Effects of group therapy on self-actualization and internal-external locus of control as measured by the P.O.I. and the I.-E. scales

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THE EFFECTS OF GROUP THERAPY ON SELF-ACTUALIZATION
AND
INTERNAL-EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL AS MEASURED BY
THE P.O.I. AND THE I.-E. SCALES

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The Effects of Group Therapy on Self-Actualization and Internal-External Locus of Control as Measured by the P.O.I. and I.-E. Scales (116 pp.)

A vast number of the theories regarding self-actualization are supported by numerous empirical studies. To provide further research in relation to self-actualization and group psychotherapy, it is the purpose of this paper to study the effects of the therapeutic group on self-actualization and internal-external locus of control as measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory (P.O.I.) and Rotter's Modified Scale of Internal-External Locus of Control (I.-E. Scale).

On the basis of the available literature dealing with the effects of groups, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis I: The scores and evaluations of the experimental group (therapy group) will change significantly toward the self-actualized pole on the P.O.I.

Hypothesis II: The scores on the I.-E. Scale will change significantly in the direction of a higher score.

Hypothesis III: The P.O.I. scores will change to a greater degree than will the I.-E. scores.

Hypothesis IV: Self-regard scores on the P.O.I. will be among the very lowest attained.

Hypothesis V: Control group scores will not change significantly in either direction on either the P.O.I. or the I.-E. Scale.

In order to evaluate the theories regarding self-actualization, internal-external locus of control and group therapy mentioned in Chapter one of this thesis, two groups were used. Group #1 was a control group, while group #2 was an experimental group receiving group therapy experience. No support was shown for hypotheses I, II and IV; some support was demonstrated for hypothesis III; and full support was given to hypothesis V.

While they cannot be heavily supported through the use of the conventional statistical instruments, the hypotheses proposed have not been discredited either. The results of the P.O.I. and I.-E. Scale have been at least balanced by the use of an individual pre- and post-test co-therapist observation approach, which found the results of the therapy process to be positive and constructive in terms of self-actualization and personal growth.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This thesis investigates the effects of group therapy on self-actualization and internal-external locus of control as measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory and Rotter's Modified Scale of Internal-External Locus of Control. A brief look at previous literature will help define the terms and problem. A complete review of the literature, however, will comprise chapter two of this paper.

The concepts of self-actualization and self-identity have long been in the vocabulary of the social scientist. A fundamental interest of man is to realize his inherent potentials. This thought has reached modern psychologies under the general rubric of "self-actualization." Representatives of this position include Adler's (1935) "creative self" and the striving of superiority; Goldstein's (1940) "self-actualization;" Jung's (1954) "concept of self;" and the individuation process; Maslow's (1954) "self-actualization" or "growth motivation;" Allport's (1955) "becoming;" and Roger's (1959) "self-actualization." The continued breadth of the usage of the self-actualization concept is indicated by the fact that it also plays a central motivational role.
in the theories of Angyal (1941), Hendrick (1942), Fromm (1947), Horney (1950), Buhler (1951), Gruenberg (1953), May (1953), Erickson (1956), Argyris (1957), Murphy (1958), Jourard (1958), and Arnspriger (1961).

Self-actualization was used by Goldstein (1940) as the tendency toward a striving or growing. Angyal (1941) summed up his views on this point. "Life is an autonomous dynamic event which takes place between the organism and the environment. Life processes do not merely tend to preserve life, but transcend the momentary status quo of the organism, expanding itself continually and imposing its autonomous determination upon an ever increasing realm of events."\(^1\) Horney (1942) described this force as it is experienced in psychotherapy: "The ultimate driving force is the person's unrelenting will to come to grips with himself, a wish to grow and to leave nothing untouched that prevents growth."\(^2\) Mowrer and Kluckhohn (1944) stressed the drive of living things to function in such a way as to preserve and increase integration. This is seemingly vague, but hints that it is dynamic and directional in nature. Sullivan (1945) pointed to the fact that the basic direction of the organism is forward.

Rogers (1951) discussed the concept of self-actualization

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as related to the concept of internal-external locus of control. He viewed self-actualization as a greater acceptance of self and willingness to be oneself, a permissiveness about one's feelings, an independence, a more broadly based structure of self and an inclusion of a greater proportion of life experiences into self, a fuller realization of one's potentialities as well as the maintenance of self. Self-actualization is discovered in the individual by careful self-evaluation and self-observation. When this is achieved the locus of evaluation is within the self, or internal. The self-actualized person critically asks himself, "What is my honest appraisal of what I have done, as it relates to my own purposes?" The self-actualized person "has one basic tendency and striving-to-actualize, maintain and enhance the experiencing organism." Rogers spoke of the tendency to move in the direction of maturation. The organism moves in the direction of self-responsibility and of greater independence, of self-government, self-regulation and autonomy, and away from heteronomous control, i.e., control by external forces. Rogers, furthermore, compared the self-actualized person to the organism high on the evolutionary scale.

Counseling and psychotherapy can have a direct effect on

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4 Ibid., p. 487.
self-actualization and locus of control. Manis (1955) showed that, in time, a person's self-concept will increase in agreement with his friends' perception of him. Wylie (1961) suggested that if counseling or therapy is to be judged as being successful, various changes in the self will occur. These changes include: 1) increased agreement between self-concept and objective estimates of self, i.e., the self estimate becomes more realistic; 2) increased congruence between perceived self and ideal self, providing that this congruence is low at the beginning of therapy; 3) slightly decreased self-ideal congruence if this congruence is unwarrantedly high at the outset of therapy; 4) increased acceptance of one's own limitations as well as assets; 5) an increased reality in setting the ideal self; and 6) increased consistency among various aspects of self-concept.

Group therapy, in particular, can assist individuals in attaining self-actualization. The open and honest reactions of others, fostered in the atmosphere of group psychotherapy, can aid an individual in attaining a broader and more realistic self-image. This technique has, however, received only limited research attention. For example, Rogers (1951) cited Peres (1947) as having shown that group therapy produces greater acceptance of self and willingness to be oneself and a greater readiness to actualize the self in social situations. Caplan (1957) found significant increases in self-
ideal congruence among problem boys who received group therapy
as contrasted to a group of boys who received no treatment.

Self-actualization can be measured in a variety of ways. Some valid and reliable tests are purported to be the Personal Orientation Inventory (P.O.I.) and Rotter's Modified Scale of Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (I.-E. Scale), which are the two tests utilized in this thesis.

The items on the P.O.I. reflect the problems of patients as seen by therapists in private practice over a five year period. It was also agreed that these items were related to the concepts of researchers of the Humanistic, Existential or Gestalt theories such as Perls (1947; 1951), Reisman et al. (1950), Maslow (1954; 1962), and May et al. (1958). Shostrom (1965) has shown that the P.O.I. discriminates between clinically judged self-actualized and non-self-actualized groups. It is apparent that there is a consistent difference between scores of the actualized versus the non-actualized person. The correlations of the P.O.I. with the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory are generally statistically significant. Test-retest reliability coefficients for the P.O.I. range from .55 to .85. In general, the correlations obtained for the P.O.I. are at a level at least as high as those reported for most personality measures.

The internal-external locus of control construct is an integral part of social learning theory (Rotter, 1954); it
refers to the degree to which individuals perceive the events in their lives as being a direct consequence of their own actions, and thereby controllable or internal. It is one element of a behavioral prediction formula which also includes reinforcement value and situational determinants. The I.-E. Scale has been used little to date and the research data are limited. Odell (1959) has found a significant relationship between the I.-E. Scale and Barron's Independence of Judgment Scale. Lefcourt (1972) noted that the correlations of the I.-E. Scale are generally significant with the major personality measurements used clinically.

To provide further research in regard to self-actualization and group therapy, it is the purpose of this paper to study the effects of group therapy on self-actualization and internal-external locus of control.

On the basis of the available literature dealing with self-actualization, internal-external locus of control and psychotherapy, the following hypotheses are the focus of this study:

**Hypothesis I:** The scores and evaluations of the experimental group (therapy group) will change significantly toward the self-actualized pole on the P.O.I.

**Hypothesis II:** The scores on the I.-E. Scale will change significantly in the direction of a higher score.

**Hypothesis III:** The P.O.I. scores will change to a greater degree than will the I.-E. scores.
Hypothesis IV: Self-regard scores on the P.O.I. will be among the very lowest attained.

Hypothesis V: Control group scores will not change significantly in either direction on either the P.O.I. or the I.-E. Scale.

The following variables on the P.O.I. will be considered of primary importance because of their direct relationship to the concepts of self-actualization as reported in this study:

- Time Competent - TC
- Self-actualizing Value - SAV
- Feeling Reactivity - Fr
- Spontaneity - S
- Self-regard - Sr
- Self-acceptance - Sa
- Capacity for Intimate Contact - C
- Inner-directed - I

The following will be considered as secondary variables:

- Existentiality - Ex
- Nature of Man, Constructive - Nc
- Synergy - Sy
- Acceptance of Aggression - A

In addition to this quantitative analysis, a qualitative analysis provided by the co-therapists will assess behavioral changes noticed in S's of the experimental group.

The major chapter divisions of this thesis are as follows:

II. Literature Review

III. Methods
IV. Results

V. Discussion
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to better understand the research undertaken in this thesis, chapter two (Literature Review) will attempt an in-depth review of available literature dealing with self-actualization, internal-external locus of control and other thesis-related subjects. It will be an elaboration of the literature summaries included in chapter one (Introduction) and will include sections pertaining to: 1) the concepts and theories of self-actualization; 2) techniques used to improve or facilitate self-actualization; 3) measures of self-actualization; and 4) empirical studies related to self-actualization.

Concepts and Theories of Self-actualization

As noted earlier, the concepts of self-actualization and self-identity have long been in the vocabulary of the social scientist. Let us backtrack in time and study the development of these concepts. Although some of the social scientists discussed did not refer specifically to the term self-actualization, their concepts were closely related to the term as it is presented in this paper.
Adler (1935) believed that "Life (and all psychic expressions as part of life) moves ever toward overcoming, toward perfection, toward superiority, toward success."^5 He believed that no one could train or condition a human being for defeat. He believed and found that each individual has a different meaning of, and attitude toward, what constitutes success and, therefore, no one can be typified or classified; each individual must be studied or observed in the light of his own peculiar development.

Goldstein (1940) was the first social scientist to coin the term self-actualization. He declared that the tendency of self-actualization is a motive—a motive which sets the organism going and the drive by which it is moved; it is dominated by the tendency to actualize its individual capacities as fully as possible. He felt so strongly about this that he stated

Since the tendency to actualize itself as fully as possible is the basic drive, the only drive by which the sick organism is moved, and since the life of the normal organism is determined in the same way, it is clear that the goal of the drive is not a discharge of tension, and that we have to assume only one drive, the drive of self-actualization.6

This drive is, under certain circumstances and conditions,


so strong that the organism is governed by it.

He continued by saying that self-actualization is the need to complete incomplete actions and becomes the urge to reach for perfection. The self-actualizing person is impelled to manifest spontaneity and creativeness, for self-actualization means existence, life and freedom in the fullest sense of the word.

He stated, however, that the process of self-actualization is not the easiest adventure to embark upon. Shock and anxiety are inevitable. Thus, it is probably not overstating the facts to maintain that these shocks are essential to human nature and that life must, of necessity, take its course via uncertainty and shock.

Goldstein also admitted that the basic tendency to self-actualize can be realized only if the organism is faced with situations with which it can effectively cope. If one is faced with environmental conditions with which his changing personality cannot come to terms, he will either not be affected at all, or he will respond with a catastrophic reaction. He can exist—that is actualize his capabilities—only if he finds a new milieu that is appropriate to his capacities. Only then can he behave in an orderly way, and only then can his powers of recognition, attention, memory and learning be at their best. He added that it cannot be overemphasized that individuals, peoples, and societies can actualize themselves
without harming each other only by a culture of group life. Group cohesiveness and individual love are not only mutual gratification and compliance, but also a vastly higher form of self-actualization, offering a challenge to develop both oneself and another.

Goldstein stated that it is possible to successfully actualize mankind with the help of societies and cultures, and it is very possible to achieve self-actualization and to "live" in the full sense of the word. Enjoyment of life, happiness and self-actualization belong together, and enjoyment of life is a very special kind of self-actualization, i.e., the happiness which originates when the individual adequately comes to terms with himself and the world.

Angyal (1941) noted a trend within the organism toward expansion, and that this growth may be a material one as in the case of bodily expansion, or a psychological one as in the case of the assimilation of experiences which results in mental and emotional growth. This growth or expansion occurs through creativeness and has a definite forward direction. Angyal believed this to be a total process which can be divided into two phases: (1) the centripetal stream of assimilation which draws material from the environment into the organism and continues as (2) a centrifugal outflow of production.

Angyal saw life as not taking place within the organism
but between the organism and the environment. He noted a tendency toward autonomy, self-government and spontaneity. The human organism possesses freedom and the ability to act according to its own inherent nature, according to its intrinsic law, and not under the compulsion of outside forces. Without this autonomy, without self-government, the life process could not be understood.

