular ease variables.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY

The cognitive concreteness-abstractness dimension of the Conceptual Systems Theory (Harvey et al., 1961) provides for the identification of an individual's integrative style and competence level. Of the four conceptual systems proposed, two are more concrete and two are more abstract. Concrete persons have been found to differ from abstract persons in their role-taking ability and in the ease with which they face new or low structured situations. The present study sought to test for the relationships between cognitive abstractness and two measures of social competence in low structure and high structured task situations. The areas of social competence were: (1) Interpersonal Self-Perception (ISP), (2) Ease in the experimental situation.

It was hypothesized that with regard to ISP Accuracy: (1a) abstract subjects would achieve greater accuracy than concrete subjects, (1b) accuracy would be greater in the high structure task situation than in the low structure task, and (1c) the difference in accuracy between high and low structure would be greater for concrete subjects. The hypotheses concerning subject ease in the experimental setting were: (2a) that abstract subjects would report more ease than would concrete subjects, (2b) concrete subjects would report more ease with other concrete subjects as partners than with abstract subjects as

partners, (2c) concrete subjects would report more ease in the high structure situation than in the low structure situation.

Subjects were selected from undergraduate psychology classes at Loyola University of Chicago by means of the "This I Believe" Test, and were randomly assigned to same-sex dyads according to concreteness-abstractness (concrete, Systems I and II; abstract, Systems III and IV). Dyad composition and task structure were manipulated and varied so that 14 subjects participated in each one of the two levels of task structure (low, high) and one of the three levels of dyad composition (abstract-abstract, abstract-concrete, concrete-concrete). Eighty-four subjects participated in the interaction stage of the study. In the low structure condition, subjects were instructed to "get to know each other" and in the high structure condition, subjects were instructed to discuss intervention methods for a behavior problem "case."

After interaction, subjects were instructed to check no more and no less than 30 items on the Interpersonal Checklist which described: (a) "HOW YOU SEE YOUR PARTNER" and (b) "HOW YOUR PARTNER SEES YOU." ICL protocols were paired to get each subject's ISP Accuracy, defined as the number of matching checked items. A Post-Experimental Questionnaire (PEQ) was presented, containing 10 ease items of the semantic differential style.

Separate 2 by 2 by 2 analyses of variance were performed for ISP Accuracy and the 10 ease items. When permitted, comparisons of treatment means were made. Results indicated that: hypothesis 1a was supported ($p < .005$), and hypothesis 2a was supported by 5 of the 10 ease items at or beyond the .01 level of significance. Hypotheses 1b and 1c were not supported, but the results were in the predicted

direction. Neither hypothesis 2a nor 2b was supported.

Results were discussed and implications were drawn. Recommendations regarding consideration of reciprocity and symmetry in future studies manipulating task structure and situational structure were offered.

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APPENDIX A

The "This I Believe" Test

OPINION SURVEY

Name _____

Age _____

I.D. # _____

Sex _____

Date _____

(Page 1)

INSTRUCTIONS

In the following pages you will be asked to write your opinions or beliefs about several topics. Please write at least three (3) sentences about each topic. You will be timed on each topic at a pace that will make it necessary for you to work rapidly.

Be sure to write what you genuinely believe.

You must write on the topics in the order of their appearance. Wait to turn each page until the person in charge gives the signal. And once you have turned the page, do not turn back to it.

PLEASE DO NOT OPEN THIS BOOKLET UNTIL YOU ARE INSTRUCTED TO DO SO

(Page 2)

1. The American way of life (Page 3)
2. Compromise (Page 4)
3. Education (Page 5)
4. Religion (Page 6)
5. Morality (Page 7)
6. Friendship (Page 8)
7. Marriage (Page 9)
8. Foreign Aid (Page 10)
9. Guilt (Page 11)
10. People (Page 12)

APPENDIX B

INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST (MI)

Name _____

Date _____

Related to the way in which a person will deal with other persons is his way of interpreting the situation and other persons' feelings and attributes. Below is a list of adjectives and adjective phrases. Please check off (✓) those which you feel to be most descriptive of HOW YOU SEE YOUR PARTNER. Once you have finished checking, count the number of adjectives checked. If your total is less than thirty (30), go through the list again to add appropriate adjectives to make thirty. If your total is more than thirty, go through the adjectives and cross off (✗) those adjectives which you feel can be dropped until you have thirty. Please be aware that the focus of the study is your assessment. The number of adjectives, however, must be held constant, so that the results may be more interpretable.