He stated that the human organism possesses an intrinsic pattern of movement and is dynamic; its goal is always "progressive." The ideals of personal accomplishment may differ greatly from individual to individual, but for personality integration to be realized, a more or less clear realization based on experience that one is using one's life correctly, that one is doing one's share in life is needed. There is a tending of the personality toward the achievement of greater self-determination and a clearly felt desire for self-realization.

Fromm (1947) viewed man's striving for happiness and health as being part of the "natural equipment of man." "To cure" means to remove the obstacles which prevent this from occurring. Man experiences pride in reason as his own instrument for his understanding and mastery of nature, and he experiences optimism in the attainment of the fondest hopes of mankind--happiness. Furthermore, to be alive means to be productive and to use one's power for oneself, to make sense
of one's existence and to be more fully human. He believed that the future exists in the present and, therefore, one, by fully living in the present, is living for the future also. One's personality is expressed by the degree to which one has succeeded in the art of living.

Horney (1950) saw man as trying to actualize his idealized self and that the focus of this dynamic action was within himself.

He holds before his soul his image of perfection and unconsciously tells himself: "Forget about the disgraceful creature you actually are; this is how you should be; and to be this idealized self is all that matters. You should be able to endure everything, to understand everything, to like everybody, to be always productive."^7

Rogers (1951) viewed self-actualization as a greater acceptance of self and willingness to be oneself, a permissiveness about one's own feelings, an independence, a more broadly based structure of self and a fuller realization of one's potentialities as well as the maintenance of self. Self-actualization is discovered in the individual by careful self-evaluation and self-observation. When this is achieved, the locus of evaluation is within the self, or internal. The self-actualizing person critically asks himself, "What is my honest appraisal of what I have done, as it relates to my own purpose." The self-actualizer has one basic tendency in

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striving to actualize, maintain and enhance his experiencing organism. By this he spoke of the tendency to move in the direction of maturation. The organism moves in the direction of self-responsibility and of greater independence, of self-government, self-regulation and autonomy, and away from heteronymous control, or control by external forces. Rogers, furthermore, compared the self-actualizing individual to the organism high on the evolutionary scale.

May (1953) believed firmly that every human organism has one and only one central need in life, to fulfill its own potentialities, thus becoming a person. This development is never automatic but must be done in self-consciousness. If the organism fails to fulfill its potentialities, it becomes to that extent constricted and ill, beginning to lose the sense of being a person. This is the essence of neurosis—the person's unactualized potentialities, blocked by hostile conditions in the environment and by his own internalized conflicts, are turned inward toward oneself and cause morbidity. He becomes, instead of a person, a parasite, living from others' leavings.

But when he does realize his potentialities as a person, man begins to experience the profoundest joy to which he is heir. May compared it to a child first learning to walk—he tries again and again, getting up time and time again when he falls, and then trying all over again. Finally, when he
does succeed, he laughs with gratification and joy, that he alone feels. This same joy is the effect which is experienced when we actualize ourselves. Joy, rather than happiness, is the goal of life. This is the experience that follows the self-actualizer as he grows.

Hall (1954) noted that Sigmund Freud played a leading role in preserving the concept of ego or self from total obliteration throughout two generations of strenuous opposition. Freud's own use of the concept of ego shifted, to be sure. In his earlier writings, he spoke of assertive and aggressive ego-instincts; later for him the ego became a rational agency, whose purpose it was to reconcile as best it could, through rational planning and defense, the conflicting pressures of the instincts, of conscience and of the outer environment. The ego-ideal is that portion of the superego which is concerned with self-observation and self-criticism. It represents the ideal self rather than the real, and it strives for perfection rather than for reality or pleasure. The ego-ideal confers upon the ego or self, for being good, the reward of feelings of pride.

Maslow (1954) listed these needs as being basic to mankind:

1. Physiological needs--need for food, water, oxygen, sleep, activity, etc.
2. Safety needs--need for survival and protection.
3. Belongingness and love needs—hunger for affectionate relations with people in general.

4. Esteem needs—desire for stable, firmly based, high evaluation of oneself, for self-respect and for esteem of others.

5. Need for self-actualization—desire for self-fulfillment, for doing what one is fitted for, and the drive to become more and more what one is.

6. Need to know and to understand—need for acquiring knowledge and for freedom of inquiry.

7. Aesthetic needs—needs for order, symmetry, closure, for completion of an act, for system and for structure.

The degree to which the first of these needs are satisfied, Maslow stated, is as follows: 85 percent in his physiological needs; 70 percent in his safety needs; 50 percent in his love needs; 40 percent in his self-esteem needs and only 10 percent in his self-actualization needs. He pointed out that we share the need for food with all living things, the need for love with the higher apes and the need for self-actualization with no other living thing.

If it is assumed then that the healthy organism is need-gratified and therefore released for self-actualization, that is, if needs one through four are fairly well met, we can thereby assume that this organism is free to develop from within by intrinsic growth needs rather than from without, in the behavioristic sense of environmental determinism. The neurotic organism, then, may be seen as lacking certain en-
environmental satisfactions and is therefore more dependent on the outer environment and is less autonomous and self-determined, i.e., more shaped by the nature of the environment and less shaped by its own intrinsic nature.

Many research projects have shown human beings to be more trustworthy, self-protecting, self-directing and self-governing than is often thought.

Recent developments have shown the theoretical necessity for the postulation of some sort of positive growth or self-actualization tendency within the organism, which is different from its conserving, equilibrating, or homeostatic tendency, as well as from the tendency to respond to impulses from the outside world.  

This tendency toward growth and self-actualization has been postulated by thinkers such as Aristotle and Berson, along with many other philosophers. Psychiatrists, psychoanalysts, and psychologists such as Goldstein, Rank, Jung, Horney, Fromm, May and Rogers have found the existence of self-actualization to be important to their work.

Maslow stated: "What a man can be, he must be." Unless an individual is doing what he is suited for, one may expect this individual to become discontent and restless; for example, an artist must paint. Self-actualization refers to an

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individual's desire to reach self-fulfillment and to actually become what he potentially is. As an individual becomes self-actualized, he becomes more and more what he is, reaching to become everything of which he is capable of becoming. Self-actualization will take varying forms in different individuals, as each person reaches to express his or her particular desires and aspirations.

Areas of life that are affected by self-actualization are acceptance, spontaneity, problem centering, quality of detachment, autonomy, freshness of appreciation, interpersonal relationships, the democratic character structure, sense of humor, creativeness, values and the resolution of dichotomies.

The self-actualized person is able to accept his own human nature with all its shortcomings and discrepancies. He sees reality much more clearly and is able to accept his more "animal" instincts. He lacks defensiveness, protective coloration and pose and has distaste for such traits in others.

The self-actualized individual can be described as relatively spontaneous in behavior and far more spontaneous in his inner life, thoughts, impulses, etc. He is noted for his simplicity and naturalness and for his lack of artificiality. Although his behavior can be conventional in order to avoid hurting others' feelings, he seeks company that allows him to be free, natural and spontaneous.

The focus on problems outside of himself, was seen by
Maslow as a sign of the self-actualizing person. He appears to be problem centered rather than ego centered, and the problems are usually focused on or related to mankind in general and not just on himself.

The self-actualizing person learns that he can be solitary without discomfort. In fact, he likes solitude and privacy to a much greater degree than the non-actualizing person. It appears that he is able to remain unruffled above that which disturbs others. He is able to take personal criticism without violent reactions; he is able to remain more calm and serene than many; and he seems to retain his dignity even in undignified situations.

Since the self-actualizer is propelled by growth motivation, he is not dependent on the world for his main satisfactions. Rather, he is dependent for his development and continued growth on his own potentialities and resources.

The self-actualizing person has the wonderful and rare capacity to appreciate again and again, freshly and naively, the basic goodness of life with awe, wonder, pleasure, and even ecstasy, however stale these experiences may have become for others.

He has a deeper and more profound interpersonal relationship than other adults, although his circle of friends is rather small, because involved friendships take much time and energy. Maslow also noted that the self-actualizer is
especially fond of children and is easily moved by them.

The self-actualizing person is seen as democratic as opposed to authoritarian. He can be and is friendly with anyone of suitable character regardless of class, religion, education, political belief, race or color, in fact it often seems that he is unaware of these differences. He appears to learn from everyone and is very much aware of how little knowledge he has in comparison with what could be known and what is known by others.

The sense of humor of the self-actualized individual is not of the ordinary type, but is more likened to philosophy than anything else. He pokes fun at mankind in general, rather than at someone else's inferiority or at someone else's expense. The average person might consider him rather on the sober or serious side.

Creativeness is characteristic of all self-actualizing people. Maslow saw no exceptions to this phenomena. His creativeness seems to compare to the naive and universal creativeness of unspoiled children. Most of mankind loses this characteristic as they become enculturated, but the self-actualizing personality strives to regain this trait. He is less inhibited, less constricted, less bound up or enculturated, while he is more spontaneous and more naturally human.

By his philosophic acceptance of the nature of his self,
of human nature and of physical reality, a firm foundation for a value system is furnished to the self-actualizing individual. In many aspects of life's conflicts and struggles, ambivalence and uncertainty over choices lessen. Many problems are seen to fade out of existence and trivialities become deflated. There is less anxiety, fear, hostility, aggression, defensiveness and jealousy. The once held need to dominate disappears and one becomes free to enjoy.

Self-actualization leads to the resolution of dichotomies such as between head and heart, reason and instinct and cognition and conation. The dichotomy between selfishness and unselfishness disappears because in principle every act is both. Duty cannot be at odds with pleasure nor work with play, because duty is pleasure and work is play to the self-actualized individual. He is socially identified and individualistic, mature and childlike, and moral and animal-like all at the same time.

Jung (1954) spoke of the personality striving to become whole, complete and actualized. Becoming a personality is not the prerogative of every man, even a genius, for a man might be a genius without being a personality. Insofar as every individual has born within him the innate potential to become a personality unique unto himself, it is theoretically possible for any man to follow this potentiality and in doing so, become a complete personality, that is, achieve wholeness.
Allport (1955) saw the acquisition of self-insight or self-objectification to be certainly one of the most important characteristics within the personality. He thought, that being free to become, one is launched on the course of continuous and unimpeded growth. Becoming, ego-enhancement and "proprium" are all terms meaning self-seeking. He saw this striving and growth as conferring unity upon the personality and in the process of self-growth, external sanctions give way to internal control.

Combs and Saper (1957) stated that life is a dynamic process and that mankind persists in striving for growth and self-enhancement. They also used the term self-acceptance to refer to the ability of the individual to accept facts about himself with a minimum of defense or distortion. Therefore, a self-accepting individual may be able to say of himself, "Yes, I do have a habit of interrupting people sometimes."

Argyris (1957) saw the human personality as a developing organism and one that possesses inherent trends to grow and to develop. These inherent trends are aimed at the child striving to reach full maturity, i.e., they are predisposed toward moving from the infant end of the continuum to the adult end. Healthy adults strive to obtain optimum personality expression. There is an inherent tendency to become more active than passive, more independent than dependent, and to express many of their deeper, more important abilities. And it is these very
developmental trends that may be considered as the basic properties of the human personality. He likened self-actualization, then, to self-satisfaction. It begins with knowledge of self. Being aware of oneself is not an easy or necessarily a pleasant task—it is far easier and at times more pleasant to study others. But it is impossible to understand others until one has an understanding of oneself. Psychologists and psychiatrists are strongly urged to undergo counseling or psychotherapy personally before they are licensed. Self-concept, then, is of primary importance to the self-actualizing person, and he soon learns that this comes only by interacting with others. This learning about oneself requires not only a willingness to learn but also a willingness to express one's true feelings and to respond to others' feelings with a minimum of defensiveness. This does not mean to suggest that self-awareness must necessarily lead to change. But the object of the self-actualizing person is to have a greater tolerance of himself, and this will lead to a greater tolerance of others.

May (1958) summarized the existentialist movement and its relationship to the development of self. The existentialists saw man as more than a collection of substances, mechanisms and patterns; they saw man as emerging, becoming and existing. The crucial question was that I exist in a given moment, time and space and how can I best be aware of myself and what
shall I do about it. Existentialism is concerned with ontology or the science of being. Kierkegaard and Nietzsche saw a growing split between truth and reality in Western culture and sought to bring man back from a detached, abstract reality. Making man into either a subject or an object results in the loss of the living.

The existentialists are centrally concerned with rediscovering the living person amid the compartmentalization and dehumanization of modern culture, and in order to do this they engage in in-depth psychological analysis. Their concern is not with isolated psychological reactions in themselves but rather with the psychological being of the living man who is doing the experiencing.10

Existentialists believe that Western man's obsession with conquering nature has resulted in his estrangement from himself. Existentialism seeks to repair this estrangement, grasp reality, and provide self-understanding. They are against Western society's attempt to transform man into a machine and image of the industrial system.

Freud described the neurotic personality produced in 19th century industrialization. He described man as suffering from fragmentation and repression of instinctual drives, blocking of awareness of self, and loss of autonomy.

Kierkegaard saw the results of this fragmentation in the disintegration of the emotional and spiritual life of the individual and finally alienation from himself. He pursued the

question of how can one become an individual. His main concern, along with the other existentialists, was the development of an alive and self-aware individual, which he considered the only alternative to a society of self-destructive robots. Kierkegaard believed the more consciousness one has, the more self one has.

Nietzsche sought to reestablish the dignity and humanity of man. His "will to power" means the fullest self-realization of the individual, the courage to live up to one's capabilities and potentialities. It is an ontological term meaning the affirmation of one's existence and potentialities, the courage to be an individual. Nietzsche saw man's fundamental problem as achieving a true existence instead of tossing one's life to the winds.

The existentialists knew that self-realization was not to be easily given to us. In Western society, man must courageously decide to rediscover his true self. Kierkegaard, Nietzsche and Freud all dealt with the anxiety, despair and fragmentation of Western man. Freud, however, took it one step further. He transformed these psychological insights into a scientific framework. Freud's contribution to existential psychotherapy was his effort to overcome the fragmentation of man and to help the human organism uncover the irrational, unconscious and repressed aspects of the human personality. Existential psychotherapy protests a strong identification
between psychotherapy and technical reason. It advocates the goal for psychotherapy as finding an understanding of man as a human being, capable of fulfilling his own being. It sees neurosis as destroying this capability, making man into the image of a machine. Existential psychotherapy, although utilizing scientific analysis, also emphasizes the deeper understanding of man as a human being.

The Western world has created an isolated and lonely man. It has produced a need to avoid and repress the whole concern with being. The existentialists believe that man must become aware of himself and responsible for himself if he is to become himself. The individual must experience himself in a profound sense before he can go on to solve specific problems. This sense of being provides the individual with a basis of self-esteem not dependent on the reflection of others' views about him. If one's self-esteem must rest on confirmation from society, one does not have self-esteem, but rather social conformity. The self-aware individual is also able to cope with non-being, the certainty of death, anxiety, hostility and aggression. He is able to tolerate without repression these possibilities and deal with them as constructively as possible. The existentialists believe that as long as a human being possesses self-awareness and is not incapacitated by anxiety or neurotic rigidities, he is continuously in a dynamic self-actualizing process.
Rogers (1959) stated that there is an inherent tendency within the organism to develop all of its capacities in ways that will serve to maintain or enhance the organism. This tendency involves growth and expansion. In addition, then, to such concepts of motivation as need-reduction, tension-reduction and drive-reduction, Rogers added growth motivations. The organism is constantly trying and fighting to improve and fulfill its capabilities.

Arnspiger (1961) saw the road of maturity as leading along the path of experience. Mistakes are made and corrected after much self-analysis and study. In order to realize maturity one must be willing to assume the responsibility for building his own mature personality. One must learn to think and to act for himself, with due regard for the rights and feelings of others.

Self-knowledge is a prerequisite of maturity. Arnspiger felt that every free man is his own best and greatest resource. Self-knowledge involves an understanding of one's internal characteristics of thought and action and of the external environment. Of all the knowledge to be acquired during one's life, self-knowledge is the most valuable, for to know oneself is to know one's goals and capabilities for attaining them. Arnspiger believed that through self-exploration one can learn to overcome patterns of unrealistic behavior, frustration and anxiety. It is possible, then, to
expand the power and control of the individual over his own destiny, to unlock the closed doors of his creative capabilities in the attainment or realization of his personal goals, and to liberate himself for the fulfillment of his personal potentialities.

Maslow (1962) viewed self-actualization as an achieved state of affairs in only a few people. In most, however, it is rather a hope, a yearning, a drive, a "something" wished for but not yet realized, manifesting itself clinically as a drive toward health, integration and growth. He saw the human organism as being simultaneously that which he is and that which he is striving to be and, therefore, self-actualizing values and goals coexist and are reality even though they may not yet be achieved. Therefore, there was, for Maslow, no striking dichotomy between "being" and "becoming."

In man's own nature can be seen a pressure toward a fuller and fuller being and a fuller and fuller actualization of his humanness. Creativeness, spontaneity, self-hood, authenticity, caring for others, being able to love, and yearning for truth are potentialities belonging to him just as much as are his arms, legs and brain.

Maslow contributed to the theories regarding self-actualization by expanding his own list of characteristics. Among the objectively desirable and measureable characteris-
tics of the human organism are:

1. Clearer, more efficient perception of reality
2. More openness to experience
3. Increased integration, wholeness, and unity of the person
4. Increased spontaneity, expressiveness, full functioning, aliveness
5. A real self, a firm identity, autonomy, uniqueness
6. Increased objectivity, detachment, transcendence of self
7. Recovery of creativeness
8. Ability to fuse concreteness and abstractness
9. Democratic character structure
10. Ability to love\textsuperscript{11}

This pressing toward a fuller being means pressing toward what most people would consider good values, serenity, kindness, courage, honesty, love, unselfishness and goodness. But these are not the only pulling forces the human organism feels. In this same person death wishes, tendencies to fear, defense and regression may be found. There are also subjective confirmations or reinforcements of self-actualization or of good growth towards it. These are the feelings of zest in living, of happiness or even euphoria, of serenity, of joy and calmness.

ness, of responsibility, of confidence in one's ability to handle stresses, anxiety and problems. Maslow claimed that the subjective signs of self-betrayal, of fixation, of regression and living by fear rather than by growth are such feelings as anxiety, despair, boredom, inability to enjoy, intrinsic guilt, emptiness and of lack of identity.

Sherwood (1970) believed that self-identity has long been in the concepts of social science, but because of a lack of basic premises and working definitions, little scientifically acceptable research has been produced in this area. He believed that a force on a person in the direction of higher self-evaluation and better performance does exist. He broke the concept of self-actualization into two subtypes: (1) self-development, and (2) self-utilization. Self-development is defined quantitatively as the difference between a performance level of a positively valued self-attribute and the cognitively conceived, positively valued self-attribute itself. He, therefore, believed as did Woodworth (1958) that an adequate theory of motivation must have incorporated in it behavioral capacities.

**Techniques Used to Improve Self-Actualization**

This section of the Literature Review (chapter two) discusses techniques used to improve self-actualization, including psychoanalysis, psychotherapy, group psychotherapy and counseling. The authors in this section discuss the charac-
teristics of therapy and its effects upon the self-actualization of the individual. Their theories and observations have a direct bearing on this thesis which attempts to measure the effects of group therapy on self-actualization.

Horney (1942) described the force behind the need for growth through psychotherapy in this manner:

The ultimate driving force is the person's unrelenting will to come to grips with himself, a wish to grow and to leave nothing untouched that prevents growth. It is a spirit of ruthless honesty toward himself, and he can succeed in finding himself only to the extent that it prevails.\(^\text{12}\)

It is this force, then, that motivates his seeking self-awareness through psychotherapy. To proceed beyond insights that are within easy reach inevitably means to encounter certain opposing forces, i.e., to expose oneself to all kinds of painful uncertainties and hurts. Systematic self-analysis, for her, involved frequent and difficult work. It goes through the process of self-analysis over and over again as opposed to very occasional instances. Very central to her theories is the attitude of continuity and the following up of problems.

Peres (1947) noted that the effectiveness of group therapy has been demonstrated repeatedly, but the conclusions that are available have been based almost entirely upon clinical observation rather than upon objective research. The need for objective research is becoming more critical as the possibilities of

\(^{12}\)Horney, Self Analysis, p. 175.
this form of psychotherapy are being realized.

The term "group therapy" is ambiguous because of the fact that there are at least three different types of procedures designated by it. One procedure might be called "the class method," where a group of people are brought together and the therapist talks to them about their problems, causes and possible remedies. A second procedure might be called "activity therapy" since it depends on social interaction between individuals to effect changes in their personalities. The third procedure or method might be called "therapy within a group." This is distinguished from "activity therapy" in that group members discuss their problems verbally. Group therapy has been shown to be effective when handled from a psychoanalytic viewpoint, from a semi-directive viewpoint, and nondirectively. These techniques were based on the principles advocated by Rogers.

Perls' (1951) psychotherapeutic efforts were directed toward assisting one to discover self and to mobilize this self for greater effectiveness in satisfying his requirement both as a biological and as a social being. He invited others to invade their own privacy, and he believed that this self-discovery is an arduous process. It does not come with a sudden flash of revelation, but instead it is continuous and cumulative and need never end so long as one is alive. This process involves the adoption of a special attitude towards
self and consists of observation of self in action. This pro-
cess he called introspection.

To suppose that there is a hidden secret and undiscover-
ered self is an attitude that one has not always had and need
not retain. It arose in the past, in times of trauma when
one rejected part of self—the part of self that was causing
trouble and had to be gotten rid of for the survival of the
greater self. This is something like the predicament of an
animal caught in a trap by one leg. Under these conditions
the leg becomes a menace and the animal will sometimes gnaw
it off to gain his freedom and to survive, even though he
must spend the rest of his life as a cripple. But unlike
the animal's leg, through psychotherapy, the cast out part
of self can be salvaged. If, then, a person wishes to become
self-actualized, he can embark on a progressive, personal
adventure and by his own active efforts he may begin to do
something for himself, namely, discover, salvage and organize
the seemingly unnecessary part of himself and put it to con-
structive use in the living of his life.

Maslow (1954) suggested that all major types of psycho-
thrapy support self-actualization as they foster, encourage
and strengthen the basic, instinctive needs, while they weaken
or destroy the neurotic needs. This theory was especially
important to the therapies of Rogers, Fromm and Horney who
claimed to leave the person what he essentially and deep-down
is; they implied that the personality has some intrinsic nature of its own, which is not created by the therapist but is only released by him to grow and develop in its own style. If the dissolution of repression and insight make a reaction disappear then it should not be considered intrinsic; if insight makes it stronger it may be thereafter considered intrinsic. Horney pointed out that if the release of anxiety causes an individual to become more affectionate and less hostile, this indicates that affection is basic to human nature while hostility is not. In general, the clinical and theoretical study of the self-actualizing individual indicates the important and special status of our basic needs. The healthy life is conditioned on the satisfaction of these needs.

Mowrer (1964) suggested that many psychotherapists are beginning to believe differently than Freud, who believed that the personality exerted a great deal of energy trying to maintain a secrecy from self and others. By means of the defense mechanisms such as repression, suppression, sublimation and projection, the personality is able to keep itself hidden from itself and from others, Freud suggested. Mowrer, on the other hand, felt that there is a greater tendency on the part of the personality to be transparent, open, healthy and thus effective. He maintained that self-disclosure is a critical variable in interpersonal relationships, but that only incidental attention has been paid to it in the literature.
Mowrer offered a provocative thought—people become clients because they do not disclose themselves to an optimal degree to the significant people in their lives. He suggested that it is not communication per se which is causing people problems, but rather it is a foul-up in the process of knowing others and of becoming known themselves by others. He stated, "Every maladjusted person is a person who has not made himself known to another human being and in consequence does not know himself." Furthermore, if he cannot know himself, he cannot be himself. He perpetuates his problem by actively struggling to avoid becoming known to anyone else. He works at this task endlessly and it is indeed work. Other people come to be problems and stresses to the individual in direct proportion to his self-alienation, for if he is resisting becoming known by other persons, he must out of necessity build a strong false public self. If becoming known is threatening, then the very presence of another person serves to trigger anxiety; the person then seeks to avoid close relationships.

Mowrer emphatically contended that estrangement and alienation from one's self is the root of the neurotic personality and that only by disclosing oneself to others can one possibly hope to acknowledge his real self to himself. In therapy, then, a relationship between two or more people is established, in

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which the growth of all parties is the goal and the outcome.
Therapy, therefore, is not something in which the therapist
does things to the patient; it is instead a mutual experience
which leads to the growth of both patient and therapist alike.

In therapy, the neurotic personality seeks to hide itself; however, it has been Mowrer's experience that the iron
curtain, behind which the neurotic personality is concealed,
melts like ice when it is exposed to a warm environment of
mutual concern, respect, openness, and love.

It is because of the pains involved in acknowledging and
being one's self that most of mankind hides its real self,
even from loved ones. Self-disclosure, then, entails courage—
courage not to be but to be known. Instead of saying, "Know
thyself," Mowrer would encourage one to "Make thyself known
and then you will know thyself."

Jourard (1968) viewed the goal in counseling and psycho-
therapy as being an experience of a growing personality, not
merely an adjusting one. The client is, therefore, seeking a
way to be in the world, a way to live with others, and a way
of being, that is for himself meaningful and rewarding; this
means a way that produces satisfactions, hope and meaning.
He saw the healthy personality as a growing personality.
These personalities are committed to a set of values. The
growing person, then, finds his life meaningful, he loves
and is loved, and he can reasonably fulfill the demands that
society places upon him. He is in no doubt as to who he is and what his feelings, values and convictions are, and furthermore, he does not apologize for being the very person he is. He functions fully and he is able to transcend the contradiction between the conscious and the unconscious—he can oscillate between the extremes. He is able to be authentic in this manner. He is able to disclose himself, unself-consciously, in words, decisions and actions which are readily observable to others. This is a risky way of being, especially if he is in a social group which punishes behavior that deviates ever so slightly from the stereotyped.