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Acts important | <input type="checkbox"/> Able to criticize self | <input type="checkbox"/> Able to take care of self |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Apologetic | <input type="checkbox"/> Able to doubt others | <input type="checkbox"/> Admires and imitates others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Appreciative | <input type="checkbox"/> Able to give orders | <input type="checkbox"/> Affectionate and understanding |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bitter | <input type="checkbox"/> Accepts advice readily | <input type="checkbox"/> Always pleasant and agreeable |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Boastful | <input type="checkbox"/> Agrees with everyone | <input type="checkbox"/> Big-hearted and unselfish |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bossy | <input type="checkbox"/> Always ashamed of self | <input type="checkbox"/> Can be frank and honest |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Businesslike | <input type="checkbox"/> Always giving advice | <input type="checkbox"/> Can be strict if necessary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Complaining | <input type="checkbox"/> Can be obedient | <input type="checkbox"/> Can be indifferent to others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Considerate | <input type="checkbox"/> Clinging vine | <input type="checkbox"/> Can complain if necessary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cooperative | <input type="checkbox"/> Cold and unfeeling | <input type="checkbox"/> Eager to get along with others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dependent | <input type="checkbox"/> Critical of others | <input type="checkbox"/> Egotistical and conceited |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dictatorial | <input type="checkbox"/> Cruel and unkind | <input type="checkbox"/> Enjoys taking care of others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dominating | <input type="checkbox"/> Distrusts everybody | <input type="checkbox"/> Expects everyone to admire him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Easily fooled | <input type="checkbox"/> Easily embarrassed | <input type="checkbox"/> Frequently disappointed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Easily led | <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages others | <input type="checkbox"/> Hardboiled when necessary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Firm but just | <input type="checkbox"/> Fond of everyone | <input type="checkbox"/> Hardly ever talks back |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Forceful | <input type="checkbox"/> Forgives anything | <input type="checkbox"/> Impatient with others' mistakes |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Friendly | <input type="checkbox"/> Frequently angry | <input type="checkbox"/> Lets others make decisions |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Good leader | <input type="checkbox"/> Friendly all the time | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes to be taken care of |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Grateful | <input type="checkbox"/> Generous to a fault | <input type="checkbox"/> Makes a good impression |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hard-hearted | <input type="checkbox"/> Gives freely of self | <input type="checkbox"/> Often helped by others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Helpful | <input type="checkbox"/> Hard to impress | <input type="checkbox"/> Overprotective of others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Independent | <input type="checkbox"/> Kind and reassuring | <input type="checkbox"/> Passive and unaggressive |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Irritable | <input type="checkbox"/> Lacks self-confidence | <input type="checkbox"/> Proud and self-satisfied |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Jealous | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes everybody | <input type="checkbox"/> Rebels against everything |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Meek | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes responsibility | <input type="checkbox"/> Self-reliant and assertive |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Modest | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes to compete | <input type="checkbox"/> Shrewd and calculating |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Often admired | <input type="checkbox"/> Loves everyone | <input type="checkbox"/> Slow to forgive a wrong |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Often gloomy | <input type="checkbox"/> Manages others | <input type="checkbox"/> Sociable and neighborly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Outspoken | <input type="checkbox"/> Obeys willingly | <input type="checkbox"/> Spoils people with kindness |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Resentful | <input type="checkbox"/> Often unfriendly | <input type="checkbox"/> Straightforward and direct |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sarcastic | <input type="checkbox"/> Oversympathetic | <input type="checkbox"/> Too easily influenced by friends |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Self-confident | <input type="checkbox"/> Resents being bossed | <input type="checkbox"/> Too lenient |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Selfish | <input type="checkbox"/> Respected by others | <input type="checkbox"/> Too willing to give in to others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Self-seeking | <input type="checkbox"/> Self-respecting | <input type="checkbox"/> Tries to be too successful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Self-punishing | <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat snobbish | <input type="checkbox"/> Tries to comfort everyone |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Shy | <input type="checkbox"/> Stern but fair | <input type="checkbox"/> Trusting and eager to please |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Skeptical | <input type="checkbox"/> Thinks only of himself | <input type="checkbox"/> Very anxious to be approved of |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Spineless | <input type="checkbox"/> Touchy and easily hurt | <input type="checkbox"/> Very respectful to authority |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Stubborn | <input type="checkbox"/> Usually gives in | <input type="checkbox"/> Wants everyone to like him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Tender | <input type="checkbox"/> Wants everyone's love | <input type="checkbox"/> Will confide in anyone |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Timid | <input type="checkbox"/> Wants to be led | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Warm | <input type="checkbox"/> Well thought of | |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Will believe anyone | |

INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST (MII)

Name _____

Date _____

Related to the way in which a person will deal with other persons is his way of interpreting the situation and other persons' feelings and attributes. Below is a list of adjectives and adjective phrases. Please check off (✓) those which you feel to be most descriptive of HOW YOUR PARTNER SEES YOU. Once you have finished checking, count the number of adjectives checked. If your total is less than thirty, go through the list again to add appropriate adjective to make thirty. If your total is more than thirty, go through the adjectives and cross off (✗) those adjectives you feel can be dropped until you have thirty. Please be aware that the focus of the study is your assessment. The number of adjectives, however, must be held constant, so that the results may be more interpretable.

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Acts important | <input type="checkbox"/> Able to criticize self | <input type="checkbox"/> Able to take care of self |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Apologetic | <input type="checkbox"/> Able to doubt others | <input type="checkbox"/> Admires and imitates others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Appreciative | <input type="checkbox"/> Able to give orders | <input type="checkbox"/> Affectionate and understanding |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bitter | <input type="checkbox"/> Accents advice readily | <input type="checkbox"/> Always pleasant and agreeable |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Boastful | <input type="checkbox"/> Agrees with everyone | <input type="checkbox"/> Big-hearted and unselfish |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bossy | <input type="checkbox"/> Always ashamed of self | <input type="checkbox"/> Can be frank and honest |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Businesslike | <input type="checkbox"/> Always giving advice | <input type="checkbox"/> Can be strict if necessary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Complaining | <input type="checkbox"/> Can be obedient | <input type="checkbox"/> Can be indifferent to others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Considerate | <input type="checkbox"/> Clinging vine | <input type="checkbox"/> Can complain if necessary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cooperative | <input type="checkbox"/> Cold and unfeeling | <input type="checkbox"/> Eager to get along with others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dependent | <input type="checkbox"/> Critical of others | <input type="checkbox"/> Egotistical and conceited |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dictatorial | <input type="checkbox"/> Cruel and unkind | <input type="checkbox"/> Enjoys taking care of others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dominating | <input type="checkbox"/> Distrusts everybody | <input type="checkbox"/> Expects everyone to admire him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Easily fooled | <input type="checkbox"/> Easily embarrassed | <input type="checkbox"/> Frequently disappointed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Easily led | <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages others | <input type="checkbox"/> Hardboiled when necessary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Firm but just | <input type="checkbox"/> Fond of everyone | <input type="checkbox"/> Hardly ever talks back |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Forceful | <input type="checkbox"/> Forgives anything | <input type="checkbox"/> Impatient with other's mistakes |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Friendly | <input type="checkbox"/> Frequently angry | <input type="checkbox"/> Lets others make decisions |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Good leader | <input type="checkbox"/> Friendly all the time | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes to be taken care of |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Grateful | <input type="checkbox"/> Generous to a fault | <input type="checkbox"/> Makes a good impression |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hard-hearted | <input type="checkbox"/> Gives freely of self | <input type="checkbox"/> Often helped by others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Helpful | <input type="checkbox"/> Hard to impress | <input type="checkbox"/> Overprotective of others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Independent | <input type="checkbox"/> Kind and reassuring | <input type="checkbox"/> Passive and unaggressive |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Irritable | <input type="checkbox"/> Lacks self-confidence | <input type="checkbox"/> Proud and self-satisfied |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Jealous | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes everybody | <input type="checkbox"/> Rebels against everything |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Meek | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes responsibility | <input type="checkbox"/> Self-reliant and assertive |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Modest | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes to compete | <input type="checkbox"/> Shrewd and calculating |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Often admired | <input type="checkbox"/> Loves everyone | <input type="checkbox"/> Slow to forgive a wrong |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Often gloomy | <input type="checkbox"/> Manages others | <input type="checkbox"/> Sociable and neighborly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Outspoken | <input type="checkbox"/> Obeys to willingly | <input type="checkbox"/> Spoils people with kindness |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Resentful | <input type="checkbox"/> Often unfriendly | <input type="checkbox"/> Straightforward and direct |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sarcastic | <input type="checkbox"/> Oversympathetic | <input type="checkbox"/> Too easily influenced by friends |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Self-confident | <input type="checkbox"/> Resents being bossed | <input type="checkbox"/> Too lenient |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Selfish | <input type="checkbox"/> Respected by others | <input type="checkbox"/> Too willing to give in to others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Self-seeking | <input type="checkbox"/> Self-respecting | <input type="checkbox"/> Tries to be too successful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Self-punishing | <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat snobbish | <input type="checkbox"/> Tries to comfort everyone |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Shy | <input type="checkbox"/> Stern but fair | <input type="checkbox"/> Trusting and eager to please |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Skeptical | <input type="checkbox"/> Thinks only of himself | <input type="checkbox"/> Very anxious to be approved of |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Spineless | <input type="checkbox"/> Touchy and easily hurt | <input type="checkbox"/> Very respectful to authority |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Stubborn | <input type="checkbox"/> Usually gives in | <input type="checkbox"/> Wants everyone to like him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Tender | <input type="checkbox"/> Wants everyone's love | <input type="checkbox"/> Will confide in anyone |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Timid | <input type="checkbox"/> Wants to be led | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Warm | <input type="checkbox"/> Well thought of | |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Will believe anyone | |