Jourard stated that another facet of the healthy personality is the person's set of values, in that he seeks and finds meaningful value systems. Less healthy personalities pursue clichéd goals and values even though they do not challenge or inspire them to the fullest integration and expression of their unique beings.

The healthy person, according to Jourard, lives in and with his body and bodily functions. He is accepting, being not afraid or ashamed to touch and relate to his own body or the bodies of others with whom he is on intimate terms. By contrast, the less healthy person represses his experiencing body. He must do this as a defense against incriminating self-disclosure. A common and frequent symptom of this defense is muscular tension. The healthier person is seen as
more relaxed, genuine and less defensive.

Just as a healthy personality is able to accept himself as he is, so does he respect and even cherish and defend the idiosyncrasies of others. The less healthy personality is not able to let himself be, nor to trust the being of others; he always seeks to influence others in some manner.

Jourard (1971) along with Mowrer suggested that one of the aims of the psychotherapist is to help his patient live more authentically and to stop misrepresenting himself to other people because he no longer needs to do so. He, also, wondered if people develop psychopathology because somewhere along the line of their development they cultivated the habit of not disclosing themselves honestly to others.

If one chooses to be transparent and to be known, he chooses to genuinely experience others as themselves and not as concepts or people to be manipulated. There is no need to control, manipulate, dominate or predict on either part. The atmosphere is indeed one of acceptance, honesty and love.

One discloses himself in many ways—in words, in action, gestures, facial expressions and by omission. All of these reveal aims, feelings, attitudes, beliefs and memories of the past. One's goal in self-disclosure is to be known, to be perceived by the other as the one he knows himself to be.

If one chooses to remain hidden, he chooses to misrepresent himself and thus he reduces himself from a person to a
manipulable being. Then, only by the revealing of one's self, can one attain freedom, independence and happiness.

Transparency is a multifaceted mode of being—it calls for courage and willingness to let the world be what it is, to let others be what they are, and to let one's self be whom he is. It demands a commitment to truth as it changeably makes itself known; it demands a willingness to "shelve" concepts and beliefs about self and others. Transparency is a complex mode of being, but through it one may achieve freedom; however, to be free one must be committed to work hard.

**Measures of Self-Actualization**

This section provides a review of two tests that can be used to measure self-actualization, the Personal Orientation Inventory (P.O.I.) and Rotter's Modified Scale of Internal-External Locus of Control (I.-E. Scale). These are the two instruments that are used in this thesis for the measurement of self-actualization.

Rotter (1954) described his questionnaire, the Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, as being a valid and reliable method of obtaining a clinical measurement of the personality. The general procedure of such instruments is that of devising a series of questions, referring to himself, with which the person either agrees or disagrees. These questions for the most part deal with symptomatic or maladaptive behaviors drawn from psychiatric descriptions. By using this method, the
The clinician seems to be asking the question, "What is the area of conflict?" rather than "How much conflict is present?"

The present day psychologist, who operates on the theory that behavior is a function of experience and a current environment, is primarily concerned with how the personality reacts to different kinds of life situations or environments.

The use of personality questionnaires of the forced choice type, such as the P.O.I. and the I.-E. Scale, eliminates some of the problems having to do with falsification of defensiveness. Other strong advantages to using this method are: (1) objective scoring; (2) group administration; (3) economy of the therapist's time; and (4) economy in scoring by the possible use of a machine.

Shostrom (1964) contended that a self-actualized person might well be seen as the product of the process of psychotherapy, but that in the past diagnostic instruments have provided the therapist with an accurate estimate of the patient's pathology and liabilities, thus providing a negative approach to the therapeutic process. In order to provide a positive value on the evaluative process, he developed a new diagnostic instrument, the Personal Orientation Inventory (P.O.I.) which consists of 150, two-choice comparative value judgments. Items were selected from observed value judgments of clinically healthy and clinically troubled patients, and from the research and theoretical formulations of Humanistic, Existential
and Gestalt practitioners. This instrument has a characteristic not attributed to other personality tests; value items are stated twice so that the particular continuum of the dichotomy in question is made explicitly clear.

Shostrom established reliability coefficients of .91 and .93 by test-retest methods. The test was administered to 650 students at Los Angeles State College, 150 patients in various stages of therapy, 75 members of the Sensitivity Training program at U.C.L.A. and 15 psychologists. Some of the facets of the personality considered by the P.O.I. are the degree to which the individual is free from social pressures, the degree to which he lives in the present as opposed to the past, the degree to which he is self-supportive, and the extent to which he is able to accept individuality in himself and others. Validation studies have shown a trend in discriminating between self-actualizing and non-self-actualizing individuals, and the field of clinical psychology can expect to see more future use of Shostrom's instrument.

**Empirical Studies Related to Self-Actualization**

To give empirical support to the theories mentioned earlier in this paper, this section of the literature review will deal with the empirical studies conducted concerning self-actualization, group psychotherapy and internal-external locus of control. The main body of the studies presented here will deal with internal-external locus of control, as this is seen
as a fundamental measurement and characteristic of self-
actualization and because this dependent measure is utilized
in the present study.

Peres (1947), through his empirical observations of
psychotherapeutic groups, found that:

1. Members expressed an increased number of
both positive and negative feelings toward
themselves and a decrease in the number of
ambivalent feelings toward themselves.

2. Positive action as a result of therapy was
undertaken by members.

3. Changes were carried over in attitudes and
modes of behavior in fields not discussed.

4. Changes occurred internally within the per-
sonality, rather than having specific external
problems solved.

5. The value of group therapy fell into two
classes: that of one being helped in indi-
vidual problem areas and that of one re-
ceiving benefit merely from being a member
of the group.

Maslow (1954) was so inspired by the concept of self-
actualization that he conducted a study to help him define
the self-actualized individual. His subjects for this study
were selected from among personal acquaintances, friends,
public and historical figures and college students. At this
point, Maslow expanded and restated his theories regarding
self-actualization based on empirical research. His study
showed self-actualized individuals to:

1. Have a more efficient perception of reality
and a much more comfortable relationship
with it.
2. Be able to more readily accept themselves, others and the nature of man. The self-actualized person lacks the overriding guilt, crippling shame and extreme anxiety found in neurotic individuals.

3. Possess spontaneity. His behavior is marked by simplicity and naturalness. He lacks artificiality. Convention does not stop the self-actualizing individual from doing anything he considers important, although he can easily accept convention concerned with trivial matters or to avoid needlessly hurting people.

4. Be problem centered rather than ego centered, generally focusing on problems outside themselves. They seem to have a mission in life to fulfill and live in the widest possible frame of reference.

5. Have a need for privacy and a quality of detachment. The self-actualized individual likes privacy and solitude to a greater extent than the average person. He has the capacity to put himself above the turmoil of the world and become more objective.

6. Be autonomous and have a sense of independence from environment and culture. They are growth motivated, therefore not dependent upon satisfactions of the real world, but rather upon their own development and continued growth of their potentialities.

7. Have a continued freshness of appreciation of life. Self-actualizing individuals reexperience again and again the basic goodness of life with awe, pleasure, wonder and ecstasy, while these same experiences may have become stale to others. Inspiration and happiness are derived from such things as nature, children, great music or sex rather than from money or materialism.

8. Be open to mystic experience. This is termed by Freud as the oceanic feeling. Self-actualizing individuals are open to experience situations in which they can sense limitless horizons opening before them, more power and
more helplessness than ever before, ecstasy and awe, the loss of placement in time and space, and the awareness that something extremely important has transformed and strengthened their lives.

9. Have intense feelings and sympathy for mankind. They have a genuine desire to help the human race. In general, self-actualizing individuals have a deep feeling of identification, sympathy and affection for mankind, despite occasional feelings of anger, disgust and impatience. This attitude is described by Alfred Adler as Gemeinschaftgefühl.

10. Have deeper and more profound interpersonal relations than other adults (children are exceptions here). They are capable of deep and rich ties with others; however, this involves rather few individuals. Nevertheless, they are generally hospitable to all people saving their hostile reactions for those who deserve it or are hypocritical, pretentious, pompous or self-inflated.

11. Have a democratic character structure. Self-actualized individuals have the capacity to be friendly with anyone with no regard to race, color, class, education or political ties. They learn from anyone who has something to teach, being well aware of how little they know in relationship to what could be known or what is known by others. They choose friends who are elite in character, capacity and talent regardless of race, family name, age, fame or power. Nevertheless, there is always a certain amount of respect for every individual.

12. Discriminate between means and ends. Their lives are not plagued by the conflict, confusion and chaos of the average man. Self-actualized individuals are never unsure about the difference between right and wrong in their lives, although their ideas of right and wrong are often not the conventional ones. They are considered extremely ethical people. For them, means and ends are clearly distinguishable. Generally, they attach importance to ends rather than means, with
means being definitely subordinate to the ends. However, self-actualized individuals often regard means as ends in themselves. For example, they enjoy getting to some place as well as the arrival itself.

13. Have an unhostile, philosophical sense of humor.

14. Be able to express their creativeness. Creativeness appears to be a fundamental characteristic of human nature; most individuals lose their creativeness as they grow up and become enculturated. Self-actualized people seem to retain their creativeness or regain it at some point in their lives.

15. Resist enculturation. Self-actualized individuals are not well adjusted to society, in that they resist enculturation and maintain a certain inner detachment from their culture.

Manis (1955) has further shown that over a period of time there will be an increase in agreement between an individual's perception of himself and his friends' perception of him and that changes in the individual's self-concept will tend to increase the agreement between his self-concept and his friends' perception of him.

Lefcourt (1972) reviewed empirical studies of internal-external locus of control and related investigations. He attempted to review progress in locus of control investigation by discussing it in terms of themes of importance as follows: (1) the resistance to influence; (2) cognitive activity; (3) deferred gratification, achievement behavior and the response to success and failure; (4) familial and social antecedents; and (5) changes in locus of control.
Lefcourt stated:

The locus of control construct is an integral part of the social theory. It refers to the degree to which individuals perceive the events in their lives as being a consequence of their own actions, and thereby controllable (internal control), or as being unrelated to their own behaviors and, therefore beyond personal control (external control).\(^{14}\)

In order to more fully understand locus of control and its empirical evidence, and how the concept relates to work done in this study, it is necessary to understand some of the seemingly unrelated aspects of locus of control as aptly related here by Lefcourt. Some of the studies that follow use the P.O.I. and I.-E. Scale, while others use other valid methods of evaluation. The studies do, however, reveal some of the characteristics of a self-actualized individual, particularly by defining the characteristics of internally versus externally controlled personalities. Internally controlled individuals are considered to be more self-actualized than those controlled by external forces.

**Resistance to Influence** - Lefcourt believed internal-external locus of control was related to an individual's ability to resist coercion. Individuals who believe they are responsible for their own fates (internal control) would be more cautious of what they accept from others than those who

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\(^{14}\)Herbert Lefcourt, "Recent Developments in the Study of Locus of Control," *Progress in Experimental Personality Research* (1972), p. 3.
feel they are not in control of their own fates (external control). The following studies investigate this premise:

Odell (1959), through the use of Rotter's I.-E. Scale and Barron's Independence of Judgment Scale, found external subjects to have a greater likelihood of conformity.

Crowne and Liverant (1963), by using an Asch-type task test, reported that externals are less confident in their own judgment abilities.

Gore (1963), by using the TAT test, found internal individuals less susceptible to manipulation by the examiner who was trying to influence the length of subjects' answers.

James, Woodruff, and Werner (1965) found that those who quit smoking because of the Surgeon General's warnings were more internal than those who believed the report but did not quit.

Getter (1966) described external people as his most responsive "conditioners." He used a verbal reinforcement procedure in his studies.

Lefcourt (1967) found that external individuals performed according to influencing directions while internals did not in an achievement oriented task. The externals were achievement oriented when the instruction so called for, while on the other hand, they were not achievement oriented when it was not stressed in the instructions. The achievement of internals, however, was consistent and did not vary with
instructions. The achievement of internals, however, was consistent and did not vary with instructions. They were more self-directed.

Johnson, Ackerman, Frank, and Fionda (1968), using a complete-the-story-type experiment in which a hero is being pressured to violate a social norm, found that the more internal the subject, the more the hero resisted the outside pressure in their completion of the story.

Lefcourt and Wine (1969) used an observation experiment to measure susceptibility to instructions given to individuals by an outside source. Two rooms were used, one in which instructions were given to the effect that the experiment involved focusing on attention. In the other room, no instructions whatsoever were given. Later the subjects were asked to enumerate their observations of each room. The observations of internal individuals varied little for each room, while the externals recalled much more than the internals in the room where instructions were given and slightly less than internals in the non-instruction room. In conclusion, externals' perceptual behavior was altered by a conceptual description of the purpose of the experiment, while the internal subjects' behavior varied little.

Ritchie and Phares (1969) found that externals were susceptible to arguments regarding government budgeting only when they were attributed to a high status individual. Internals were not totally immune to arguments although their
attitudes did not shift in correlation with the status level of the commentator.

Strickland (1970) found that internal individuals denied influence more often than external individuals. Internal-external locus of control was related to the denial of having been influenced by verbal reinforcements.

Hjelle (1970) found that when individuals were exposed to others advocating positions contrary to their previous attitudes, externals manifested greater changes in attitude than did internals.

Generally, then, these experiments drew the conclusion that individuals with internal locus of control are able to withstand pressures upon them to act in a certain manner. However, under special circumstances internals do yield to influence. They do respond to reasoned arguments by varied sources, to directives which agree with their own perceptions, and to situations in which they participate actively (role-playing). Externally controlled individuals, however, seldom resist pressure to change their attitudes or behavior. They become more responsive the more prestigious the source, and they readily accept suggestions and directions. Externals' desire for affiliation and dependence often overrides their moral standards.

Cognitive Activity - Lefcourt suggested that internal individuals would be expected to be more cautious and calcu-
lating about involvements and choices than would external individuals. Internals seem to be more curious about situations they find themselves in than others. Therefore, such self-directed people would seem to utilize more cognitive activity in making choices and decisions. The following research explored this possibility.

Seeman and Evans (1962) found that internal tuberculosis patients were more realistically aware of their condition than external tuberculosis patients.

Seeman (1963) found that among reformatory patients, internals with internal locus of control were more informed and knowledgeable about what was necessary to obtain parole than were externals.

Davis and Phares (1967) conducted a test in which subjects were informed that they would be given the opportunity to influence another subject's attitudes toward the Viet Nam War. They were told that the experimenters had a file of information on each subject and that they could ask questions regarding the other subjects. It was found that internals asked more questions and were more concerned about preliminary data research and preparation than were external subjects.

Phares (1968) gave subjects ten pieces of information about four male subjects, which they memorized. Later they were asked to pick mates and occupations for each male subject from a group of possible choices. Utilizing the information
they were previously given, internals were found to give more correct and extensive information. Phares, therefore, concluded that internals were more likely to use information than externals, even though each has equal access to the information. Therefore, he further concluded that internal individuals should have a greater potential for effectiveness in their social environment.

Lefcourt (1968) investigated attention-related responses in relation to skill or chance determined tasks. He found that internals were more deliberate when they perceived the task as skill related and that externals were more attentive and deliberate when they viewed the task as chance related.

Lefcourt (1969) attempted to measure an individual's cognitive activity as it related to the interviewing of two individuals, one who had normal eye contact and one who acted unusually in terms of eye contact. He found, in general, that the internal interviewer was more attentive and curious about both subjects, always looking for cues and information to resolve uncertainties. Additionally, internal interviewers seemed to be more curious about the unusual subject than about the conventional one.

Lefcourt and Siegel (1970) experimented and measured performance in relationship to field dependence. Field-independent subjects had greater attentiveness and shorter reaction times than field-dependent subjects, where the experimenter controlled the stimulus.
Lefcourt, Gronnerud, MacDonald, Sordoni and Sordoni (1971) used a word association test to compare internal-highly differentiated individuals with external-low differentiated individuals. The test used a gradually increasing use of sexually-related words in a list. The internal-highly differentiated individuals were more cognitively alert and active and perceived the nature of the list much earlier than other subjects. Differentiation can be used in conjunction with locus of control in that they both pertain to assertiveness, experiencing oneself as a source of causation, and the characteristic of self-reliance rather than conforming and acquiescence. This test also showed externals to be more aware and responsive to the ludicrous aspect of the test.

In conclusion, the research relating internal-external locus of control and cognitive activity supports the hypothesis that internally controlled individuals are more cognitively active than externally controlled individuals. Internals are more aware of what is important to them and are anxious to seek knowledge that will increase their chances for success. Internals are more interested and deliberate in skill-oriented tasks.

Deferred Gratification - Another area of research into locus of control explores the preference for immediate versus delayed reinforcements. Internals should accept long time
delays between the expression of desires and their satisfaction, while external individuals should be more impulsive and prefer more immediate and easily attainable goals. The following studies research this concept:

Bailer (1961) found that the more internal the individual, the more he preferred a larger, delayed reinforcement rather than a smaller, immediate reinforcement.

J. J. Platt and Eisenman (1968) correlated Rotter's I.-E. Scale with time perspective and found that internals surpassed externals in their ability to determine time perspective. Willingness to defer gratification can then be related to an internal's capability for more accurate perception of longer lapses of time.

Walls and Smith (1970) found a correlation between internal-external locus of control and delayed reinforcement. Internals chose a larger but delayed reinforcement or reward even though they had to wait longer. They also found a relationship between internal-external locus of control and time perspective. Internal individuals judged the lapse of a minute more accurately.

From these studies, then, it might be concluded that there is a relationship between one's perception of control and time and one's willingness to defer gratification. The preference for delayed reinforcement and locus of control do seem to be related in that individuals with internal locus of control seem to prefer a larger delayed reinforcement rather
than a smaller immediate one.

'Achievement Behavior' - The largest number of research studies in this area have linked internal-external locus of control with grade-point average, achievement test scores and school room achievement behavior among grade school children.

Crandall, Katkovsky and Preston (1962), Chance (1965), Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPartland, Mood, Weinfield and York (1966), Harrison (1968), McGhee and Crandall (1968) and Roundtree (1971) have found that children with internal locus of control generally can be correlated with various aspects of children's successful academic achievement.

Chance (1965) showed that the Crandall's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale was related to school achievement criteria for both sexes.

Harrison (1968) correlated a sense of personal control with successful students regardless of socio-economic status.

Lessing (1969) related a sense of personal control with grade-point average regardless of I.Q.

Nowicki and Roundtree (1971), using the Nowicki-Strickland measure of internal-external locus of control, found that achievement was related to I.-E. for males but not for females. Intelligence, as measured by the Otis-Lennon Mental Abilities Test, did not significantly relate to I.-E. for males or females.

In general, there does appear to be a link between
internal-external locus of control and achievement although more extensive research is necessary in this area. The majority of studies, however, overwhelmingly showed a positive association between internal locus of control and successful achievement.

Response to Success and Failure - If an individual were too easily satisfied with small successes or too responsive to failures, the chances of his continuing in prolonged, sustained achievement would be minimal. For lengthy achievement behavior to continue, it seems that it would be necessary to have a more measured response to success-failure outcomes reflecting awareness and growth without overresponse resulting in terminations of efforts. The early studies linking internal-external locus of control to success and failure used level of aspiration of subjects, who state their expectancies for success and failure. In general, these studies indicated that internal individuals adjust their behavior more appropriately in regards to success-failure experiences than do externals in skill-determined tasks. The reverse is true in chance determined tasks, where internals became more random while externals show more experience related expectancies.

Phares (1955) and James (1957) found that in skill-oriented tasks, externals exhibited less expectancy shifts reflecting their successes and failures, and produced more unusual shifts.
Battle and Rotter (1963) and Lefcourt and Ladwig (1965) have found similar unusual shifting among externals. Moulton (1965) tied this kind of unusual shifting with a withdrawal from achievement challenge.

In conclusion, then, internals are more measured in their response to success-failure than externals in skill-determined tasks. However, some further studies have shed light on how internals and externals cope with failure experiences.

Efran (1965) found that internal high school students are more likely to forget failures than externals. Rotter (1966) suggested that externals have a lesser need to repress and are not as likely to blame themselves for failures.

Phares, Ritchie, and Davis (1968) found that externals were able to recall more feedback about themselves than internals; however, internals showed more interest and concern about confronting their personal difficulties.

While it might be suggested that internals are more defensive in the face of a threat, the majority of experiments argued against this. In view of the fact that internals are more ready to take action concerning difficulties, it seems that externals may be inclined to overwork negative details, confirming their sense of hopelessness. Instead, the internal dwells less on deficits and takes an active stance toward his problems. The external, who sees himself as more anxious,
lower in self-esteem and more neurotic becomes more ruminative about his failures, which helps to maintain his feeling of being controlled by fate.

Sources of Control Expectancies, Familial Origins - There has been only limited research into the effect of family situations on the development of internal-external locus of control in individuals, although there has been increasing interest in this area.

Chance (1965) used Crandall's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire and interviews with mothers, along with the Parent Attitude Research Inventory, to find that internal boys were apt to have mothers with permissive and flexible maternal attitudes, and expectations of early independence. He also found that earlier born children of both sexes were apt to be more internal than later born children, and that first born children were the most internal, reflecting the fact that they were given more responsibilities than later born children who were in the position of being helped.

Davis and Phares (1969), using the Children's Reports of Parental Behaviors Inventory, found parents of internals to be more accepting, having greater positive involvement, and being less rejecting and hostile.

Mac Donald (1971) used Rotter's I.-E. Scale along with a perceived Parenting Questionnaire to study a sample of college
students. The results again showed that perceived parental nurturing was positively related to internality on the I.-E. Scale as was parental consistency in maintaining behavioral standards.

Overall, the evidence in this area seems to be fairly consistent. A warm accepting home with predictable, consistent standards is generally associated with an internal child.

Sources of Control Expectancies, Social Origins - Research has been fairly abundant in regards to the social origins of internal and external individuals. Conclusions in general point to the fact that class and race, or caste-related disadvantages result in the development of individuals with external control expectancies. A number of recent investigations involving black and white Americans have agreed with these conclusions. Blacks score in a more external direction than do whites.

Jessor (1968) found internality to be directly associated with socio-economic status and perceived access to opportunities in the community.

Gruen and Ottinger (1969) found middle-class children to be more internal than lower-class children.

Hsieh, Shybut, and Lotsof (1969) found that I.-E. scores for Anglo-Americans, American-born Chinese and Formosan Chinese ranked in the following manner: Anglo-Americans scored as the most internal, while Formosan Chinese scored as the most ex-
ternal with American-born Chinese in the middle range.

Walls and Miller (1970) found internality to be positively related to educational level.

Changes in Locus of Control - Changing one's locus of control is a common goal of psychotherapy. A variety of studies has been conducted in this area. Some focused on locus of control changes resulting from natural events, while others show changes resulting from some form of psychotherapy.

Lefcourt (1966) suggested that if behavior is to be modified, an external locus of control is an obstacle and should be changed.

Gottesfield and Dozier (1966) found that slum-dwelling poor people involved in a community action program increased their expression of internal control expectancies.

Gorman (1968) found that young people scored more externally on Rotter's I.-E. Scale the day following the 1968 Democratic Convention, when they realized how little control they had over the political events that were occurring.

Pink (1969) has shown that age change influences I.-E. scores, older children being more internal than younger children.

Lesyk (1969) used a token economy on a ward of hospitalized female schizophrenics to study internal scores on the Bialer scale. Patients were given tokens for behaving
appropriately. After five weeks, patients in this study made fewer and fewer expectancy shifts and scored higher internally on the Bialer scale. Also, the patients with the highest positive behavior ratings had the most internal Bialer scores and had fewer unusual shifts in their expectancies.

Smith (1970) compared I.-E. scores of clinical patients in crisis situations with patients beginning long-term psychotherapy. After five weeks of therapy designed to help these patients adopt coping techniques, crisis patients recorded a decrease in externality while the long-term patients remained the same. The crisis patient, suffering extreme uncertainty, learned to confront his acute problems and thus restored his sense of control.

Duo (1970) contrasted the effects of action-oriented versus reeducative therapy upon locus of control. Using a situation directed at improving interpersonal skills, the action-oriented therapy involved the planning of specific behaviors for improving relationships with given persons, while the reeducative approach was directed toward influencing the clients' attitudes toward the given persons. In both treatment programs, Duo found decreases in externality in comparison with a control group. The action-oriented group, however, became the most internal.

Gillis and Jessor (1970) used a sample of hospitalized psychiatric patients and found that a group which a therapist judged as being improved, showed more of an increase in
internality than a sample of untreated patients and a group which was judged as not having improved.

Nowicki and Barnes (in press) attempted to change locus of control scores with a group of deprived, inner-city adolescents in a camp situation. The camp was highly structured with emphasis on contingent reinforcement for good and poor behavior. Five out of eight sub-groups increased significantly in internality, while only one sub-group did not increase, but remained the same.

The cumulative results of these tests show that there is a definite correlation between I.-E. locus of control and therapy improvement, especially in therapy of a problem-confronting nature. There is a theoretically probable relationship between increased internality and increased perception of personal control. As one becomes able to cope with immediate difficulties, he also experiences an increase in perceived control.

This concludes the literature review which has attempted to review available literature concerned with self-actualization and internal-external locus of control. The review covered: (1) the concepts and theories of self-actualization; (2) techniques used to improve or facilitate self-actualization; (3) measures of self-actualization; and (4) empirical studies related to self-actualization.
CHAPTER III

METHODS

A vast number of the theories regarding self-actualization have been supported by numerous empirical studies. To provide further research in relation to self-actualization and group psychotherapy, it is the purpose of this paper to study the effects of the therapeutic group on self-actualization and internal-external locus of control as measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory (P.O.I.) and Rotter's Modified Scale of Internal-External Locus of Control (I.-E. Scale).

Hypotheses

On the basis of the available literature dealing with the effects of groups, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypotheses I: The scores and evaluations of the experimental group (therapy group) will change significantly toward the self-actualized pole on the P.O.I.

Hypothesis II: The scores on the I.-E. Scale will change significantly in the direction of a higher score.