APPENDIX C

Low Structure Experimental
Instructions

EXPERIMENTAL INSTRUCTIONS (IIM)

For the next twenty (20) minutes, you are to "get to know" each other as well as you can. We realize that it usually takes quite some time to "know" someone. We are encouraging you to approach this task in any way you feel is best.

CASE I-M

High Structure Experimental Instructions

This is the story of Paul, a boy with some problems in living. Please read this account of Paul. Your task in this study is to discuss with each other what you think should be done to help Paul with his problems. After fifteen (15) minutes of discussion, you are to prepare, individually, a 4-5 sentence paragraph telling what you would do to help Paul.

"Paul Moody is a pre-adolescent boy who lives in a crowded urban area with his baby brother, his relatively weak mother, and his dominant, stern father, a foreman at the pottery plant. Paul impresses adults as a quiet, unusually polite youngster, but seems to have a taste for somewhat older delinquents as companions.

Because of the boy's apparent docility and contrition, the understanding policeman in his neighborhood does not arrest him when he is caught with some older children attempting to break into a house. Instead, the officer returns Paul to his father, who seems to regard the event as a personal insult and sharply restricts Paul's activities. Through the agency of the policeman and the local priest, Paul is introduced to a settlement house run by a trained social worker.

At the settlement house, the boy acquires a degree of popularity and admiration as he quickly learns the skills necessary for games and shows his rather extensive talents with tools and handicraft activities. Put in charge of constructing scenery for a play the settlement house is staging, Paul reveals himself as a hard taskmaster, severe in his demands, never satisfied with the way the other children do their jobs, and never appreciative of their efforts. When Paul is called in to talk with the social worker about his relations with others, he is sullen and defensive but, as always, courteous and quiet. During the conversation, the social worker puts the money from the sale of tickets for the play into a drawer of her desk. Later, the funds are discovered missing. All evidence points to theft by Paul.

The psychological counterpoint to the theme of Paul's harsh insistence on high standards in other boys to the point of bullying them is provided by a scene in which he and a friend are shown building a model boat. When Mrs. Moody asks them to move out of the dining room, where they are working, her husband intervenes, shows the boys how to protect the table properly and how to lay out their tools and work, and joins them. He is exacting and strict with them, insisting that they do the job according to the highest standards of workmanship rather than helping them to enjoy their activity.

Finally, Mr. Moody tells the boys to "clean up in five minutes" and goes upstairs to dress for dinner with friends. When he comes down, he finds the boys still engrossed in their work, becomes furiously angry, smashes the boat, and after scolding Paul severely in front of his friend, sends him up to bed.

That night, Paul slips out of the house and runs away. The unfriendly darkness and his sense of loneliness, however, finally impel him to visit the house of another acquaintance. The other boy's parents, surprised to see Paul at so late an hour call the Moodys, who come to pick him up. Mr. Moody, after a quick glance to see that Paul is unhurt, denounces him for having run away, roughly takes him home, and, over the hopeless and ineffective protests of the mother, thrashes him.

Later, when interviewed at the settlement house, Paul finally breaks down, weeps, and confesses that he has tried to run away before. In a conference, the social worker, the priest and the policeman pose the problem of how to understand Paul and to help him to overcome his unhappiness and his anti-social behavior."

APPENDIX D

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Dale A. Brounstein has been read and approved by the following Committee:

Dr. Emil J. Posavac, Chairman
Associate Professor, Psychology, Loyola

Dr. Jeanne M. Foley
Associate Professor, Psychology, Loyola

Dr. Richard A. Maier
Associate Professor, Psychology, Loyola

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

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

June 28, 1974
Date

Emil J. Posavac
Director's Signature