Hypothesis III: The P.O.I. scores will change to a greater degree than will the I.-E. scores.

Hypothesis IV: Self-regard scores on the P.O.I. will be among the very lowest attained.
Hypothesis V: Control group scores will not change significantly in either direction on either the P.O.I. or the I.-E. Scale.

Subjects

The subjects (S's), eighteen in number, were students enrolled in Interpersonal Communication 110, Introduction to Interpersonal Communication, Spring term, 1973, taught by Dr. William W. Wilmot, University of Montana, Missoula, Montana. Eighteen students enrolled in Interpersonal Communication 111, Introduction to Public Speaking, Spring term, 1973, taught by teaching assistant Jeanne Tognetti, comprised the control group.

Prior to therapy, base scores on both the P.O.I. and the I.-E. Scale were assessed for all groups. The therapy group received a total of seventy-two hours of group experience, while the control group was an attention placebo group receiving regular, conventional, classroom instruction in public speaking. At the end of the prescribed time (ten weeks of three two-hour meetings per week plus four outside meetings), the scales were readministered to all groups.

One of the facilitators in the therapy group was an Associate Professor of Interpersonal Communication at the University of Montana. The other was the author, a graduate student in Interdisciplinary Studies, having received training and experience in group psychotherapy at the University of Montana and at the New York State Psychiatric Institute,
New York City.

The nature of the experimental group provided the participants with the opportunity to openly interact with one another, to freely give and receive feedback in a non-threatening environment, and to participate in both verbal and nonverbal exercises aimed at providing the participants with stimuli upon which interpersonal interaction might be based. No one was forced or coerced to participate in any activity of any kind. Regular attendance was strongly encouraged, however, and interaction was based entirely upon willingness to participate.

Readings from two texts served as additional stimuli. These texts were: (1) David W. Johnson's, *Reaching Out: Interpersonal Effectiveness and Self-Actualization* (1972); and (2) John Stewart's, *Bridges Not Walls: A Book About Interpersonal Communication* (1973).

Some examples of exercises experienced by the therapy group were discussion and exercises about:

1. self-disclosure--Johnson, Chapter 2; Stewart, Chapter 3.
2. verbal expression of feelings--Johnson, Chapter 5; Stewart, Chapter 4.
3. listening and responding--Johnson, Chapter 7; Stewart, Chapter 2.
4. acceptance of self and others--Johnson, Chapter 8; Stewart, Chapters 5 and 6.
5. nonverbal expression of feelings--Johnson, Chapter 6; Stewart, Chapter 7.
6. solving interpersonal problems and conflicts—Johnson, Chapters 12 and 13.

7. increasing one's communication skills—Johnson, Chapter 4.

The discussions and exercises on self-acceptance proved to be invaluable and directly related to the portion on the P.O.I. dealing with self-acceptance and self-esteem. The concepts of self-actualization were discussed by the group. The members began to disclose personal feelings and events as self-disclosure was discussed and trust in self and others developed. Members began to bring to the fore problems in dyadic and triadic interpersonal relationships as methods of constructive confrontation were discussed and used, resulting in a clearer and more tolerant understanding of self and of others. Group cohesion, mutual trust and friendship began to emerge. Members began to experience an observable sense of freedom within themselves and others. These observations will be further explained in chapter five.

The experimental group also participated in exercises and activities not found in Johnson (1972) or Stewart (1973). These were:

1. The exercise on page 24 of Pfeiffer and Jones (1970), Cooperation Squares, was used in addition to those mentioned previously.

2. Group members were given responsibility for the leadership of one-third of the group meetings. This served as an important incentive for the individual member to assert his own feelings and
concepts of group activity and also to test them. The leadership of the group included such activities as: the blind walk, games of volleyball, a tinker toy self-expression group-expression exercise, and personal discussion. These exercises also served to foster facilitator-member role mixing.

3. The dyadic exercise found in the appendix of this paper.

4. Members wrote letters to themselves to be mailed to them by the facilitators in six months. These letters described where they were at the time they were written, what they had gotten from belonging to and being part of the group, and where they hoped to be at the end of the six month period. This was done so the individual could trace for himself his own growth, regression or expansion.

5. The questions evaluating self, group and future behavior found in the appendix of this paper.

In order to evaluate the theories and concepts regarding self-actualization discussed in chapter two, two groups were used. Group #1, serving as a control, was an attention placebo group receiving no group therapy, while Group #2 was an experimental group receiving a therapeutic experience. The P.O.I. and I.-E. scales were administered to both groups prior to and following the prescribed time.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In chapter two a vast number of theories were discussed regarding self-actualization and empirical studies supporting these points of view. Along these same lines, in chapter three the methods were discussed under which study was undertaken in order that further research might be provided with respect to self-actualization, group therapy and internal-external locus of control as measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory and Rotter's Modified Scale of Internal-External Locus of Control. In order to evaluate these theories and measures of self-actualization two groups were used: group #1, serving as a control was an attention placebo group, while group #2 was an experimental group experiencing therapy. The P.O.I. and I.-E. scales were administered on both groups prior to and following the prescribed time.

Data

Combined change scores on all scales of the P.O.I. and the I.-E. scale for experimental and control groups were rank ordered and medians for each scale were determined. These medians are as follows:

68
P.O.I. scales:

Tc, time competence          +1.0
I, inner directed           +3.0
SAV, self-actualizing value +1.0
Ex, existentiality          +1.5
Fr, feeling reactivity      +1.0
S, spontaneity              +1.0
Sr, self-regard             +1.5
Sa, self-acceptance         +0.0
Nc, nature of man           +0.5
Sy, synergy                 +0.0
A, acceptance of aggression +1.0
C, capacity for intimate contact +1.0

I.-E. change score median was 0.

Mean change scores for both groups separately were:

P.O.I. scales:

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tc</td>
<td>1.056</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>6.888</td>
<td>1.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAV</td>
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<td>0.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex</td>
<td>1.388</td>
<td>1.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fr</td>
<td>1.444</td>
<td>0.277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sr</td>
<td>1.888</td>
<td>0.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td>0.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nc</td>
<td>1.388</td>
<td>0.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sy</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.388</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td>0.944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>1.777</td>
<td>0.278</td>
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I.-E. change score means were:

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<th>Control Group</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.166</td>
<td>0.388</td>
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</table>

Chi square values for the median test comparing experimental and control groups were then determined on all scales. The chi square value needed to be greater than or equal to 3.84 in order to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. The chi square values were as follows:
P.O.I. scales:

- Tc : 0.467532 on 1 degree of freedom
- I : 2.090320 on 1 degree of freedom
- SAV : 1.083610 on 1 degree of freedom
- Ex : 1.777780 on 1 degree of freedom
- Fr : 1.800000 on 1 degree of freedom
- S : 0.130909 on 1 degree of freedom
- Sr : 4.000000 on 1 degree of freedom*
- Sa : 0.111455 on 1 degree of freedom
- Nc : 0.444444 on 1 degree of freedom
- Sy : 1.028570 on 1 degree of freedom
- A : 0.130909 on 1 degree of freedom
- C : 1.028570 on 1 degree of freedom

I.-E. chi square values for the median test were 1.870130 on 1 degree of freedom.

*significant @ .05 level of confidence

Support of Hypotheses

Hypothesis I: The scores of the experimental group (therapy group) will change significantly toward the self-actualized pole on the P.O.I. The null hypothesis could not be rejected; therefore, this hypothesis could not be supported on the whole. (In fact, when compared to the change in the control group, it was supported in only one sub-scale of the P.O.I.--the Sr or self-regard scale, which had a median of +1.5, a mean of +1.888, a chi square value of 4.0, and a phi coefficient of 0.222222.)
### Summary of $x^2$ Values of P.O.I. Subscales

#### Tc

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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Exceeds median</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Exceeds median</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equal to or less than median</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Equal to or less than median</td>
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$x^2 = 0.467532$

#### SAV

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<tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Exceeds median</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equal to or less than median</td>
<td>10</td>
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$x^2 = 1.08361$

#### Fr

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<td>8</td>
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$x^2 = 1.8$

$x^2 = 0.130909$
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sr</th>
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<th>Sa</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Exp. Control</td>
<td></td>
<td>Exp. Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exceeds median</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Exceeds median</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal to or less than median</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Equal to or less than median</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x^2 = 4.0$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$x^2 = 0.111455$</td>
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<tr>
<td>phi coefficient</td>
<td>0.22222</td>
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<td>phi coefficient</td>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nc</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Exp. Control</td>
<td></td>
<td>Exp. Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exceeds median</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x^2 = 0.444444$</td>
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<td>$x^2 = 1.02857$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x^2 = 0.130909$</td>
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<td>$x^2 = 1.02857$</td>
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Hypothesis II: The scores on the I.-E. scale of the experimental group will change significantly in the direction of a higher score. The null hypothesis could not be rejected; therefore, this hypothesis was not supported, as the chi square value for the I.-E. scale was 1.87013.
Hypothesis III: The P.O.I. scores on the pre-test will change to a greater degree than will the I.-E. scores. The control group had a chi square value of 1.45455, and in order for the results to be significant, a chi square value of 3.84 was needed. The chi square value of the experimental group was shown to be 7.11111, therefore, the results were shown to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. The experimental group had a phi coefficient value of 0.39506. Therefore, support for this hypothesis was shown by the results of the experimental group only. The results of the control group did not lend support to this hypothesis.

Experimental
P.O.I.  I.-E.

| Exceeds median | 13 | 5 |
| Equal to or less than median | 5 | 13 |

\[ x^2 = 7.11111 \]

\[ \text{phi coefficient} = 0.39506 \]
Hypothesis IV: Pre-test self-regard scores on the P.O.I. will be among the very lowest attained. The null hypothesis could not be rejected; therefore, no support for the hypothesis was shown. In only thirteen out of a total of thirty-six cases were the Sr scores in the lower 25 percent of the P.O.I. profile. Five of these were in the control group, while the remaining eight occurred in the experimental group.

Hypothesis V: Control group scores will not change significantly in either direction on either the P.O.I. or the I.-E. scale. The null hypothesis was rejected; therefore, support for this hypothesis was demonstrated. Refer to Hypotheses I and II above. It must be noted that there was also no significant change in the experimental group as shown by the lack of support of Hypotheses I and II.

Therapist Observations

While the statistical analysis did not show growth in terms of self-actualization, therapist observation did reveal, in fourteen out of the eighteen cases involved in the therapy group, trends in the process of self-actualization.
These trends as observed by the therapists were as follows:

A) self-reported change toward self-actualization. Members stated that they had become more self-actualized as a result of the group.

B) growth in ability to accept self.

C) a greater willingness to accept others as they are, without the overwhelming need to change or reform others.

D) a greater tolerance of self.

E) growth in the ability to make and maintain meaningful human relationships.

F) improvement in the ability to trust others.

G) improvement in the ability to self-disclose.


I) growth in the ability to reach out to others.

J) growth in the ability to confront others.

K) growth in awareness of self.

L) growth in ability to be honest.

M) improvement in the quality of existing friendships.

N) increase in amount of self-reflection.

O) a lessening of inhibitions and a growth in ability to "just be."

In three instances of the total eighteen members, therapists thought that self-actualization would be seen after the therapy group had dissolved itself, and that the time had not yet occurred for the self-actualizing process to actually take hold. In one instance it was felt, and the matter was dis-
cussed, that the tests would not measure the amount of self-actualization that had occurred.

In order to evaluate the theories regarding self-actualization, internal-external locus of control and group therapy mentioned in chapter two of this thesis, two groups were used. Group #1 was a control group, while group #2 was an experimental group receiving group therapy experience. No support was shown by Hypotheses I, II and IV; some support was demonstrated for Hypothesis III; and full support was given to Hypothesis V.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In chapter two the theories regarding self-actualization and group therapy and previous empirical work to support these theories were discussed. In chapter three the methods and procedures used in this study to evaluate these theories were discussed, and in chapter four the results of this project were discussed. They were:

Hypothesis I: The scores of the experimental group (therapy group) will change significantly toward the self-actualized pole on the P.O.I.--was not supported on the whole by the data.

Hypothesis II: The scores on the I.-E. scale will change significantly in the direction of a higher score--was not supported by the data.

Hypothesis III: The P.O.I. scores will change to a greater degree than will the I.-E. scores--was supported only mildly by the data.

Hypothesis IV: Self-regard scores on the pre-P.O.I. will be among the very lowest attained--was not supported by the data.

Hypothesis V: Control group scores will not change significantly in either direction on either the P.O.I. or the I.-E. scale--was supported but, in view of the lack of changes in the experimental group as shown by the lack of support for Hypotheses I and II, the findings are relatively insignificant.

In chapter five some reasoning will be offered to explain the lack of support demonstrated by statistics. The discussion
of this rationale will involve a closer look at: (1) the methods and instruments used to evaluate self-actualization; (2) the subjects; (3) the therapy (experimental) group and the control group. Several theories will be postulated for future studies and a new approach to the observation of self-actualization will be offered.

Before this is done, however, a review of the additional observer data presented in chapter three will be given. While the statistical data presented in this thesis did not lend support to the hypotheses offered, self-actualizing behavior and attitude changes did make themselves evident to the facilitator-observers, which, apparently, were not demonstrated by the test results. These behavior and attitude changes were:

A) self-reported change toward self-actualization. Members stated that they had become more self-actualized as a result of the group.

B) growth in ability to accept self.

C) a greater willingness to accept others as they are, without the overwhelming need to change or reform others.

D) a greater tolerance of self.

E) growth in the ability to make and maintain meaningful human relationships.

F) improvement in the ability to trust others.

G) improvement in the ability to self-disclose.

I) growth in the ability to reach out to others.
J) growth in ability to confront others.
K) growth in awareness of self.
L) growth in ability to be honest.
M) improvement in the quality of existing friendships.
N) increase in amount of self-reflection.
O) a lessening of inhibitions, and growth in ability to "just be."

These trends suggest that more was involved in the results than was demonstrated by the testing statistics. Therefore, one might not wish to close the case on support for the hypotheses.

Nevertheless, some reasons for the failure of statistical support for the hypotheses tested might be offered by examining point by point the following categories:

1) the instruments and methods used in this study
2) the subjects
3) the therapy (experimental) group and the control group

These reasons might be posed as questions and perhaps be used as hypotheses in future studies, because in this study they posed a question as to the validity of the results offered here.
Instruments and Methods

Under the heading of the instruments and methods used to evaluate self-actualization, since the P.O.I. and I.-E. scales registered no change between therapy and control groups, and since therapist observation demonstrated changes in both behavior and attitudes, it might very well be argued that, because the human being is so very complex, the P.O.I. and the I.-E. scales, at least in this case, did not measure, with any degree of accuracy, the trends of self-actualization observed by the therapists. The P.O.I. and I.-E. scales might only register change if the change is of great magnitude. Perhaps it is possible that, because of the high degree of complexity found in the human being, no accurate and reliable "laboratory" method of measuring self-actualization has yet been developed. Going a step further, perhaps the laboratory method used here is not the best and most accurate method of observing the process and results of the self-actualizing person. In this instance, one might wish to argue that the tests used did not measure that which they purport to measure.

Also, because members of the therapy group stated, and this statement was interpreted as being sincere, that they had hopes of becoming self-actualized as a result of the group, demonstrating that the motivation was present, it might be contended that the methods utilized by the facili-
tators were not the methods needed by someone seeking an aid in the self-actualizing process. In other words, it might be that the facilitators did not adequately meet the needs of the group members.

A second factor in the argument against the lack of support demonstrated for the hypotheses might very well be the thesis that the student is, by definition, a self-actualizing person. The student, at least the dedicated student, is searching and striving to become that which he is capable of being. Therefore, it might be contended that the student, be he in the therapy group or in the control group, is going to become self-actualized as a result of his endeavor to search out himself and become that which he is capable of being. Thus, change in self-actualization scores would be expected to be found in the control group as well as in the therapy group, simply because they were members of the selected population comprised of students.

Subjects

This brings us to the second category that might be examined in a search for a rationale for the lack of support given to the hypotheses--the subjects. As mentioned above, both groups of S's were comprised of students and this fact might be seen as a problem. Had the control group been taken from another population, i.e., businessmen, parents or clerical personnel, it might be that the growth in their
self-actualizing score would be considerably less than for students.

The control group post-tests were administered in the latter part of final week and this might have caused the student to feel more generous toward himself than reality would dictate. Another possible liability in the sampling procedure is that those persons interested in becoming involved in the process of self-actualization might actively have sought enrollment in the therapy (experimental) group, although the results certainly do not lead one to credit this premise. Another possibility might be that the students in both groups reported what they were feeling on the particular day of either the pre-test or post-test, and furthermore, that this report was not representative of the whole personality. Still another possible liability of the self-report test is that the self-perception of the reporter (subject) is not truly representative of the personality on the whole. All of these possibilities, when examined more fully, might very well account for the unexpected results found in this study.

Therapy Group and Control Group

The third category involved in the quest for an explanation of the lack of support for the hypotheses presented in this study are the actual groups themselves. The two groups used, both consisting of students, might indeed be samples
out of the same population. It might also be that the instruction offered in the control group might have been uncommonly effective in raising one's self-actualizing values. The other side of that same coin is the consideration that the experimental group might not have been exemplary of a constructive therapy group. A similar possibility is that the therapy group was somehow not in accord with the goals of these particular actualizing persons.

Still another possibility is the Hawthorne Effect. This principle states that a general improvement occurs in both morale and performance when management does something for the workers. No matter what was done for the workers—even when some new benefit was taken away—both morale and work output increased. Evidently, then, by simply paying attention to a group, performance may be increased. Therefore, one might contend that the very instruction itself received by the control group was sufficient to significantly elevate their self-actualization scores.

All of the rationale listed above appear to merit consideration and may very well serve, in future studies of this kind, as hypotheses in their own right. They are intended as such, at this point, as this study has rendered them unanswered.

For the person wishing to make further studies on these issues and subjects, the following recommendations are made:

1) A determination needs to be made as to whether the laboratory setting is appropriate for the study of the human being, his attitudes and his behaviors.

2) It is suggested that several groups be brought together for the consideration of becoming experimental and control groups and that care taken to assure that subjects be randomly assigned to the two groups. The researcher might wish to have more than one control, each coming from a different population.

3) Cornell (1972a) believes that the concept of "we-ness" is important to the growth and cohesion of a therapy group. Great care need be taken to develop and foster this feeling; therefore, members should be carefully selected, "fit, bounced and balanced," so that they fit together without the formation of elite cliques, but a certain amount of commonness is necessary to the therapy groups. In the study described here, it was impossible to implement this concept; the members had to be taken as they enrolled in the classes. No student could have been rejected if he sought enrollment in the class.

4) Also, the researcher might wish to consider having an experimental group comprised of other than students enrolled in a class, as a classroom situation might not be the most conducive atmosphere for the therapy group. It might be felt that the grading system possibly would inhibit or impede the freedom, spontaneity and intenseness required in the therapy group.

5) Future researchers might wish to extend the time between the administering of the pre-test and post-test, thus giving the members more time to self-actualize and for the

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benefit of the group to more fully and deeply take hold within the individual personality. Therefore, a period of time lasting as long as six months, nine months or even one year might demonstrate more change than did the three month period cited in this study.

6) Sessions might be extended to include 48 hour or 72 hour blocks of time, or marathons. Yalom (1970) and Bach (1954) see merit in this approach and state, "Tired people are truthful; they do not have the energy to play games. A 90 minute session is not long enough to compel people to 'take off their masks.'"

7) Cornell (1972b) believes that stability of membership is a prerequisite for effective group therapy and future researchers might wish to pre-screen members of a therapy group to ascertain the individual's motivation for regular group attendance. Most therapy can be expected to go through an initial stage of instability as some members drop out and replacements are added. Following this initial phase, however, regular and dedicated attendance is considered necessary in order that group cohesiveness and self-actualizing values may be attained. The classroom situation offers an advantage in that regular attendance can be strongly encouraged, but dedication and motivation might be observed to suffer as a result.

8) It is also felt, as was done in this study, that to give the members the responsibility for one-third of the total session time required by the group, produced positive results. This task oriented attitude serves

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to facilitate group cohesiveness and helps to avoid the therapist "laying his trip" on the group. The welfare of the group is shared experience and a shared responsibility.

9) It is helpful, when facilitating a group, to enter the process with a co-therapist. This will enable one facilitator to be more intimately involved with the group while the other remains objectively outside, purely in the role of observer. In this way, one therapist at a time can become intimately involved in the workings of the group, almost as a member would become involved; the co-therapist leadership allows the facilitators more personal freedom to self-actualize.

These nine suggestions are shared by many practicing clinicians in the field of group therapy. It must be remembered, however, that each group is very different and unique from any other and that each requires special tailoring to its own special needs and characteristics. Group work is very interesting, challenging and fruitful to the therapists as well as to the individual members.

In our culture the traumas of life in the twentieth century have resulted in emotional repression and deadening in many people, and in an increasing intellectualization as man attempts to live by brain alone. Participation in a group experience frequently confronts the intellectual with his self-seduction and encourages him to risk shunning his armour and his neurotic needs, to risk developing his emotional potential and to risk really feeling as he moves toward finding and developing himself as a whole person. One
of the great potentials of the psychotherapeutic group experience is that people have the opportunity, perhaps for the first time in their lives, for actual self-revelation, with honesty. If this process leads one to self-insight much has been gained. To the degree to which one owns self and is authentic, he does not have to hide behind the all too costly facade of status and neurosis, which keeps him empty and alienated, not only from others, but from himself as well. Through group experiences, therapists as well as patients are able to learn how to grow.

All group methods of relating, be they family, educational, spiritual, recreational, counseling, or therapeutic, allow for the development of some of the potentials in each individual. However, because a psychotherapy group is seen by many as providing the greatest opportunity for a person to experience nonexplosive relationships, it is one of the most meaningful settings for human potentials to develop to the maximum. Some believe that the group itself, and not the method of observation, is the laboratory of life, for being, and for becoming, in which each patient can be helped to move toward a clearer definition of himself, his potentials and his road toward self-fulfillment, while contributing in the very same vein to others.

No man is an island. Alone, no man could survive as a psycho-socio-biological being. For survival, let alone for
the development of human potential, relationships and communication are required. Interaction within the group allows for dependence as well as independence, giving as well as receiving, touching and being touched, and an encounter with oneself and with one's fellows which includes subjective-objective participation in a spirit of caring, mutuality, and affective honesty.

As discussed in chapter two, each individual personality has an inner potential for constructivity. When one's super-ego or conscience fails, societal practices, aided by law enforcement agencies, attempt to check and prevent the activation and expression of destructive elements of human behavior. However, in the group therapy session the individual has a unique opportunity to experience, reveal, act out, examine, and work through these destructive potentialities. This is a direct contrast to his experience in other group situations such as family, school, work, church, or recreation. At any one moment in the group healthy, constructive forces may be in operation, and at another moment these forces may be shadowed by the forces of destructive neurosis and in some cases psychosis. Karen Horney (1950) stated,

The analyst helps the patient to become aware of all the forces operating in him, the obstructive and the constructive ones; he helps him to combat the former and to mobilize the latter . . . the undermining of the obstructive forces goes on simultaneously
with the eliciting of the constructive ones.19

Following the exposure of latent constructive or destructive potentials, the group is motivated to help each member use his energies to develop his constructive potentialities, for here it is possible for a corrective attitudinal and emotional reeducation to occur. Group support, stimulation, encouragement and sharing in responsibility can help a fellow member take a constructive giant step forward in being, and becoming more authentic and real-self-fulfilling. In a group, there is a feeling that the responsibility for the action of one member is shared by others.

It has been my experience that the group milieu provides a background for the following significant maturing and self-actualizing processes and peak experiences to a greater degree than anywhere else: truth, beauty, goodness; caring, feeling, belonging; raw pain, despair, helplessness, weakness; fantasies, irrational thoughts, confusion; factual ignorance, wrong conclusions, inability to understand, comprehend or communicate; or simply communing with oneself or others in silence without having to make empty, superficial conversation. In the environment of interacting human beings gathered together in a spirit of mutuality while learning about oneself and others, it is possible freely and spontaneously to commit

19Horney, Neurosis and Human Growth, p. 341.
oneself, express one's innermost feelings, and develop the
courage to risk as one finds that others are able to do this
successfully, and are enriched and happy while becoming more
truthful and effective communicators.

As the functioning and cohesive group gradually "reaches"
the member, it calls forth an obligation from each person to
make the utmost effort to energize and utilize his or her
latent potentials and to give up neurotic patterns of thought
and behavior. The group, perhaps more than the individual
therapist, can act as a catalyst in motivating a stronger
commitment on the part of each member to change. The group
focuses on the need for each individual to change and puts
forth its own demand that he change as the price of remaining
in and belonging to the group. During a group session one
member or several members might confront, in a loving and
caring manner, another member by saying,

We were talking about you last night, several
of us here, and decided that you have changed
the least in the amount of time the group
has been meeting. We know very little about
you. Are you aware of this? Are you satis­
ied with this? You frequently speak about
your wife, your son, or your business or
your school, but we have rarely heard what is
going on inside of you. We like and care for
you, and would like to have you share your­
self with us in a meaningful way.

This is the group's expression of one of the most important
reasons for a group's existence—namely, that it is the
responsibility of the members, one person to another, to go
beyond what he is and has been, as he risks becoming what he can be.

Underachievers who amble through life in low gear because they have not previously experienced an accepting, supporting, encouraging, and caring human environment are forced, in a group experience to examine their neurotic, idealized, or hateful self-image and to acknowledge a more truthful self-image as they begin to function more authentically.

Some people first learn that fantasy is available to them when they listen to someone else's fantasy in a social or therapeutic setting. There are a whole host of people, patients and nonpatients, and even some therapists, who are "emotional illiterates," i.e., they are afraid to risk feeling and constructive fantasy-making because of a deep-rooted alienation from self or the lack of stimulation of their potential for fantasy-making. Just as we can meet in the group people who have given up wanting or wishing something for themselves, we can also meet those who are unable to fantasize for themselves, but can do so for others. For example, a man can express his fantasy of succeeding in a new business venture so that he may purchase a larger home, a boat, a new automobile for his family, or to save money for his wife's and his children's future. While these are healthy and caring attitudes, the group offers the individual the opportunity to fantasize for himself, not feeling guilty, but rejoicing,
in his endeavor to care for and to love himself.

I believe that we should pursue, with enthusiasm and vigor, research into finding new ways of freeing man to utilize more of his imaginative potential. We need greater freedom to express what is and what might be, that which is beyond classification as rational or irrational. In the psychotherapeutic group a member can identify with those who have sufficiently freed themselves from the shackles of their constrictive brain washing, and way of functioning, to feel, to want, to wish and to fantasize. Creative activity can at times replace words as a medium of communication, and people can be encouraged to disclose pent-up feelings symbolically through artistic expression. An art or music program can be developed to help people discover their inherent talents and unresolved problems through the process of creative flow. In the therapeutic process, a high value is placed on spontaneity, a capacity for an entirely fresh and different way of looking at things, and a willingness to give up looking at things through old and tired eyes, a love of the unexpected, nonconventionality, patience, intuitive inspiration, power to concentrate, personal courage, love of truth, and self-surrender.

In testing intelligence, most of the tests probe the informational and memorized "capital" of the individual, and much less his creative potentials, his specific ability, and
his ability for logical, mature and original thought. In the past, clinicians have used personality tests that stressed a negative view of therapy, by probing for pathology within the personality. The P.O.I. and the I.-E. scales were used in this study because of their purported ability to search out and relate to the individual as well as to the therapist, the strengths and potentials within the personality. In this way the therapeutic process can become a positive instead of a negative endeavor. When the therapeutic or self-actualizing process is perceived in a negative way, is it any wonder that few people take advantage of the opportunities afforded them to become self-actualized? On the one hand, society demands mental health, while on the other, the therapeutic and self-actualizing process is thought of in negative terms, the patient or group member is labeled by society as being "sick," mental health agencies and clinics are allowed to crumble, and little if any support is offered the mental health worker in the community.

For people to be involved completely with other humans, it is necessary that they learn aspects of communication not common to the lexicon. In a group the potential to become aware of, plus the opportunity to practice utilizing and interpreting body language is markedly enhanced. In the group there is an opportunity to learn that nonverbal communication, by itself, or in conjunction with the more
commonly thought of method of verbal communication, is of major importance, not only as a medium of expression, communication, and imparting information, but also to establish, maintain or regulate relationships. Videotape equipment is most helpful in the endeavor to utilize nonverbal communication in a group setting.

In individual psychotherapy the silent patient rarely develops much of his potential, but in the group therapies even a silent group member is able to realize much of himself as he identifies with and participates in the disclosure of many new feelings and experiences held by his fellow members. He may gain insights which permit him to abandon his self-apathy while he expands his vision to his assets and liabilities, and his life as a whole. In listening to and seeing others, he may begin to hear and see himself.

Family therapy seems to be a logical and necessary development of the group therapy process for those therapists who wish to identify more accurately, healthy, unhealthy and distorted family attitudes, values, and behavior patterns by experiencing them in the here and now of a family group meeting. Firsthand observation and experiencing of a family's interaction offers the therapist a more complete diagnostic continuum, so that he may more realistically evaluate the family gestalt, thus minimizing secondhand reporting about family events from individual members of the family. By
focusing on what is happening in the here-and-now aspects of the family, by experiencing the whole family or parents and child together, by becoming less afraid to bring one's own inner experiences into the dynamic, therapeutic process, one can more readily come closer to knowing the family multidimensionally and helping the family to fulfill its potential together in more constructive ways.

Group methods, such as group process and T group seminars are becoming increasingly valuable in the training of psychotherapists and other community, educational and business leaders in becoming sensitive to the human process involved in relationship with others and with himself, e.g., in individual and group psychodynamics. In group therapy, the individual experiences what society forbids him to experience, thereby allowing him to authentically mature and become emotionally literate and affluent.

New contributions are being added to the growing theories regarding the advantages and impact of group membership. Wilmot (1975) suggests that when any given individual is involved with another person, his effect is greater than if he were uninvolved or still separate. This he refers to as synergy. When a change occurs in one member of the dyad, its effects are felt within the other member, which, in the course of interpersonal communication, brings about a response from the first member and the process continues on and on. Then
it only follows to reason that in the environment of the group, the effects can be even more strongly felt than in the dyad, because the change in the first person is felt by the other members of the relationship--assuming that there are nine other members in the group--and these nine individuals' reaction back to the original person, then, is much stronger and more keenly felt than if only a dyad were involved. He states, "Wholeness occurs whenever all the elements of a system are interrelated." These theories seem to lead one to conclude, then, along with many others, that group membership is highly beneficial to an individual personality seeking change and growth through the process of effective interpersonal communication.

The discussion in chapter five has brought to mind several questions concerning certain types of research in different settings and the effects of group therapy as a whole, in its endeavor to offer rationale for the lack of statistical support for the hypotheses involved in this thesis relating self-actualization and group therapy. While it is true that the empirical results offered here were relatively insignificant, at least in terms of what had been expected, it has not been proven either that the observational results or the overall empirical results of the group therapy experience were insignificant.

20William Wilmot, Dyadic Communication: A Transactional Perspective (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1975), p. 82.
While statistical results concerned with therapy groups, particularly those in this study, have been inconclusive, insignificant and others significant, we cannot discount the benefits of the group therapy experience nor can we rule out further research in this area. New approaches to the measurement of success in therapy situations are needed. Simply administering the same cut and dried tests to all the group members has not proven satisfactory. Steps must be taken to individualize the measurement techniques for each group member. Each individual member must be considered at the outset of the therapy group experience in terms of his particular characteristics, potentialities, goals and existing level of self-actualization, because a set or standardized outcome of therapy may not be desirable for all members. Different levels of self-actualization might be appropriate for different members of the group. Similar individualized evaluations must be made of each member at the end of a prescribed period of group therapy. For instance, a one to one (dyadic) videotaped interview could be made of each member prior to the group therapy experience and compared and evaluated against the same member's post-group videotape. The individual could be asked what growth or regression has occurred within him during the group experience; for who or what other than the person himself, could better assess and trace the development that may have occurred. The therapist could then share his
assessment of the process with the group member. A more clinical approach might reveal more realistic empirical results than the method used in this and other similar studies. Yalom concurs when he states, "... the standardized (nomathetic) approach to therapy outcome has severe limitations. I can think of no alternative except a laborious individualized (ideographic) approach to outcome."  

In conclusion, while they cannot be heavily supported through the use of the conventional statistical instruments (P.O.I. and I.-E. Scales), the hypotheses proposed have not been discredited either. The results of the P.O.I. and I.-E. scales have been at least balanced by the use of an individual pre- and post-test co-therapist observation approach, which found the results of the therapy process to be positive and constructive in terms of self-actualization and personal growth. Progress in the self-actualizing process was observed in fourteen out of eighteen of the subjects of the therapy group.

This project suggests the need for the development of an authentic and individualistic approach for measuring self-actualization in a group therapy setting and that in the future, the conventional and standardized methods of measuring self-actualization be replaced by a more sophisticated, individualistic and clinical, empirical approach.

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21 Yalom, Theory and Practice, p. 381.
APPENDICES
GOAL: To explore knowing and trusting another person through mutual self-disclosure and risk-taking.

GROUP SIZE: Any number of paired participants.

TIME REQUIRED: A minimum of 30 minutes. Time period allowed should be open-ended.

MATERIALS UTILIZED: One booklet for each participant.

The exercises beginning on the following page should be reproduced in the form of a booklet which presents one question at a time. The format of the questions as they appear in this book will illustrate where each new page begins. The format has been designed to accommodate one page for every quarter of an 8½ x 11" sheet of paper. Copies of this booklet may be ordered from University Associates for the cost of duplication and handling.

PHYSICAL SETTING: Participants are seated facing each other.

PROCESS: 1. Participants are asked to follow the instructions indicated in the booklet.

2. The facilitator may choose to conduct an open discussion of the encounter after the experience has been completed.
A theme that is frequently voiced when persons are brought together for the first time is, "I'd like to get to know you, but I don't know how." This sentiment is often expressed in encounter groups and emerges in marriage and other dyadic relationships. Getting to know another person involves a learnable set of skills and attitudes. The basic dimensions of encountering another person are self-disclosure, self-awareness, non-possessive caring, risk-taking, trust, acceptance, and feedback. In an understanding, non-evaluative atmosphere one confides significant data about himself to another, who reciprocates by disclosing himself. This "stretching" results in a greater feeling of trust, understanding, and acceptance, and the relationship becomes closer, allowing more significant self-disclosure and greater risk-taking. As the two continue to share their experience authentically, they come to know and trust each other in ways that may enable them to be highly resourceful to each other.

This dyadic encounter experience is designed to facilitate getting to know another person on a fairly intimate level. The discussion items are open-ended statements which can be completed at whatever level of self-disclosure one wishes.

The following ground rules should govern this experience:

- All of the data discussed should be kept strictly confidential.
- Don't look ahead in the booklet.
- Each partner responds to each statement before continuing. The statements are to be completed in the order in which they appear. Don't skip items.
- You may decline to answer any question by asking your partner.
- Stop the exercise when either partner is becoming obviously uncomfortable or anxious. Either partner can stop the exchange.

LOOK UP. IF YOUR PARTNER HAS FINISHED READING, TURN THE PAGE AND BEGIN.
my name is . . . .

my titles are . . . .

my marital status is . . . .

my hometown is . . . .

the reason I'm here is . . . .

right now I'm feeling . . . .
One of the most important skills in getting to know another person is listening. In order to get a check on your ability to understand what your partner is communicating, the two of you should go through the following steps ONE AT A TIME.

Decide which one of you is to speak first in this unit.

The first speaker is to complete the following item in two or three sentences.

When I think about the future, I see myself . . . .

The second speaker repeats in his own words what the first speaker has just said. The first speaker must be satisfied that he has been heard accurately.

The second speaker then completes the item himself in two or three sentences.

The first speaker paraphrases what the second speaker just said, to the satisfaction of the second speaker.

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Share what you learned about yourself as a listener with your partner. The two of you may find yourselves later saying to each other, "What I hear you saying is . . . ." to keep a check on the accuracy of your listening and understanding.
When I am in a new group .... 10

When I enter a room full of people I usually feel .... 11

When I am anxious in a new situation, I usually .... 12

In groups I feel most comfortable when the leader .... 13

Social norms make me feel .... 14

In ambiguous, unstructured situations, I .... 15
(LISTENING CHECK: "What I hear you saying is ....")

I am happiest when .... 16
The thing that turns me on the most is . . . . 17

Right now I'm feeling . . . . 18
LOOK YOUR PARTNER IN THE EYES WHILE YOU RESPOND TO THIS ITEM.

The thing that concerns me the most about joining groups is . . . . 19

When I am rejected I usually . . . . 20

To me, belonging is . . . . 21

A forceful leader makes me feel . . . . 22

Breaking rules that seem arbitrary makes me feel . . . . 23
I like to be a follower when . . . .

The thing that turns me off the most is . . . .

I feel most affectionate when . . . .

Establish eye contact and hold your partner's hand while completing this item.

Toward you right now, I feel . . . .

When I am alone I usually . . . .

In crowds I . . . .
In a group, I usually get most involved when . . . . 30
(LISTENING CHECK: "What I hear you saying is . . . .")

I am rebellious when . . . . 31

In a working meeting, having an agenda . . . . 32

CHECKUP: Have a two- or three-minute discussion about this experience so far. Keep eye contact as much as you can, and try to cover the following points:

How well are you listening? 33
How open and honest have you been?
How eager are you to continue this interchange?
Do you feel that you are getting to know each other?

The emotion I find most difficult to control is . . . . 34
My most frequent daydreams are about . . . .

My weakest point is . . . .

I love . . . .

I feel jealous about . . . .

Right now I'm feeling . . . .

I'm afraid of . . . .

I believe in . . . .
I am most ashamed of . . . .

Right now I am most reluctant to discuss . . . .

Interracial dating and/or marriage make me feel . . . .

Premarital or extramarital sex . . . .

Right now this experience is making me feel . . . .

EXPRESS HOW YOU FEEL TOWARD YOUR PARTNER WITHOUT USING WORDS.

You may want to touch. Afterwards, tell what you intended to communicate. Also explore how this communication felt.
The thing I like about you best is . . . .

You are . . . .

What I think you need to know . . . .

Right now I'm responding most to . . . .

I want you to . . . .

Time permitting, you might wish to continue this encounter through topics of your own choosing. Several possibilities are: money, religion, politics, race, marriage, the future, and the two of you.
APPENDIX II
APPENDIX II

Answer these questions based on your 110 experience:

1. Things I dislike about myself which I would like to change.

2. Things I dislike about myself but I do not dislike them strongly enough to strive to change.

3. Things I like about myself that I will strive to maintain.

4. Things I like about myself that others do not fully appreciate.

5. As a result of this class, my self-concept has -

6. As a result of this class, my interpersonal communication has -
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY


