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SOCIAL ASSESSMENT: A MODEL FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF PLANNED CHANGE

by
Frank Bobby William Hawkinshire V

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Abstract

SOCIAL ASSESSMENT: A MODEL FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF PLANNED CHANGE

By Frank Bobby William Hawkinshire V

This thesis attempts to adopt the model of assessment proposed by the Murray group (1948) to the problems of measuring planned change. The twelve steps outlined by Murray were modified to fit the task of longitudinal assessment. An outline of the model is presented, and the Lewinian (1936) view of personality is used as the psychological framework of the assessment scheme. Rating scales, observational procedures, and methods for data anlysis are included in the model.

The model was tested by applying it to an urban center community-based delinquency treatment project. The rating procedures and data analysis followed the proposed scheme. The assessment period consisted of two months out of the three-year life (1961-1964) of the project during the summer of 1964. Thirty boys (primarily lower class) were involved in the project all day for the entire summer. Prior to the summer program, 40 percent of participants had participated twice weekly. It was presumed that the summer program was sufficiently different in intensity, and with a predominance of new boys it was possible to treat it as a "new experience" for all participants. Fifty-seven boys were involved in the summer program, but only thirty records were used in this analysis due to missing data. Examination of the records of participants and nonparticipants

reveals no major difference between the sample and the total population.

The staff rated the boys on specific regions (targets of treatment effort), and an expected change picture for each subtype was written. This expected change pattern was the guideline in making predictions about the change process for each subtype. Flowing from each activity (work and discussion groups) was a variety of data. The ratings from these scales were recorded on graphs, at the close of the project, and the analysis of the change process was completed by studying the graphs. Various graphic analysis techniques were presented and hypotheses were derived from the expected change patterns.

Some of the findings of the study were as follows. Some subjects (20 percent) were stable in their behavior across situations (congruent), whereas others tended to be incongruent (47 percent). A third group could not be classified (33 percent, mixed). It was possible to analyze graphs by methods suggested, and change was established in twenty-two cases (74 percent), while four (13 percent) remained the same, and four (13 percent) declined in the groups. The ratings for work differed, with twenty (67 percent) improving, seven (23 percent) remaining the same, and three (10 percent) declining. A ceiling affect may have been operating in that subjects were rated initially higher at work.

Three target regions--affect, control, and skill--were found to relate significantly to various rated behaviors in the discussion groups, work situation, and interactions in cars. In attempting to assess behavior of boys, some caution about making interpretations

from observed behavior was necessary until expressive level was known. It was found that expressive level related significantly (.05) to both affect and skill, and skill was significantly related to the amount of problem-solving support or disruption given to others in discussions (.001). From the record analysis, highly skilled boys did not always use their skill to be productive in groups but often withheld and disrupted the process.

In locating when boys first showed signs of change, eleven (36 percent) changed first in the third week and fourteen (47 percent) in the fourth week. If this finding applies to more typical groups, then measures of change must be extended over long periods of time. When the source of first change behavior was investigated, discussion groups were primary (43 percent), compared to works (37 percent). When the nontherapeutic situation (the cars) was studied, twelve (40 percent) first showed change here as compared to work or discussion groups. This finding is in line with the prediction that some boys would change first in a situation of comparatively less structure than in a more structured situation designed to bring about change.

The need for a typology in order to analyze the data stands out clearly. The variety of change patterns complicates the analysis, and if the group is treated as a homogeneous unit the measures may cancel each other out.

PREFACE

This thesis attempts to provide a model for making a social assessment. It does not attempt to describe in any detail the nature of the project from which the data were gathered. This material was deliberately omitted because the techniques of doing social treatment were not germane to the task. There are undoubtedly readers who will want to know something about the project, and so, a few words are in order here.

The project was carried on in an urban center in Michigan, not far from the University of Michigan, from 1961-1964. Staff members for the project were drawn from the local community, with consultants and trainers coming from the university community. All of the boys were from the local community, having been assigned to the project as an alternative to confinement in a state institution. All of the clients were boys who had been engaged in repeated and serious lawbreaking activities prior to assignment in the project. In general, they were probationees who had not done very well on probation. There was a feeling of the judge, and others, that an effective program in rehabilitation needed to be situated within the confines of the community. The expense of providing living and feeding facilities could be eliminated and the money spent on program instead. Toward this end a joint undertaking of the university and the juvenile court was carried out in order to sponsor the program.

The staff for the project was a most unusual one and needs to be described. None of them had had any previous training in working with delinquent boys. Most of them were employed in the public schools as teachers before their active involvement in the project. They were young (under twenty-eight) and enthusiastic about their jobs. Most of the permanent staff became involved in the project by starting out as work supervisors on Saturday mornings in the early days. During the summer, the project went on a full-time basis, with the boys participating about 12 hours a day. The staff worked in the project full time during their vacation time away from school. Eventually two of the staff members relinquished their jobs with the public schools to become full-time employees of the project.

There was always at least one full-time secretary on the staff, and several female social work and psychology students did their field work placement with the project. Counting all who actually participated on a full- or part-time basis, about twenty-six staff people were involved at one time. During the most extensive operation of the project, fifteen volunteers from the community became actively involved in the family therapy, while two group leaders, four work supervisors, two trainees, two drivers, one school teacher, a secretary, and a director staffed the project. This large staff was maintained on an interracial basis throughout the life of the project.

Since the staff that came to the project was untrained, in the formal sense, active staff meetings were provided for training purposes. Consultants worked with the staff on group therapy techniques, family meeting skills, and work supervisory tactics. In

addition to helping with these therapeutic skills, the University of Michigan was responsible for conducting the research on the project. A second staff, housed at the university, was responsible for data reduction and analysis. As the various forms were completed, they were checked at the project house for completeness only, and then turned over to the research staff for processing. None of the staff who were involved in data-gathering were familiar with the research hypothesis of the study. Consultations between the research staff and treatment staff were around issues of data-collection techniques. The typology and expected change pattern was not exposed to the staff, so they remained unaware of the research design. In general, the treatment staff saw the data-collection job as an important one and were willing to spend the time. Several recommendations were made by the staff as to how the forms could be better organized for a more efficient reporting job. These considerations were accepted by the research staff and appropriate changes made. It would seem that the staff made a serious and conscious effort to carry out the research task without having any knowledge about the variable under study.

Some concluding remarks about the typical pattern of a boy's day in the project may help to put some of the pieces into place. The boys were picked up in station wagons and a bus in front of their homes each day during the summer. They were brought to the project house where half of them went into twelve-man group meetings and the remainder went right to the worksite for the day. The group meetings would run for about an hour, during which the boys would look at their behavior at work, home, or any other problem areas. At the end of this time they would be taken to the worksite

to join the rest of the boys. All four groups would work on projects such as clearing rocks from a golf course, raking leaves, cutting grass, or the like. They would have lunch at the worksite, and at about three o'clock the second half would return to the project house for their meetings while the first half continued working. At the end of an hour all of the boys still working would be returned to the house, and around five o'clock they would all depart for home. On occasion this routine would be broken up with a picnic or by going swimming.

A great deal was learned about social treatment with delinquent boys in this project, with this dissertation representing only a small part of the knowledge acquired from the effort. Nevertheless, the project made it possible my collection of the data for this study, and my sincere thanks go to each and every one who helped in so many ways to make this dissertation possible. Because of the confidentiality of juvenile records in the state of Michigan, it is not possible to mention names, but my personal thanks go to each one of the boys who were part of the project. They certainly provided many lessons that could not be learned in a classroom. For the labors of the staff who tirelessly recorded their impressions of what they were seeing and feeling in those tense times, my enduring gratitude. Their job was well done, and what little has been learned about social assessment can be directly attributed to them. Any mistakes which may have crept into this work are mine and should not be laid to them.

In any undertaking as difficult and time-consuming as this project, there is always a guiding spirit. In this case Dr. Ronald Lippitt more than filled the role. His tireless energy which

permitted him to meet with us over the thousand and one little crises of our day, or night, is just one example out of many. His clear, conceptual thinking taught us much about concepts and methodology about which we were ignorant before. More than anything, however, Dr. Lippitt represents one of those rare persons who knows how to be a wise friend "with influence." Drs. Jean Butman, Jesse Gordon, John Lofland, and Stephen Withey did much to help keep the focus of this effort and to bring clarity to this work. Their many hours spent on my behalf are gratefully appreciated.

There is the last group of those who helped whom I would like to thank: the Weincrott group under the supervision of James Bright, who devoted more than fifty hours of effort to the tiresome task of recording data from the scales onto the graphs. Their accuracy and Mr. Bright's persistence made the job go that much faster. Mrs. Eileen Entin devoted many hours to the organization of the data and preparing it for analysis. Many of her ideas on data analysis have found their way into these pages. Dr. Robert L. Smith brought much wisdom to the effort of data reduction, thereby moving the study along at a much faster rate. Mrs. Sharon Pietala and Mrs. Karen Donahue devoted hours to the typing of the preliminary drafts.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Major efforts are being made to improve treatment techniques with delinquent children (Grant, 1965). Similarly, greater attention has been focused on methods for determining the effectiveness of treatment programs on the clients (delinquency, Short, 1964; mental health, Zubin, 1953). These latter research efforts diverge along two major lines of investigation: (1) determining the validity of the treatment method itself, and (2) assessing changes taking place within subjects in the predicted direction (Argyle, 1961). Without making an extensive review, as Bailey (1960) has done, of the projects reported in the literature, there are some obvious problems which seem to block the thrust of these research efforts. First, it appears to be most difficult to determine the validity of experimental procedures employed (Bailey, 1960). Second, it is equally difficult to demonstrate by systematic and rigorous study changes in the subjects after the treatment has been applied (Powers and Witmer, 1951).

The Problem

Since these two central issues are hindering efforts at improving social treatment, this thesis is attempting to formulate an assessment model which offers solution to these dilemmas. The first issue, that of validity, will be handled in the following way:

1. The validity of the social treatment will be inferred if the subjects experience change in the predicted direction. This, of course, assumes that the treatment inductions were in fact responsible for the noted behavioral shifts. This assumption is made since the objective of this study is limited to establishing the sensitivity of the model for detecting change. In short, the central question of this study is: If changes are taking place, does the model detect them?

2. Validity of the model may be inferred if the changes in the subject's behavior can be detected and recorded systematically. This may include no change for some subjects, negative change for others, and positive movement for a third group.

Limiting the study to formulating a model of social assessment only precludes the systematic development of a complete typology, or even a theory of delinquency per se. Because such theoretical efforts are too complex to be dealt with in this thesis, we will simply present, without extensive evaluation, the theoretical basis for the treatment program from which the data are drawn. While questions of etiology are important in many research efforts, they are unessential to the development of an assessment model. There are, however, certain implicit assumptions about delinquent behavior being made by virtue of accepting the assumptions above (paragraph 1) about the validity of procedures used in the program from which the data will be drawn. These assumptions will be made clear so that the reader may keep them in mind as he attempts to evaluate the utility of the model. These assumptions are as follows:

1. The public behavior of subjects is directly shaped by components of their intrapersonal structure.

2. It is possible to infer the nature of this intrapersonal structure from observed behavior.

3. Behavior in general is situation-specific but intrapersonal forces tend to cause persistence in behavioral output beyond situational boundaries.

4. There is no delinquency trait[1] as such but the intrapersonal structure of the subject facilitates overt delinquent behavior.

A brief description of the project operations is included in Chapter IV to provide an overview of the treatment scheme attempted. This study is explicitly concerned with (1) whether the assessment procedures used were systematic enough to measure whatever changes took place within the subject, and (2) whether this would enable one to evaluate the usefulness of specific operational components of the project. Only after seeing what happened to the subjects can the effectiveness of specific techniques be evaluated. The utility of the model lies less in determining the overall success or failure of any total program to provide effective social treatment than in the ability to measure behavioral change in individual subjects.

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[1]For many years an intensive search has gone on for the cause of delinquency. Such factors as physical stigmata (Lombroso, 1764), intelligence (Goring, 1913), feeble-mindedness (Goodard, 1919) were all considered as the causative factor. Block and Flynn (1956) suggest that ". . . we may be able to discern the kinds of situational components which, in combination, tend to produce broad personality types and their tendencies to various behavioral disorders," as the most productive direction to take in looking for "causes" (p. 80).

Social Assessment

The concept of social assessment is central to this study. It is defined as those operations carried out to determine, systematically, the characteristic style of an individual interacting within his social environment. Both the individual and his environment are necessary phenomena to be measured in order to make a "social" assessment. Social assessment differs from clinical assessment in that the latter attempts to measure intervening variables of the subject's personality as they are acted upon by specified environmental inputs. Social assessment is concerned equally with the above and with the subject's outputs to the social environment. The assessment of the individual and of the social situation constitutes the central concern of social assessment.

The emphasis of traditional clinical assessment[1] appears to be placed on the characteristics of the individual as they are demonstrated within a specific environment but not as these characteristics interact with the environment (Allen, 1958). In this study the concept of assessment is extended to include the techniques attempted with delinquent youth to measure planned behavior change (rehabilitation). Many of the procedures developed in the assessment field for evaluating the individual and his situation are particularly

---

[1] Cronbach (1960) limits the use of the term "assessment" to "the dynamic interpretation of the person by means of a single complex test or a whole assortment of techniques is frequently called 'assessment,' to distinguish it from psychometric measurement. Assessment most commonly takes one of two forms. The first is clinical analysis. . . . The second is prediction of performance of normal or superior persons assigned to responsible jobs" (p. 581).

appropriate for this critical and unique task. The assumptions made in this view of delinquency suggest that there are states within the person which contribute significantly to his behavior. The way this behavior is viewed by society determines what gets labeled as delinquent. On the other hand, there are conditions in the environment itself which will lead the child to act in ways which will cause others to label him as delinquent. The social and psychological functioning of the child are the important elements to include in any assessment of rehabilitation efforts. The techniques worked out in predicting performance (Murray et al., 1948; Stern, Stein, and Bloom, 1956) offer important guidelines for the assessment of rehabilitation efforts. The environment is seen an important variable not to be controlled for but rather a stimulus source to be carefully measured. Despite an interest in the environment, this study is limited to the interaction of the actors in a particular situation rather than the total objects in the physical and psychological environment or life space (Lewin, 1936). This limitation was necessary because there was no way to assess systematically the total life space of the subjects in the project.

Current Models for Social Assessment

As one reviews major attempts to measure behavior change of subjects, the before/after model ranks very high on the list of possible methods. Campbell and Stanley, writing in Gage (1963), have given a list of additional designs. The before/after design attempts to determine a person's behavior prior to an event, provide the experience most likely to change that behavior, and then remeasure on a posttest. Any change in the behavior under study can

be posited to have come about from the experience provided. Greater sophistication about this design has led to the recognition that many things could contaminate the results. The following factors, according to Campbell and Stanley, could raise doubts about the results obtained:

1. History
2. Maturation
3. Testing
4. Statistical regression
5. Biases from differential selection
6. Experimental mortality
7. Selection-maturation interaction.

The list of possible contaminants is impressive and thought-producing but the design seems to be relatively appropriate to very simple learning situations. Furthermore, a unitary view of behavioral change seems most explicit in the before/after design. If one wishes to apply the design to vastly more complex human events then major modifications seem to be in order. The basis for such modification should lie in an explicit personality theory which points to psychologically important components of the actors. For the assessment process to make sense, there must be some clear statements about people. Again, not just anything about the actor but the important components of the person which are to be modified by the experience, the expected responses to change pressures, and the ways they will manifest themselves are all critical dimensions about which explicit statements must be made. Systematic statements about the dimensions indicated above are necessary precursors to the development of a research design which would be appropriate to carry out the assessment task. Furthermore, the task of developing

appropriate assessment techniques can be facilitated by this type of theoretical specificity.

The first task, therefore, in developing a model for the assessment of change during treatment is to make an explicit theoretical statement of the appropriate concepts of personality which underlie the change attempt. Adopting just any personality theory to buttress one's search for a new methodological design might prove to be an idle gesture, however. For a concept of personality to be useful to a model of social assessment, as herein defined, it must include explicit statements about the nature and patterns of behavior change. Many personality theories are not dynamic in nature but rather attempt to provide a static picture of the persona (Cattell, 1966; Hunt, 1950; Guilford, 1959). The theoretical conception of change must encompass notions of movement which reflect varying patterns other than a straight line or "trend" (Campbell and Stanley, in Gage, 1963, pp. 207-12). As Campbell and Stanley point out, changes in behavior may include "regression" as well as "progress" in the same subject. Both of these patterns of change must be part of the theory. A useful personality theory must include explicit statements about the interrelationships or reciprocal interaction between the environment and the individual.

Relevant Personality Theories

Investigations of personality have pointed to the clear impact of the situation (either other actors, objects, or both) on the expression of "personality" or behavior (Murray, 1938; Murray, 1948; Duffy, 1961). For an assessment scheme to be effective it must detect the influences of the situation per se, rather than attempting

to "control for" the environment. The most helpful personality theory for developing an assessment model must include some notions about the nature of these situational influences on the actors. Lewin's (1936) ideas on the matter seem most germane to these considerations. He states:

> One can hope to understand the forces that govern behavior only if one includes in the representation the whole psychological situation. Every psychological event depends upon the state of the person and at the same time on the environment, although their relative importance is different in different cases [p. 12].

Lewinian theory will be drawn on extensively as a theoretical foundation for the design of the model.

Another personality theorist has had something to say about the social situation. Murray (1938) developed some perceptive comments about the situation when he said:

> . . . it is clear that not all situations provide the same variable to the same extent, and, consequently, it can be said that a specific situation serves to isolate, or dissect, a specific part of the personality [p. x].

Beker, Eliasoph, and Resnik (in Riessman, Cohen, and Perl, 1964) state the case a little differently:

> There is a growing awareness among behavioral scientists concerned with personality that verbal and projective tests provide incomplete and inadequate data, especially with relation to overt, coping behavior. Traditional "objective" tests, on the other hand, elicit largely verbal responses to largely verbal items and may not be subject to generalization in terms of other forms of behavior either because of conscious or unconscious distortion or because a different dimension or level of behavior is being tapped [p. 259].

One of the difficulties of using personality theory to help devise an effective design for measuring planned change lies in the incompleteness

of the theories. Many theories do not describe the behavioral correlates of intrapsychic states so that it is impossible to determine or measure the presence or absence of the trait by observation. Without a clear statement of the relationship between behavior and internal states, it becomes difficult to use many personality theories as a framework to assess planned change. Cressey and Scheussler (1960) have come to the pessimistic conclusion that measurements of the intrapsychic states of delinquents have proved most futile in prediction (or assessment as the term is used here) studies. Studies which only use pretests and posttests indicate little significant change in the subjects when intrapsychic dimensions are measured. This is true even when much variation in behavior appears to have occurred in the judgment of those administering the treatment. In addition, it would seem that the lack of specified behavioral correlates to these intrapsychic events make most clinical assessment programs inadequate as the basis for determining the effectiveness of planned change efforts.

In view of these considerations, it is important at this point to indicate the specific requirements of a personality theory to be useful as a theoretical tool in designing an assessment model. The following requisites for a model for social assessment are:

1. An adequate theory of pesonality which suggests the nature and patterns of change which one might expect to see. (a) To be adequate the theory must include a systematic assessment of the social situation; that is, it must account for the interaction of subject with his environment and vice-versa.

2. A direct representation of intrapersonal events in behavioral terms so that they can be observed and measured in a systematic manner.

3. A design which is sufficiently encompassing so as to capture the complexity of social change. The following should be included: (a) An adequate measuring instrument to capture the complexity of the observed events. (b) Sufficient variety of observation so as to secure data on relevant events. (c) Sufficient opportunities for measurement as the theory would suggest as necessary to capture the desired information.

The second chapter of the thesis will review the personality theoretical bases of the model so as to make explicit the influence which certain theories bear on the model. The third chapter will attempt to conceptualize the model itself by isolating from the personality theory the abstract concepts with which the model will attempt to deal. The fourth chapter will discuss in detail the nature, limitations, and assets of the specific operations called for in the model. Subsequent chapters will present the analysis of the data as they reveal individual and group change patterns, and general conclusions about the theory of planned change and the social assessment model.

CHAPTER II

PERSONALITY THEORY FOR SOCIAL ASSESSMENT

Assessment procedures are extremely old, as pointed out by Kelly and Fiske (1951) and Murray (1948). They both cite the following Biblical example as proof of their statements:

> . . . Gideon is reported to have used a two-stage selection procedure in his war against the Midianites. Apparently, a proclamation was read out to the effect that "whomsoever is fearful and afraid, let him return and depart early from Mount Gilead." . . . "there returned of the people twenty and two thousand; and there remained ten thousand."
>
> "And the Lord said unto Gideon, The people are yet too many; bring them down unto the water, and I will try them for thee there; and it shall be, that of whom I say unto thee, This shall go with thee, the same shall go with thee; and of whomsoever I say unto thee, This shall not go with thee, the same shall not go.
>
> "So he brought down the people unto the water: and the Lord said unto Gideon, Every one that lappeth of the water with his tongue, as a dog lappeth, him shalt thou set by himself; likewise every one that boweth down upon his knees to drink.
>
> "And the number of them that lapped, putting their hand to their mouth, were three hundred men; but all the rest of the people bowed down upon their knees to drink water.
>
> "And the Lord said unto Gideon, By the three hundred men that lapped will I save you, and deliver the Midianites into thine hand: and let all the other people go every man unto his place" [quoted in Eysenck, H. J., 1953, pp. 138-39].

This approach to the selection of military personnel describes procedures which are now incorporated in the concepts of Gestalt or

"holistic" appraisals. These same principles can be borrowed for the assessment of planned change.

Common sense tells us that we make an assessment of people in every social situation. Despite the generality of this type of social assessment, frequent use has not led to precise techniques for carrying out the procedure. Various clinical assessment programs have been developed around specific instruments (e.g., Rorschach), specialized tasks (selection procedures, OSS, 1948), or determining traits (Character Education Inquiry, 1928-1930), but these specialized approaches have not led to a clearly developed methodology for the assessment of planned change. Since little has developed in the way of explicit statements about nonclinical assessment, it will be necessary to utilize guidelines and clues from various related experiences to develop an effective model.

The mental test movement has developed the most formal and complete assessment schemes and so it represents an important source of information in the evolution of a working model. The assessment work of physiological psychology also offers specific concepts of longitudinal assessments which should be taken into consideration in developing a model for social assessment (Ax, 1958; Foulkes, 1966). All of the above approaches will be helpful in building a model, but it is also important to make explicit the personality theory that is the foundation of the model. A model which is attempting to measure planned changes must rest on a clear picture of the nature of personality as it undergoes pressure for change. What is needed is a precise, conceptual delineation of those aspects of personality which are being measured and how these components are related to one another and to future behavior. This will be the task of this chapter.

There are three principal areas of conceptualization which are adequate to explore the components of delinquency: (1) delinquency as a behavioral phenomenon; (2) the interacting forces of the environmental presses and intrapersonal states; and (3) behavior, being a function of the interaction of these two forces (Moles, Lippitt, and Withey, 1958). A suitable personality theory must be able to handle, systematically, all three of these concepts. Delinquent behavior cannot be understood if the intrapersonal state of the subject is examined alone. Likewise, the observed behavior cannot be explained by examining the environmental presses alone. Lewin has stated it thus:

$$B = f(P \times E).$$

Behavior, he says, is a function of the person and the environment. Lewin (1935; 1936) has attempted to deal with these notions most consciously in his theorizing. His personality model places an active emphasis on the person acting or reacting to his physical and psychological environment rather than being a mere "victim of the system." For these reasons he becomes a particularly apt theorist to turn to in order to understand the change process.

The Life Space

The Lewinian concept of the "life space" offers important insights which can add specific directions to the development of a social assessment model. He was particularly interested in a psychology which could deal with individuals as persons rather than just as perceiving objects. He states:

> We have come to see that in investigations of this kind we must deal with persons as wholes to a much greater extent than in the psychology of sensation. In the psychology of sensation the individual's ideals, ambitions, and his social relationships play no role at all or only a subordinate one. But an experimental investigation of needs, of action, or of emotions cannot be carried out without taking into account the characteristics of the person, his momentary state, and his psychological environment [p. 5].

Lewin would include in any systematic statement of personality concepts which are broad enough to apply to the most primitive as well as complex bodily movements. He would consider insufficient to "take into consideration" emotions, cognitions, values, and social relationships. What must be represented within the context of a concrete situation would be all of the above but also involving specific persons in a specified environment. Lewin, therefore, developed the concept of the life space as a representation of the totality of facts which shape the behavior of a person at a given point in time. The task in the assessment process is to be able to capture as much of the life space as possible in order to detect any meaningful changes. Change is an important part of his theory and it will be central in the conception of personality used in this social assessment scheme (see Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley, 1958).

Components of the Environment

The physical and social

The environment is an important part of the psychological world of the person and it must be represented in the life space if the change behavior is to be understood. The two principal components of the environment of the person are the physical and the

social. The physical environment contains such things as the room, furniture, and other material objects which fill the physical space. The social environment on the other hand describes one actor's relationships to other persons. The personalities of these other actors vis-a-vis his own are the relevant concerns in developing an assessment scheme. The shifts in the interpersonal relationships of subjects are the primary targets of the measurement effort. The term "social position" is a familiar one, but Lewin's concept suggests that "position" may occur along a number of dimensions. Furthermore, the nature of a person's position affects his life space in important ways so that it alone may be powerful enough to lead to changes in his behavior. Any measures of the life space must include some concepts of position vis-a-vis other actors or objects. This model will be limited to assessing the social environment of the subjects rather than obtaining measures of the physical environment. While the physical environment does contribute some impact, especially in extreme situations, it is clear that the social atmosphere is of greater importance in shaping man's behavior. The greater amount of stimulation to the variance in the social environment makes a greater emotional and psychological impact (Lavin, 1965; Donahue, Coombs, and Traverse, 1949).

Effective social assessment must assay the force field established between the actors in the system. This, therefore, suggests that some systematic viewing of the total group atmosphere along specified dimensions is an important component to be included in social assessment.

Representation of the Life Space

Lewin provides some thoughtful guidelines here. He suggests that there is a useful dichotomy between the life situation and the momentary situation. He defines the life situations as "on the whole more constant, and in representing it one can reckon with larger time units" (p. 24). The momentary situation is as the name suggests the contemporaneous events. Assessment procedures which stress frequent measures throughout the period of the study are likely to tap the momentary situation as well as the more constant life situation. Those which are limited to one or two brief measures (e.g., before-and-after studies) are more likely to pick up only the contemporaneous events.

Influencers on the Life Space

Another aspect of the life space which is rather important to consider is the way in which it may be influenced. It is clear that perception is one of the chief methods of influence leading to cognitive changes, yet there are others. Changes in the state of the person induced by physical objects would be one example of an influence that is important to conceptualize. Lewin points to the fact that we do not have very precise ways of measuring the psychological, as opposed to the physiological, effects of light, heat, or open spaces. For example, we are equally incapable of measuring precisely, in psychological terms, the passage of a new law. The repeal of prohibition converted "moonshiners" to law-abiding citizens. Such a "physical" change should be measurable in psychological terms in order to understand the impact of social arrangements

upon people. In general, it can be said that planned change can come about through the influence of both perceptive and somatic influences. The techniques of data collection should be sensitive to both of these possibilities.

Properties of Life Space as Facilitators or Inhibitors of Change

The life space concept includes the idea that a particular person is located in a particular environment at a specific point in time. It then becomes a fundamental theoretical problem to decide what is person and what is environment. It is also necessary to decide on the nature and effect of the boundaries between the person and his environment, how one locomotes through the life space, and the forces which facilitate this movement. All of these issues bear directly on the question of deciding what things to measure to detect change. First, it is necessary to examine the question, "What is person and what is environment?" If some clarity can be obtained on this issue then guidelines for what is relevant to be assessed can be made. Lewin states it thus:

> Doubts begin to arise when one asks what is to be treated as person and what is environment, whether for instance clothes belong to person or environment. But however the details of the boundary between environment and person are worked out, the conception of a person in an environment is one of relative "position" [p. 41].

Boundaries

Lewin treats the issues of "person-environment" and "belonging" in spatial terms, thus calling into play the terms "region"

and "boundary." The life space can be divided into regions that are defined as physical spaces that are differentiated by boundaries. A boundary (which is synoymous with a physical barrier) has widely differing degrees of perviousness to external inputs, thus limiting the nature of external forces on a region. Some boundaries in the life space are walls of rooms, cliffs, and the like, having an impact beyond their degree of physical porosity. These objects have the property of limiting the ability of a person to move freely within his life space from one region to another. The degree of freedom of the physical environment must be considered in planning for change. On the other hand, there are psychological boundaries which limit the mobility of a person just as much as the walls of a room. A person who is afraid of another will curb his behavior when in that person's presence just as he would if a physically restraining force were applied to him. His behavior is likely to be very different when he is in the same room with only his close personal friends. The impact of a cramped car will limit the behavior of subjects, as well as the behavior of other actors present will set limits. Careful assessment will require the rating of both these "forces" for change. This also suggests that environmental influences either facilitating or inhibiting change attempts may not necessarily reside within the person but, in fact, may be in the physical life space.

Locomotion

Locomotion, another important concept, is a form of change within the life space of the person.

> There are very different kinds of locomotion. The person himself can move about. He can approach a goal or flee from an

> event. This movement can take place in a direct path or by ways of a detour. The movement can be free and open or secret, reluctant, and timid. It can take place rapidly or slowly. All this is true of bodily movement in quasiphysical or quasisocial fields. At the same time there is a real movement in the psychological field that one cannot call bodily movement [pp. 47-48].

An example of the latter kind of movement is a social relationship where it is said that two persons come "closer" to one another. Clearly this does not refer to bodily movement (although it may), but reflects the psychological spatial relations of the social interaction. In daily conversations people use these terms to describe the "feeling tone" of their social interactions. Lewin's model captures this concept of "locomotion" without physical movement. This is an important idea to understand when assessing change in a person's behavior because physical movement must not be equated with psychological movement. The degree of "closeness" experienced by a group working together may reflect on the nature and quality of work which they do. Closeness, as a psychological concept, may illustrate one type of movement of subjects toward a specific change objective.

Potential locomotion forces

If locomotion is blocked in some way, either physically or psychologically, Lewin suggests that the blockage may become a "force" driving toward a change goal. The tendency to locomote toward a goal does not suggest that the direction of movement is unambiguous. For example, it is clear that a general state of tension resulting from a general blockage may lead either toward a specified goal or in no particular direction. Unresolved or undirected forces arising in such a situation can be the source of new

directed locomotion when the environment shifts (e.g., via a boundary becoming permeable to crossing). At this point the forces take on specific direction and help locomote the individual toward a goal. This example demonstrates the need to be aware of changes in the environment itself if the person's behavior is to be understood. Care must be exercised to remember that the sources (or motivations) for change do not always come from within the person. Efforts should be incorporated in the instruments to tap potential forces for change.

Direction and intensity

Duffy (1962) adds an important new dimension to the Lewinian concept of "force" when she speaks of the direction and intensity of behavior. "Observation of behavior, as well as the analysis of current psychological concepts, suggests that there are only two basic respects in which behavior shows variation. These are direction and intensity . . ." (p. 5). Looking at Lewin's discussion of force, one has an intuitive feeling that there is an intensity notion involved as well as a directional component, but it would be difficult to tease the two apart. Duffy puts the matter thus:

> The behavior of the organism may . . . be described as occurring always with some particular degree of intensity. Approach or withdrawal may occur, for example, at a low degree of intensity, at a high degree of intensity, or at an intermediate degree of intensity. The intensity of response is measurable as the force of overt action, or as changes in the internal processes associated with the release of energy [p. 5].

Duffy does not add anything new to Lewin's position, but she does give greater clarity to his ideas. These clarifications have relevance for an assessment model in that the instruments should be

able to reveal not only the direction of "movement" of a subject within his life space but also note the level of intensity connected with it.

Life Space of the Person

Regions of the Person

Similar concepts can be used in representing the person within the life space as were developed above in representing the environment. The concept of regions has similar meaning when used to represent the person as when representing the environment. In Lewin's view human beings appeared to be a "mosaic" of a number of different components or "regions." These regions can be distinguished on a number of dimensions, one being the degree of centrality; that is, some aspects of a person are central to his "personality" while others are peripheral. Other dimensions along which regions may be differentiated are their degree of connectedness or separatedness. The relationships between regions and their degree of centrality have major consequences for an assessment model. The exact implications are to be spelled out in a subsequent chapter.

The importance of regions, however, cannot be overstressed, so a moment's reflection on them is in order. If the persons undergoing treatment is not responding to a particular intervention, then it is important to know what region(s) is being affected. It is critical to know if the region selected as the target of the intervention is being hit or missed. If the region is missed then no change can be expected. If it is being hit, then other steps must be taken to bring about change. Efforts to assess change have floundered

because they have failed to differentiate the person in the measurement process and therefore cannot assess changes in those areas which have been the targets of the treatment (Duffy, 1962, pp. 107-11). Another example would be, if there had been a 50 percent change in region A and zero change in B, then the net gain would be 25 percent. A third way to look at the problem would be in terms of forces. If change were produced by 50 percent of the force moving in one direction while in region B the force was moving 50 percent in the opposite direction, then the resultant of forces would indicate "no change." Many would settle for this answer as correct, but a number of things need to be examined further about this case. Some of the following points will become conceptually clearer when the concepts of dynamic dependency and tension systems are examined. These illustrations are offered at this point to be looked at tentatively until additional concepts can be developed.

1. It may be that the changes in the adjacent regions are unimportant in that the overt behavior of the subject is not affected by it. If so, then one could be misled into thinking there has been no demonstrated change when, in fact, there has been. (This might be the problem when intrapsychic measures show "no change" which do not seem to agree with anecdotal reports which do.)

2. Shifts in region B may affect behavior to a far lesser extent than A so that forces coming from one region will locomote the subject toward desired goals just the same, even though statistically there would appear to be no change. (This might be the problem when many of the assessment measures show no statistical difference between treatment and control groups yet there is a clinical impression of change.)

3. Granted equal effect of the forces on both regions on the subject, then inquiry must be directed at finding out if they operate simultaneously or in sequence. If simultaneous, then there would be "no change" in behavior as they would tend to cancel each other out. On the other hand, if they operated in a sequential way, then they would cause a vacillating pattern to the subject's behavior. (This might be the case when subjects are reported to regress from time to time.)

4. When these two intrapersonal regions of the person are related to the presence or absence of other persons in the life space, there are further difficulties. If region A exerts a force on behavior continuously, while B only when other significant actors are in the life space, then the nature and stability of the change effort will be quite different than if they both affect continuously the behavior of the subject. This idea could be extended to other components of the life space beyond people, i.e., physical objects. (This might explain the contagion of behavior that is seen when a certain member joins the group.)

Several of these points will be developed further.

Properties of the Life Space of the Person

It now becomes important to try to determine just how to conceptualize a person in his environment so as to best see change according to Lewin's scheme. First, a person can be viewed as moving toward change objectives as a single undifferentiated unit (Lewin uses the term "point"). On the other hand, there are times when greater clarity comes in speaking of only parts of a person as changing. Lewin suggests that both viewpoints can be used.

> For certain problems, however, one can represent the person in a first approximation as a point for the following reason: the person is a strongly unified whole. When we are not dealing with the dynamic differentiation of the person into part regions we can consider the person as a single system and can represent it as an undifferentiated region or as a point. . . [in the sense explained above]. One can use such a representation especially in those cases that concern the locomotion of the person as a whole. The same representation is valuable in treating forces which affect the locomotion of the person [p. 112].

A person can be treated as a whole when he is responding to a force only if the point of application of that force is unimportant. When this is not so, then it is only confusing (as indicated above) to suggest an undifferentiated object as the recipient of the force. The import of Lewin's suggestions is to be able to say in what ways a particular change attempt affected the person and which ways it did not.

Boundaries of regions

In order to conceptualize regions which shape the nature and extent of change within the life space of the person, it is necessary to have boundaries. Lewin defines them as "those points of a region for which there is no surrounding that lies entirely within the region . . ." (p. 118). To describe the impact of boundaries on change does not mean that they are necessarily sharp and clear, nor impervious and fixed. When the boundary has the property of being very unclear, then it becomes more useful to talk of a boundary zone through which one can locomote to obtain a new region.

Properties of boundaries

The presence of a boundary and its degree of clarity does not indicate the degree of perviousness to change attempts. A boundary may be sharply defined but still highly pervious to inputs. Boundaries, on the other hand, which offer resistance to psychological locomotion Lewin calls barriers to change. These barriers can then be rated in terms of their degree of resistance to crossing (e.g., solidity, rigidity, or elasticity). In assessing a subject, various test situations and conditions must be included in order to test the nature of psychological barriers. The nature of the barriers to movement may be determined directly by the variety of situations into which the subject is put. It is not uncommon for a person to say, "I don't mind writing a report, but I couldn't get up and give the report before an audience." Psychologically the meaning between writing and speaking are so vastly different that real barriers to behavior exist in one situation that do not in the other. In this example, writing versus speaking represent two significantly different ways of locomoting for the subject.

When viewing the person in the life space there is a tendency to see locomotion as being the movement of the person within the space. It is equally correct to see the life space itself as changing with the person having no active locomotion. It can readily be seen that a person's position in a group may shift very radically when other persons are added or subtracted from it. He can be the high-status member when surrounded by low-status actors, only to fall in status when the higher-status members return. Often in viewing the individual in a group these locomotions taking place within the life space are attributed to the person rather than the

field. Both conditions must be evaluated to determine the nature of the observed change.

Locomotion is not the only problem which barriers present to change. The degree of communication of one region with another is determined by the type of boundaries (or barriers) which exist between them. Communication is defined as "the degree of influence of the state of A on B," which limits influence attempts (p. 126). If the wall is strong then there is a low degree of communication and if it is weak then communication may be high. Communication may be asymmetrical in direction so that the influence of A on B is not at all similar to the influence of B on A. For example, a subject can make good progress in therapy but poor progress at work. These two regions of the life space would have a strong wall between them.

The life space or the person may be differentiated into regions so that one could be contained within another, overlap, or be completely separated by another. These are important distinctions as the type of relationship existing between regions depicts the communication between them. Two or more overlapping regions would be highly influenceable by a commonly applied external force. A subject who behaved very similarly at work and in school may be greatly affected by receiving praise for his diligence, thus improving his efforts in both. This is less likely to happen if the regions are widely separated. In assessing the nature of the two regions, determining the degree of communication between them will lead to a better understanding of the change processes.

Dynamics of Structural Changes

Some of the conditions which shape the speed at which changes of the person or field can take place may be described in terms of the fluidity, elasticity, or plasticity of the regions. Fluidity may be defined when "a situation is the more fluid the smaller the forces which are necessary, other conditions being equal, to produce a given change in the situation . . ." (p. 159). A situation is highly fluid when there is a high degree of cognitive uncertainty or a low degree of reality.

Elasticity is not covered by the concept of fluidity although they are closely related terms.

> By elasticity we understand the tendency of a changed region to return to its original state. It is obvious that the degree of elasticity can be different in regions of the same fluidity [p. 161].

The notion of plasticity includes both fluidity and elasticity. "By plasticity one should understand the ease with which a relatively lasting and stable change can be made in the structure of a region" (pp. 161-62). It is clear that these concepts are of major importance in understanding the process of change. It is possible to see the degree of elasticity by the speed, or ease in which certain behaviors are resumed after the original impact for change is made.

Dynamic dependency

When focusing attention on the person in particular, one could ask just how important the concept of region really is. Generally speaking, people behave as total units rather than as bits and pieces.

If one thinks of needs, it is very clear that satiation of one need (thirst) does not lead to satiation of all others. This is true despite the fact that the total person is involved in obtaining the water, so for this reason it is sometimes useful to talk about particular regions of the person. Not only should the particular regions be specified, but the degree of dependence existing between them must be described when looking at complex behavior. A person can be spoken of as well integrated into a social situation. This suggests that components of his behavior (regions) are appropriate to the situation. The concept of regions helps focus on specific aspects of the person or life space in making an assessment of change.

Extremely strong forces usually affect the entire person and it is useful to speak of a unitary structure (or point) when describing these situations. There are several ways that this unitary formation process could take place. First, boundaries could break down (integration); second, bridges could be built from one region to another (communication); and third, regions themselves could be moved around (translocation). The way an influence is mediated between two or more regions depends on the relationships between regions, properties of the regions, and the barriers between them.

Lewin thinks it possible to examine the content of the regions themselves to note relationships existing between them. The concept of tension is one such relationship. Tension may be defined as the state of one region relative to another as well as forces existing at the boundaries of a region. Changes in the state of tension within regions can involve the entire person or may be confined to tension states in one or a few regions. When several regions are involved, then a tension system exists.

Tension systems evolve when tensions existing in different regions become linked together into larger functional units. The relationship of these systems affects the way forces of change act on the person. For example, when many regions are united within one system, then the person can suffer general tension increase or reduction from a single force being applied or withdrawn. Measures which are too global will pick up nonrelated systems leading to an inaccurate assessment.

Impact of Structure on Change

The purpose of this thesis is to study ways of assessing change (either temporary or permanent) brought about in subjects. To do this it is necessary to examine the relevance of structure to change. There is a tendency to see structure as a fixed and unchanging property rather than the form that blocks, inhibits, supports, or facilitates change. A number of important concepts in Lewinian theory can be useful in obtaining a better understanding of the impact of structure on change. Lewin takes as his basic assumption that biological and psychological aging leads to increasing differentiation (division) of part regions within the person. These "younger" parts are viewed as less rigid than the older ones and more subject to and supportive of change. Integration is a way of consolidating old parts, or regions, as well as linking them into systems with an increasing degree of communication. This process may permit a number of blocking or inhibiting effects to be observed in planned change efforts with people. Lewin also points out that the intensity of input as distinguished from the nature of the input will make an important difference in the change process.

For this reason it is important to obtain some relative view of the intensity of response on the part of the subject to various kinds of inputs. The fluidity of the situation for the subject is most likely to occur at the start of a planned change attempt. This points to the necessity for initial measures of the subject in all areas of activity to see him when the situation is most fluid. This initial assessment might allow for the establishment of a "base line" against which future behavior of the subject can be rated. As the subject is exposed to treatment activities, it is expected that new or reorganized structural components will develop. As his behavior shifts, the new behavior will be more effective in coping with extreme stimulus input because the new patterns will contain more appropriate behaviors than the old. It is a case of success bringing on further success.

Degree of dynamic dependency of regions

When one studies carefully most evaluation attempts to measure planned change, it becomes clear that the person studied is conceived of as a unitary item (or point). All regions are presumed to be in dynamic dependency. Any treatment which is applied is thus presumed to have made some impact on the total person and thus global results are expected. Seldom does the concept of the person as consisting of regions which may be integrated or segregated come through. Seldom does one get the impression that the treatment was expected to have different effects on different regions ranging from a positive through a negative impact. If Lewin's model is followed, one can see why it is important to locate relevant regions and tension systems so as to assess most carefully those areas that are the targets of the treatment process. When it is clear that

an impact is being made on these regions, then and only then can efforts be taken toward assessing the specific treatment effects. The net result may indicate only little change because of the overwhelming stability of the dynamically dependent regions.

Degree of centrality of regions

The degree of centrality of a region is important in terms of the degree of access to external stimuli. Central regions may not be dynamically dependent with more exterior regions so that peripheral changes may have no impact on inner regions. Lewin would argue that the dynamic interdependency of regions of the person are variable over time from a very low level to a very high one. It is clear that under certain conditions, such as anxiety, sleep, or heightened emotional states, changes in functions will involve most, if not all, regions. The exact pattern of this arousal will differ with each person.

Physical properties of regions and barriers

An important set of concepts about structure relate to the nature of the region itself. If the region is very elastic, then any slight input will cause a change in structure. This suggests that the precision of the intervention effort would have to be much less sharply defined. Highly elastic regions are more likely to be affected by forces tangentially applied, so that broad spectrum methods for bringing about change could be used. The problem caused by this property is that change would not be permanent. This might very well account for many cases of observed change in subjects' behavior which cannot be confirmed on a posttest evaluation. The rigidity of the region, on the other hand, says much about the nature

of the input needed to accomplish demonstrable results. A much greater force is needed to change rigid regions over elastic ones.

The Life Space as It Affects Social Assessment

Lewin, as well as others, makes a significant number of comments about the situation and its meaning to the person being assessed. There is general agreement that the phenomenological basis of the situation is a critical factor. Life space is the term used by Lewin, whereas others have not used a specific term but are equally concerned with the issue. Cronbach (1960) put the matter this way:

> The logical way to determine typical behavior would be to observe the individual repeatedly in situations likely to reveal the aspect of personality in which we are interested.
>
> The first requirement is a sufficient number of suitable observations. No one act can be taken as typical, since it is influenced by mood, immediately preceding experience, details of surroundings, and other factors. There are cycles and trends in behavior [p. 440].

Cronbach's points raise several important issues for the model. First, he reinforces the idea of the need for repeated assessment because of the difficulty of establishing the typicality of behavior. Second, he suggests the need for repeated observation in order to establish behavioral trends and cycles. Third, he suggests the value of pattern or trend analysis as a method of handling the data, as opposed to traditional statistical treatments.

> The essential assumption in this type of testing (situational) is that we can generalize from a sample of behavior to performance in one class of situations.
>
> A person's behavior changes from situation to situation, however, and whenever one must understand the person as a whole, or must select situations to fit him, a simple prediction

> by sampling within one class is impossible. One must begin to learn what situations mean for him [p. 601].

Generalization of behavior is a fourth point made by Cronbach, and he questions the ability to do this from one class of situations. This further indicates one of the reasons why all activities or situations which the subjects are exposed to must be used for the active assessment of the participants, a principle carefully followed by Murray and associates (1938; 1948). It is important to note that Cronbach is viewing the person as a single behaving unit but he does point to various aspects of the person, such as mood, as a contributing force to behavior.

Duffy (1962) takes a somewhat different viewpoint about the way behavior should be viewed in the situation. Her approach suggests that behavior is somewhat more consistent than would be gathered from Cronbach's statement.

> Selectivity of response, which is the observable fact, shows certain consistencies which have led to the inference of orientation toward a goal, whether the goal be defined as drive-reduction or in other terms [p. 6].

It is clear that Duffy takes a very abstract view of behavior and greater predictability is possible within her framework. This level of abstraction, however, does little to differentiate the person into regions and part. Her statements do not completely contradict the general concepts which Lewin was suggesting and they even indicate reasons why behavior persists long after the situation has terminated.

Murray (1962) has had something to say on the matter which seems to unify the positions of Lewin, Cronbach, and Duffy as presented above. He reports:

> The reactions of the organism to its environment usually exhibit a unitary trend. This is the necessary concomitant of behavioral coordination, since co-operation implies organization of activity in a certain direction, that is towards the achievement of an effect, one or more [p. 41].

He sees behavior as being shaped by the social context in which it is produced. In order to obtain certain social goals, it is necessary for the behavior to be limited and conform to social constraints. These limitations alone will cause subjects to follow patterns and establish trends as similar goals are sought in the future. Assessing the social situations, as well as the individual's behavior is necessary to spot these trends. Murray goes on to emphasize the point that the behavior seen in an individual is not the result of random selection from all possible behaviors under the circumstances. He says:

> In the organism the passage of time is marked by rhythms of assimilation, differentiation and integration. The environment changes. Success and failure produce their effects. There is learning and there is maturation.
>
> Though the psychologist is unable to find identities among the episodes of an organism's life, he can perceive uniformities. For an individual displays a tendency to react in a similar way to similar situations, and increasingly so with age. Thus there is sameness (consistency) as well as change (variability) . . . [p. 43.]

Murray then switches his attention to focus in on the environment itself and its effect on the individual per se.

> Repetitions and consistencies are due in part to the fact that impressions of situations leave enduring "traces" (a concept for a hypothetical process) in the organism, which may be reactivated by the appearance of situations that resemble them: and because of the connections of these evoked traces with particular reaction systems, the organism is apt to respond to new situations as it did to former ones (reintegration) [p. 44].

Murray slides over the point of how the various "traces" from the past affect what happens in the future. He points to the necessity to be aware of this residue of past events in the individual but he fails to note its significance for the social situation, i.e., the group. For example, a strong emotional outburst by a group member will have marked effects on the group when it reassembles at its next meeting if these feelings have not been resolved. This tension state, like Murray's "trace," can be reactivated by the mere reassembly of the group. The situation may be objectively different, because of new members, etc., but the individuals may continue to deal with their feelings with similar behavior. The concept of "stimulus" meaning of the environment is an important issue to keep in mind.

Regions of the Person and Motoric Expression

Lewin has attempted to tackle the problem that many have struggled with--the relationship between inner states and exterior behavior. His conceptualizations tend to make the matter clearer and leave one in a position to see some of the problems confronting the assessor. He suggests that:

1. The inner-personal region may not be adequately expressed via the motor-perceptual region. Speech is a primary mode of inner-personal expression [p. 177].
2. There are great individual differences in the ability of persons to transmit information through the boundary zone of the motor-perceptual region [p. 178].
3. There are limits placed on the amount of expression which the motor-perceptual region can permit to be expressed at one time. Motor behavior can be expressive of only one or a very limited number of initial regions. Perceptual regions can express publicly more regions simultaneously [p. 179].

4. Expression of more central regions will be more difficult compared to more peripheral ones. Highly differentiated persons will be less able to express central regions compared to a poorly differentiated person [pp. 180-81].

These notions call for clear steps to be taken in assessment before meaningful inferences can be made from observations. If motor behavior is selected for assessment, then the "ability of the subject to express" inner regions must be determined. When this ability is clear, then one can assess more adequately what may be existent but only partly revealed. On the other hand, if the investigator is only concerned with manifest behavior, and he may be, then this is of less concern. Murray (1962) in his investigations states, "In our theoretical scheme, as well as in our methodological approach, we paid more attention to the manifest personality (behavior) . . ." of subjects (p. 31). If the aim of assessment is to provide a measure of the person's ability to interact in a social situation, then ratings of his public behavior will be significant.

One need, then, when assessing a person is to determine the nature and extent of his personal ability to express intrapersonal regions. The highly fluid situation will more likely reveal this expressive ability. This assessment task may not be a one-shot effort as it may at first appear. If the subject obtains more skill in intrapersonal expression, then there may be a marked change in his subsequent interpersonal relationships. It will be difficult to evaluate these changes unless there is a continual awareness of the level of expressive ability. If changes in the level of expression were the desired ones, then the intervention can be rated as successful. If the planned change strategy calls for an ability to express and adapt (or adopt new behaviors) it is then necessary to

determine if shifts in the behavior repertoire also relate to changes in the relative degree of expression of intrapersonal regions. This situation may explain the behavior of convicts who "learn" to contain their hostile expressions against authority while incarcerated but are just as hostile when released.

Motoric Expression and the Social Situation

Under certain circumstances the subject is better able to express specific intrapersonal regions than under others. The limits of both his ability and the situation combine to give these differing pictures of the same person (as with the convict above). Again, if the assessor is not alert to this possibility he may attribute "changes" to a dynamic process rather than to a more functionally related response to the social situation. What should be looked for under these conditions is the level or "trend" which can be discerned from these repeated shifts in behaviors in different situations. Murray speaks to this point by saying, "We must often base our diagnosis on the apparent trends of the subject's conduct rather than looking for the level of inner-personal functioning" (p. 13).

There is another point which should be kept in mind when examining the interaction of expression and the situation. The difficulty experienced by some subjects in expressing intrapersonal regions suggests that there be frequent opportunity for expression so as to be able to make a variety of observations. Although the original difficulty in obtaining a measure will still be there, the more repeated opportunities provided for expression, the more

likely it is to occur and be observed. Symonds (1931) has pointed this matter out most clearly when he says:

> A single observation is unreliable, a single rating is unreliable, a single test is unreliable, a single measurement is unreliable, a single answer to a question is unreliable. Reliability is achieved by keeping up observations, ratings, tests, questions, measures. . . . An adequate rating, on the other hand, requires the judgment of several raters in several situations at several different times. Reliable evidence is multiplied evidence.

The best way to circumvent the expressive level problem and obtain a valid measure, is to increase greatly the frequency of measurement. Variety of observation will allow the maximum amount of exposure and thus observation in different situations. This is not to suggest, however, that mere repetition of an invalid observation will produce a valid one.

Summary

The surrounding environment must be taken into consideration when doing social assessment, because it either inhibits (through barriers) or facilitates (through communication or locomotion) changes. In viewing the environment it is important to see it as possibly a differentiated unit with each region having some unique impact on the individual's life space. The barriers within the life space--e.g., social distance either physical or psychological--allow certain responses on the part of the subject. The person, on the other hand, must also be seen as a collection of differentiated regions who is capable of responding as a total unit (point), smaller subsystems (tension system), or as specific regions. In measuring the impact of change efforts it is necessary to know the degree of differentiation

existing within the subject to understand the responses. Once this is clear, then it iss possible to provide techniques for measuring the behavior, and understanding the data obtained. A global rating of a subject would be very appropriate if the subject's behavior is the product of the person acting as a unit (regions are dynamically dependent). However, more specific ratings aimed at specific tension systems or regions are necessary to detect change in subjects who are very differentiated into highly separated regions (strong barriers). The life space consists of different regions and these regions have different properties--e.g., elasticity, plasticity, or fluidity--which facilitate or hinder locomotion (or communication) through them. The social structure of a group which is very fixed because of caste or class lines would be an example of a rigid medium.

The nature of the region being assessed is also important in determining the type of intervention technique which will be effective. If the regions are very elastic, then broad-spectrum intervention techniques will be effective. If, however, the regions are rigid, then highly specific techniques aimed at the particular target regions must be used in order to bring about change.

External stimuli for change will be more readily obtained if the target region is peripheral rather than central, unless the subject is very undifferentiated.

CHAPTER III

A THEORETICAL MODEL OF SOCIAL ASSESSMENT

Chapter I presented both the reasons for and the focus of social assessment, whereas Chapter II outlined the parts of an integrated view of personality that would form the foundation of the assessment operations. This chapter will develop the conceptual model integrating personality concepts into a set of assessment operations. Chapter IV describes the specific operational details of the assessment procedures as well as the project. Chapter V will discuss the effectiveness of each particular step in terms of the data.

The steps which Murrary et al. (1948) specified as important to be followed when assessing people will be used as guidelines for this model. Some modifications, however, are necessary, and where needed will be pointed out. There are a number of additional issues beyond the mere formulation of a model which have to be looked at rather systematically when thinking about the overall assessment process. They are: (1) finding ways to record the desired information without negatively affecting the treatment program under study; (2) determining the feasibility of research and project staff to record and process data in the midst of an ongoing operation; (3) reducing the longitudinal data to the point whereby the results are in workable units of information rather than unusable

voluminous records; and (4) having the staff effectively utilize the knowledge accumulating about the change process in their daily treatment efforts.

All of these questions are important to answer if a functional model of social assessment is to be formulated. First the twelve steps proposed by the Murrary group will be discussed and then these more general questions will be examined. The first eight steps are preparatory to doing the actual treatment.

Twelve Steps to the Assessment Scheme

Step 1: Clarification of Assessment Objectives

The principal objectives of this model are to determine the rate and nature of planned change. The basic assumption is that each subject will experience the change program in slightly different ways due to his unique personality structure and individual differences in inputs due to his interests. The nature of his responses to change efforts will therefore be different. To capture the subjects' highly individualized response patterns, it is necessary to have: (1) procedures and guidelines which will bring order to the process so as to understand the results; (2) sufficient time allowed for orderly and repeated measurements of subjects so as to reveal differential rates of change between subjects; a variety of settings to reveal the variable nature of change behavior; and (4) a sufficient time period for the change picture to emerge.

Another part of the clarification question must be to select an appropriate assessment design. There were several factors which dictated the selection of this "holistic" approach. First, a

treatment objective was to provide the maximum amount of therapeutic inputs to the client. In order to gain this maximum effect, a variety of therapeutic situations were provided each day, e.g., group meetings, work, school, and family unity meetings. It was necessary to know what changes in behavior were taking place in each of these activities to determine the effectiveness of the treatment, so that specific assessment procedures were necessary. Second, the variety of subjects suggested the necessity of obtaining measures on each one in each situation so as to capture their varied responses. Third, the behavior of the various groups needed to be recorded so that the interaction between individual subjects and the entire group could be observed. Fourth, some physical descriptions of the situations in which the members were emersed was desired.

The problems posed by this assessment task required a radical departure from the more traditional before/after design. The procedures which Murrary and his group outlined in The Assessment of Men provided a more comprehensive approach. In this model, the staff was able to determine the ability of each subject to perform in specific situations, there was an evaluation of the individual's own personal style of behaving, and a general evaluation of the functioning of the group as it attempted to complete a task. The fit between the procedures outlined by the Murrary group and the needs of the project suggested the appropriateness of this particular design.

Step 2: Specify the Behavior to Be Rated

Each subject can be expected to respond uniquely to the situational demands of the change setting and to the social field

within the setting. The social interaction with other subjects and staff members will be influenced by the momentary state of the subject, as well as his total life situation. Therefore, we cannot reasonably expect to find each subject obtaining the same meaning for himself from the experience. These differences will also account for a variety of change patterns.

Since we expect each subject to be affected by the change attempts in slightly different ways, it is necessary to systematize these differences by developing a typology of expected change behavior. Furthermore, the instruments designed to assess the movements of subjects toward change objectives can be more precise when it is clear just what aspects of the person or situation are to be measured.

In developing a typology two types of specifications are needed:

1. Specification of important personality components (regions of the person) which are powerful shapers of the behavior of the subject. This will permit focusing in on these aspects of the person which must be modified, strengthened, or in some way supplemented.

2. Specification as to where the personality components are located within the inner structure of the person and how they are related to one another. Those that are more central will not be as easily communicated with, hence slower in receiving environmental change inputs than peripheral ones. Those regions with rigid barriers, that are highly interlocked in a system, or are highly elastic will show less change. Others that are more plastic, peripheral, and have permeable boundaries will be more easily influenced.

The sequence of events which flow directly from this step are: (1) selection of regions of the person that are clearly identifiable in behavioral terms; (2) rate subjects initially on these dimensions; (3) develop a typology which covers all relevant personality types included within the project; (4) classification of subjects into empirical typological subgroups; and (5) build an expected change picture for each group. This last step is most important in order to be able to derive meaning from the progressive, retrogressive, and stable points in the subject's behavior. The projected picture of change will allow interpretation through graphic presentations of the data.

In deciding on the specific individual behavior to be rated, the work of previous therapists in delinquency treatment was studied (see Moles, Lippitt, and Withey, 1959). Over the years these studies of the behavior of highly disturbed delinquent children have revealed high levels of hostility displayed against authority, flat affective expression, an inability to sustain meaningful relationships with adults and peers, and a lack of impulse control. These characteristics have been found to be important therapeutic targets to deal with in order to bring about changes in the children's behavior (Aichhorn, 1935; Redl and Wineman, 1959). For these reasons, these five regions were selected as specific targets of the therapeutic work of the project. Specification of how each subject is expected to change along these dimensions will be presented later.

In order to do effective therapeutic work it is necessary to know where the subjects are on each dimension defined as targets for change. A subject with a high level of hostility and very low impulse controls requires a different treatment approach from one who is hostile but has very high control mechanisms. From this

example it is also possible to see that the absolute level of hostility or control may differ from subject to subject but, more importantly, the interaction of these two regions within a subject can create wide differences in his overt behavior. Clear specificity of the regions to be the target of the change effort, and a rating of where the subject resides on this dimension will provide powerful clues for a more realistic picture of the change process.

Step 3: Design a Rating Scale to Measure the Personality Variables

In the example cited of the subject having a high level of hostility, or a low level of control, it was possible to select different treatment techniques on the basis of this classification schema. It should be equally clear that being ablt to make this type of rating would also be valuable in helping to specify the actual changes that might take place in the behavior of each subject. For example, a subject rated high in hostility level and low in impulse control initially might change in one of several ways. His hostility level might decrease without any change in impulse control so that he would appear impulsive but less hostile. On the other hand his hostility level might remain the same with major gains in impulse control. In the first case we might label the first person as somewhat irresponsible, whereas in the latter case the subject might appear tense and angry.

The original assignment of subjects to groups based on the analysis of where each subject was on the five target regions can best be accomplished by having two or more judges rate each region as to high, medium, or low. The criterion for assigning a

particular level of intensity would be determined by evaluating the behavior of the subject based on descriptive behavioral statements appropriate to each specific region (see Chapter IV for examples). When the analysis has been accomplished, then a typology can be worked out by assigning each subject to a category on the basis of his profile. In making the client-profile analysis, only those regions which distinguish the subjects into distinct categories should be used. Those regions which do not allow subjects to be divided up into distinct subgroups should be ignored in developing the typology but they should not be ignored in building an expected change pattern. The profile analysis only separates groups along the target dimensions, whereas the expected change pattern has to describe the subjects' behavior taking into consideration all regions.

Step 4: Develop an Expected Change Pattern for Each Major Profile Group

A picture of the change pattern of each major group can be developed on the basis of an understanding of the clients' expected behavioral pattern prior to any subjects undergoing any change. The change process is a series of steps along a continuum leading to a specified outcome. It is not a simple movement from state A to state B without intermediary positions. In fact, it is entirely possible that the subject may even withdraw from the change process from time to time. The subject's perception of the nature of the inputs into his life space and his skills in coping with these inputs will result in a variety of possible behaviors when subjects are compared. These variant behaviors at each phase of the process

must be reflected in the expected change picture if a conceptual understanding of change is to be obtained.

Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley (1958) have elaborated on the scheme developed by Lewin to describe the way subjects go through the phases of change. They cite Readiness, Unfreezing, Movement, and Freezing as the phases of change.

> Readiness can be defined as a "willingness" on the part of the subject to take on new behaviors; a preparatory set to changing, but not an actual change in behavior repertoire.
>
> Unfreezing represents the shifts in the personality structure of the subject which will allow him to learn or experiment with new behavior. This does not suggest an addition to the repertoire, but more experimentation with behavior.
>
> Movement can be defined as the point where the subject actually attempts to incorporate new behavior into his repertoire. He is consciously trying to make it "his own." His "dis-ease" and struggles make it clear that the behavior is not fully under his control.
>
> Freezing is the point when the behavior is now relegated to the "repertoire" and can be called for in relevant situations. The subject may have lost his self-consciousness about his behavior at this point as he sees it as a "part of him."

Using this theoretical formulation, subjects presenting certain initial behaviors can then be sorted out according to how their profile group is expected to go through the phases of change.

It is important to remember that this idea of change phases assumes that subjects may behave differently as they enter various phases of change. Developing this expected change picture will help in determining at what point in the change process the subject is in when evaluating his record. It is also important to remember that not all subjects will enter the treatment at the same point in the change process nor will they progress through at the same speed. Neither does it suggest that the movement of the subject through the

phases will be linear; it may be cyclical and involve shifting back and forth throughout the various phases. It should also be clear that equal change potential is not assumed for all subjects.

Characteristics of change process

When developing the expected phases of change picture there must be certain clear behavioral signs that can be observed for each category which will help establish the fact that the subject is located in a particular phase.

Characteristics of unfreezing

When unfreezing, an increased openness to the environment would be characteristic, with constrints on the subject's behavior lifted and a more direct presentation of self evidenced. Increased directness of expression of previously hidden inner feelings, either positive or negative, can be expected. An exceedingly hostile individual, for example, would be expected to increase his hostility over the readiness phase. In this sense, then, the subject may appear to be changing for the worse, rather than showing improvement as he changes phases. Evaluation of the subject's record at this point, without knowing his project history, might give the impression that therapy was useless or even harmful. Deciding between the possibility that the subject is not unfreezing, but rather in a nonfunctional regression, would be the critical issue. This decision could only be determined if there were guidelines as to the expected behavior pattern of subjects of a given type as they entered into a particular phase.

Characteristics of movement phase

The movement phase is best described as the stage at which the subject starts to try out new behaviors as he expands his repertoire. This expansion is accomplished by a trial-and-error process, resulting in the appearance of both appropriate and inappropriate behaviors. There may or may not be an openness to discuss this new behavioral effort, but a degree of self-consciousness about his actions can be expected. Failure to expect inappropriate behavior, as a valid measure of personal growth, has remained one of the major sources of confusion in assessment programs.

Characteristics of freezing phase

At the point of freezing the major experimentation with new behavior has ended and the subject usually consolidates around a certain mode. Inappropriate behavior diminishes and a very correct response to the situation is within the range of possibility (as in learning new manual skills). Any new developments in the behavior repertoire would be classified as a new unfreezing effort resulting in movement toward a new level of functioning. Movement through phases can be cyclical and one would expect with increasing growth and development that there will be some recycling.

Premature termination.--When a subject shifts into the "movement" phase there is the danger that adaptation of new behavior into his repertoire will cause some observers to think he is "cured." Premature judgments of readiness for termination from treatment come at this point because the experimental nature of behavior in this phase is not well understood. The high degree of tentativeness

and potential regression to old behavior is not fully recognized, and surprise and disappointment at "backsliding" is common. If it were understood that the movement phase still implied a high degree of "try out" then this premature judgment would not be made. Granted the subject has changed his behavior, but if this new pattern of behavior is looked at as merely being in an elastic state, the danger of positing permanent change in the behavioral repertoirs is obvious. If the new behavior is viewed as being plastic, then only a slight pressure would be required to "bend" the behavior back to its old pattern. Under the elastic state, the behavior would re-establish itself immediately upon release of change forces in the life space.

Step 5: Evaluate the Subject's Antecedent and Current Behavior

The nature of the subject's behavior prior to entering the project becomes an important source of data. It may be possible to use school, work, or court records to accomplish two important ends: (1) obtaining a general base-line measure of previous functions; and (2) contrasting presenting behavior with prior behavior to locate the subject in the appropriate phases of change process. This evaluation can be obtained if sufficient information is available to permit retrospective ratings of the subjects on the target dimensions. If this information can be evaluated in terms of the five target regions then the client profiles can be compiled prior to arrival of subjects. Early classification of subjects in this way saves valuable project time. However, statements of antecedent conditions must also be checked against information revealing the subject's <u>current level</u> of functioning. A comparison of antecedent

with contemporary information will help spot significant shifts in the subject's behavior upon admission to the project. Mere acceptance to a specific program might cause important changes in the subject's behavior. Exhibited signs of readiness by the subject for change would be overlooked without a base line provided by the antecedent analysis. Careful evaluation of the antecedent information can also lead to relevant clues helpful in developing the expected change pattern.

Concepts in behavioral analysis

Current behavioral analysis

A detailed evaluation of the antecedent conditions can also be useful in comparing ongoing behaviors of the subject arising out of events taking place within the project. The past behavior may help explain current behavior which is impossible to understand without a longitudinal picture of the subject's life situation.

The contemporaneous social situation may also be examined for important information about the subject's current behaviors. Typically only the subject is looked at when trying to understand his behavior, but both the physical and social components of the environment are important elements in the analysis. In order to understand what a subject is doing it is important to know such matters as where the subject is located and what events have just transpired and what might be happening in the future. Subjects who have just come from a vigorous game of football might not be ready to settle down to quiet reading.

When examining the social field, knowing what the other actors in the situation are doing can help explain the subject's behavior.

It is important to note if the subject always behaves a certain way in the presence or absence of other group members. If his behavior follows similar patterns this may prove to be predictive of trends developing in coping skills applicable to a variety of other situations. From a detailed analysis of this sort of the contemporaneous behavior there evolves a clearer picture of the subject as he undergoes the treatment process.

It should be remembered that the treatment effort was designed to have subjects interact intensely with each other in a variety of settings. In these different settings the group members would be looking at their own and others' behavior in an effort to move toward more acceptable patterns. This strong focus on feedback, reflection, and analysis of behavior makes the presence of other actors a critical factor in the treatment. In order to capture as many of the important interpersonal acts as possible, the kind of analysis suggested here is necessary.

Structural units and change

The behavior of the subject in the project cannot be evaluated just once and then laid aside. To make the kind of analysis of the treatment effects suggested above, it is necessary to monitor the subject continuously while involved in the project. As he moves from discussion to work group, the physical demand and social pressures will change and the data must detect these shifts as accurately as possible. These specific situational changes in the life space can result in a variety of different inputs to the subject, thus helping to bring about change. Isolating some of the components of the various situations can also reveal some of the pressures which are moving the subject toward trying out new behavior.

Locomotion analysis

One of the inherent problems in describing the behavior of subjects moving from situation to situation will be in knowing where they are located. A subject who is riding along in the car may be thinking about a problem that is psychologically distant from where he is sitting. His behavior then is being shaped by his thoughts rather than by his surrounding actors. When reporting the subject's behavior, it is necessary to determine the effect of change pressures psychologically distant from where he physically resides.

Potential locomotion

A review of the pattern of interaction of a subject within a group setting reveals potential for locomotion. Potential locomotion is defined as the ability of the subject to move into a new region of life space. An example of potential locomotion can be seen when two different subjects (A and B) are in a group. A can normally be the major influencer of B's behavior. Until A takes some action to activate this interaction only the potential for B's movement is present. The potential force for locomotion exists between the two, and actual locomotion, either psychological or physically, may be a result. Studying the behavior of subjects over time will frequently reveal examples of these potentials. Potential forces for locomotion also exist for the group. The behavior of the entire group may be very different on rainy days, after weekends, holidays, and on payday. When either one of these conditions becomes manifest, then potential locomotion in specific directions for the group as a whole can be predicted.

Step 6: Plant the Assessment Procedures within a Social Matrix Consisting of Clients and Staff

This recommendation of the Murray group (1948) can best be described as seeing the entire interaction of client and staff as the matrix out of which the assessment process arises. This view is offered in contradistinction to seeing the interaction of clients to each other as the only relationships to be examined. It was apparent to Murray and his co-workers that the behavior of staff affected the behavior of clients in important ways so that client-staff relationships needed to be evaluated. Comparison of rating styles of staff members, obtaining expression of their feelings about ongoing activities and crisis situations, as well as giving them an opportunity to describe systematically their relationship to the client would be ways of examining the interaction. This systematic evaluation of the staff-client relationship, of course, must take place in all areas of contact, formal as well as informal. The informal relationships often expose the clients and staff member to each other in slightly different situations. Changes in the environment will sometimes demand different behaviors from each actor, which in turn can provide a meaningful assessment opportunity for the staff member. The degree of rigidity or flexibility of the subject in shifting his behavior in keeping with the demands of the situation might be related in this type of interaction.

One advantage of embedding the assessment situation into the network of ongoing relationships is the possibility of seeing the client from a variety of social perspectives. This type of evaluation gives a broader picture of the subject's behavior repertoire; for example, relationships to authority and the ability to share authority

figures with others. All of these relationships are important in assessing the change pattern of the subject because they closely reflect the type of real-life demands that will be placed upon clients. This microscopic view of the real-life situation is an important vantage point which tends to become obscured in the typical assessment situation.

Step 7: Select Several Different Types of Procedures and Several Procedures of the Same Type for Estimating the Strength of Each Variable

A variety of activities should be provided on which the subjects can be assessed. This will optimize the spread of situational demands on the client which in turn will call for a variety of responses or initiations on his part. This provides the opportunity to test the range, flexibility, and appropriateness of his behavioral repertoire. As the therapeutic effort goes forward, as in the project to be analyzed, it is important to see how much carry-over of learnings takes place from situation to situation. Furthermore, it is important to allow the subjects to try out new behaviors in a variety of situations. The newly acquired learnings that take place in one situation may or may not be very relevant and easy to adopt to different situations. Take, for example, a client who is attempting to gain greater impulse control. In a therapeutic situation where his behavior is the primary focus of his attention, the needs for control may be clear. It may be more difficult for him to exert control in another situation where contagion or seduction to acting out is much greater. Providing a variety of situations for the subject to test out the issue of control is vital to him as well as to the staff.

These tryout efforts allow the staff to evaluate the subject's progress in a variety of settings. This will give a much more realistic view of the subject's behavior change to both staff and client. Seeing the need for a variety of rating situations must be an integral part of the assessment process and planned for by the staff. If situations are not carefully planned, but randomly chosen, this can then produce such a welter of behavioral responses from the client that the assessment picture becomes muddled. If variation is planned for, then staff will be better able to determine those social situations which are within the client's ability to handle and those which are beyond him at his current stage of development. Failure to provide this range of situations will leave the staff with the task of predicting future behavior from a very narrow sample of situations, none of which may be typical for that subject's life style.

General and specific factors

Assessing the subject in a variety of situations provides the opportunity of seeing how subjects function under differing degrees of structure. This procedure can accomplish the task of establishing the extent, nature, and saliency of a particular behavioral pattern. When similar instruments can be used, each rating task should require the staff to look systematically at similar behavior patterns, even though the activity may be different. A comparison of the subjects across situations will improve the quality of the rating process because a wide range of behavior can be sampled. There should be specific efforts, however, to look at the subjects from the unique vantage point of each particular situation. For example, the car used for bringing clients to and from the project will represent an entirely different set of experiences than the classroom. The degree

of structure in the car and the actors in the social field will be different and one might expect a somewhat different set of responses to ongoing events when riding than when studying. In general, then, the various situations should have two foci for assessment: (1) the clients' behavior in response to specific types of events unique to that activity; and (2) the general assessment of target regions of the subjects.

The assessment of target regions can be accomplished in two different ways. The first is by asking each staff member to make specific ratings of these target regions. A second way of doing so would be by content anlysis of reports or documents which are filed on the activity. This latter procedure would be less structured but may produce a way of cross-checking the saliency of the target regions for the staff as they interact with the clients in specific situations.

Step 8: Include in the Program a Number of Situational Tests in Which the Client Is Required to Function at the Same Level of Integration and under Somewhat Similar Conditions as He Will Be Expected to Function under in the Field

A great deal of controversy has been stirred up over this particular recommendation (Flanagan, 1961; Reissman, Cohen, and Peal, 1964). Part of this discussion can be seen as a semantic one. For the purposes of this model, any situation which requires the subject to "function at the same level of integration and under somewhat similar conditions as he will . . . in the field" is a situational test. This can be an important step if one examines the nature of the interactions which take place within a treatment

project. Many situations arising within an activity will require the subject to function by integrating his behavior into the context of the ongoing events in a manner similar to "field conditions." These types of activities should be part of the design of the project and should be carefully evaluated for their diagnostic and prognostic values.

The way the client behaves in the project school and special work program might be predictive of his future performance in school and on a job. This would be a situational test, having "field validity," without having to be constructed artificially by the staff. The critical problem is one of identifying activities having relevance to daily living and then providing a systematic assessment of the client's participation in the test situation.

There is a second use of "situational tests" which can come about in the actual therapeutic transactions. The client, as part of the therapeutic work, should be able to engage in anticipatory practice of some behavioral sequence which he is attempting to integrate into his repertoire. Under these circumstances, role-playing can be viewed as a "situational test" in that psychologically the client often feels that he is really dealing with a particular problem. He may not be comfortable with his position in the social field nor completely satisfied with his behavior, but it is a way of assessing his coping skills at a lower stress level. The stress will probably be lower, or at least different from the real situation, because the client is not "playing for keeps" and can repeat the behavioral sequence over again. This "play" condition may make a difference in most cases but still an indication of where the client stands in the treatment process can be determined.

There is a third condition lending itself to situational testing and that is by evaluating subjects as they go about normal routines within the project. The way the client relates to peers, adults, authority figures, divorced from any particular activity, demonstrates the behavior in a way approximating "field conditions." Information as to the subject's behavior under these circumstances can be determined by evaluating regular project reports. Content analysis of reports, where the situational context is made clear, would be a technique that could recover information from the data without having to "stage" a particular exercise. Most treatment projects have this potential experience built in but it requires a type of data collection which would make this kind of analysis possible. A log reporting events taking place during the day would be a good source of information.

Step 9: Construct a Sufficient Formulation of the Personality of Each Assessee before Making Specific Ratings, Predictions, and Recommendations

This step raises the possibility of two different tasks being performed. The first is obtaining a picture of the personality structure of the subject by initially assessing target regions in order to obtain a base-line measure for each subject. Once this measure is obtained, it can be repeated at stated intervals in the project to ascertain any movement on the part of the subject. In addition to this type of "bench mark" measure there is a need for information on how the subject expresses his inner feelings. If his ability to express himself is very low, then the measures of change might be more difficult to detect. For this type of subject, minor

fluctuations in his behavior may be indicative of significant change. On the other hand, a subject who is very expressive and then develops controls may show a marked diminution in his behavior indicating change. A clearer meaning of the observed behavior can be obtained if there is a picture of how expressive the subject was at the start. A measure of change may come from the relative changes in expressiveness of subjects rather than absolute levels of self-expression.

It should also be remembered that the expressive level of some subjects might be more easily affected by situational forces than others. In cases of this sort the presenting behavior of these subjects at the point of entry into the project may be confusing as the importance of situational constraints is unknown. Once these situationally sensitive subjects become "adjusted" to the new situation their actual level of expressive ability may come to the surface. Predictions based on first impressions of situationally sensitive subjects would be very wrong, but subjects whose expressive level is less affected by situational forces would be accurate.

Step 10: Write, in Nontechnical Language, a Personality Sketch of Each Assessee Which Predictively Describes Him as a Functioning Member of the Organization

Once the level of functioning of subjects in each target region has been determined, it should be possible to write a descriptive statement of the expected behavior for each subject. Subjects who have similar profiles on the target region assessment can be grouped. Once these descriptive statements are compiled for each type of subject, it is then possible to make a statement as to the

expected behavior of the subject, by phase. This longitudinal view of the client's behavior, by type of subject and by phase, permits the staff to integrate into a coherent picture the changes in behavior which they see taking place.

There may be some variance between observed change in similar clients and the expected change pattern. The variance may be explained by differences in expressive level of the subjects. The observed behavior of the subjects may be similar to the expected change pattern, except that the level at which the behavior takes place is much higher or lower than anticipated. Checking back on the expressive styles of the subjects may reveal the reason why there is a discrepancy in the intensity level of the behavior.

Step 11: At the End of the Assessment Period Hold a Staff Conference for the Purpose of Reviewing and Correcting This Personality Sketch and for Deciding on the Ratings and Recommendations of Each Assessee

Major modification of this step is required when the social assessment is part of a treatment project as compared to traditional selection programs. There needs to be continuous feedback as to the changes in clients' behavior to the staff, so that they can determine the effectiveness of various treatment strategies. Data can be helpful to staff members in working through some of their frustration about behavior change. For these reasons it is <u>not</u> desirable to wait until the project is over before this step is taken.

Reviewing the data at stated intervals would also allow better rating procedures to be developed or ambiguities in scale items to be cleared up. The construction of new or more effective assessment

techniques would be another reason for staff review of the data prior to the termination of the project.

The staff is also in need of periodic training sessions to use the information learned from the data to improve their therapeutic interactions with the clients. New techniques can be introduced to cope with developing problems or resistances to treatment which had not been previously resolved. The opportunity to change techniques or to revise the current view of the clients in light of new information is too vital a need to await the end of the project to prevent contaminating the ratings. Effective training sessions need not compromise the evaluative process.

Step 12: Construct Experimental Design as a Frame for Assessment Procedures So That All Data Necessary for the Solution of Strategic Problems Will Be Systematically Obtained and Recorded

The need for being flexible and "experimental" is clear from what was stated in step 11. However, the emphasis above was on "retooling" or "redesigning" the treatment and evaluative procedures rather than "experimenting" for the purpose of doing logocentric (basic) research. The focus of the experimental inquiry must be kept sharp to avoid the undesirable consequence of staff dissipating their energies in nonproductive ventures. The opportunity to develop new techniques for coping with behavior, assessing regions, obtaining more valid rating scales, etc., is "project-centered" research of a "retooling" or "redesigning" nature. Despite this limited focus, hard data centered around these issues would be extremely useful to the project as well as to the scientific community.

In short, an experimental approach should connote a critical examination of what is being done in order to take steps to improve or innovate on the current practice. There are a host of unanswered questions which abound in any project as complex as one involving massive assessment techniques. There is much to be learned, and experimenting with the process is vital to keeping the quality of the output high.

Problems of Rating

Throughout the discussion of the model a number of rating procedures were suggested in order to assess the clients. Inherent in any specific methodological approach are real problems which must be overcome in order to obtain valid measures. There are many standard problems typically discussed in the literature with regard to the type of ratings suggested here, but there are others which need to be examined. These problems are inherent in social assessment and will be mentioned briefly while other less explored issues--important for assessing planned change--will be examined in detail.

Expression of Self

A typical approach of the model assessment program reviewed here is the rating of the overt behavior of the subjects (Murray et al., 1948; Kelly and Fiske, 1951; Holt and Lubarsky, 1958). The behavior was rated on the basis of interviews, performance of specified tasks, and nonstructured activities. In these studies no attempt was made to determine the capability of the subject to express his inner

feelings. The sensitivity of the instruments needs to be checked to find out if they are capable of detecting the desired behavior displayed by the clients. Until the instrument sensitivity is determined, subsequent ratings will give confusing measures of the expressed behavior of subjects. This particular problem becomes especially important if the assessment scheme is designed to measure changes in the overt behavior repertoire of subjects. Without knowing the capability of the instruments it is difficult to interpret results.

A collateral problem of interest to those attempting to assess behavior change is finding the locus of change. It is possible that the actual ability to express feelings may change as a result of treatment efforts but it is also possible that familiarity, reduced anxiety, and other factors may lower the inhibitions on the expressive style of the subject. Valid inferences of change will be impossible to obtain from the data under these circumstances. It becomes imperative, therefore, to determine as precisely as possible the initial ability of the subject to express his inner feelings.

Location of Regions Affecting Ratings

Adopting Lewin's conceptualization of the structure of the inner regions of the person makes it possible to come to grips with locating regions affecting behavior. The location of regions in terms of their centrality or peripherality will greatly affect the feasibility of obtaining ratings and measuring change. If the target regions can be located along a continuum, then it is possible to design effective rating instruments. For example, Lewin suggests that central regions are more difficult to express than peripheral ones. Developing effective rating scales will require ratings of subtle behaviors

if changes in central regions are to be measured. It should also be remembered that less change will be shown in central regions, as opposed to peripheral ones with the same degree of input into the system. If this factor is clear, then expectation levels by which to judge the magnitude of change within regions can be set.

Variety of Regions Affecting Ratings

The assessment literature is full of concepts of personality traits (Cattel, 1966; Allport, etc.) which has some relevance to social assessment. It is pretty much agreed by these theorists that personality cannot be looked at as the product of a single trait. It is not agreed, however, as to whether you can or should rate personality as a global unit or as a collection of separate traits (Murstein, 1966). The discussion in the assessment literature is parallel, if not synonymous, to the assessment of regions discussed here. This issue cannot be resolved unless some way of determining the degree of interaction which might exist between traits is found. In Lewin's view there may be varying degrees of dependency between regions. For assessment efforts to be successful, it is necessary to determine where on a continuum a given behavioral pattern may be rated as well as the degree of interrelatedness of various regions. When the regions are highly interdependent, then a "global rating" can be applied. If, however, the regions are highly independent, then a global rating would not yield useful information. Murray (1962) found this intercorrelation among his variables and then used a "global rating." He states:

> The statistical analysis of the variables finally retained demonstrated that certain of them intercorrelated repeatedly to

> a significant degree. Most of these clusters seemed to correspond to our observation of people in everyday life. Hence, we concluded that they might be regarded as syndromes of functionally related factors which, for economy, could be used instead of the separate variable to portray a character [p. 30].

Variety of Situations Affecting Ratings

The distinction made between generality and specificity of behavior has been badly confused in the literature (Anastasi, 1954). It is clear that the whole issue of the relevance of expressing certain behaviors in a given social context has been overlooked. Reviewing the Character Education Inquiry (1928, 1929, 1930), their findings pointed to the specificity of character traits, such as honesty. Reading what they had to say closely, it becomes clear, however, that they were speaking of one or more separate behaviors which were being rated in different situations as being highly specific to that particular situation. The relevancy of a particular behavioral output was assumed rather than demonstrated to be present for each situation studied. The ensuing argument over the generality or specificity of behavior became confused because this important difference was not clearly maintained by the discussants. Murray (1962) points to the same concepts when he says:

> Each subject should be exposed to many varied situations. This is basic. It rests upon the attested supposition that a person has almost as many "sides" as there are different situations to which he is exposed [p. 26].

Following Lewin's ideas it can be anticipated that a rating on one trait would logically be expected to vary depending on its situational context. The expression of a particular behavior in one

situation may be freedly carried out whereas in another it would be greatly inhibited. The degree of specificity of a behavior pattern cannot be determined independently of the relevance factor. If the expression of a particular behavior were highly relevant to a number of differing situations, then it could be described as a general behavior pattern. On the other hand, if the expression of the behavior had little relevance to most situations, then it should be described as a highly specific one. Only when this situational factor has been assessed can the use of such terms have any real meaning.

The variation of situations in which the ratings are conducted is vital for another reason. Lewin points to the social field as an important factor in determining which behaviors are exhibited in the situation. In turn, the nature of pre-existing relationships between actors (i.e., past encounters) sets up the contemporaneous social field. The variety of potential social interactions can only be determined by observing a number of these social situations over time to detect the constant and variable patterns of the actors.

Variety of Raters Affecting Ratings

Murray raises the issue of the desirability of several raters.

> Each subject should be observed and independently diagnosed by many different types of men and women. There are also other reasons, the chief of which is the desirability of having many estimates and judgments of each subject [1948, p. 26].

The feasibility of obtaining valid rating from a variety of judges suggests some problems, not the least one being the differences in

value systems of the judges. Having each person rate the behavior of subjects requires a determination of the way the scale is being used by the raters. Some will use the entire scale while others will not, and some refuse to use extremes whereas others use them freely. These differences do not always reflect observed differences in a subject's behavior, but frequently reflect the biases in the rater's style. Discussion and practice sessions can change the way the scales are used, by reducing the error of measurement.

Other Rating Problems

Eysenck (1957) in his sharp attack on holistic assessment raises another question about the variability of rater observations.

> We do know that many of them are extremely unreliable, i.e., that two people observing the same situation would disagree to a considerable extent in their judgment, and it is a well-known axium in statistics that unreliable data cannot be valid [p. 140].

This statement makes a great deal of sense on the face of it. It has been shown, however, that previously agreed upon behavior cues can be rated simultaneously by two different judges with a high degree of success (Heinke, 1958; Lindsey, 1954). This would cover part of Eysenck's criticism, yet there are other issues. Murray (1962) makes a suggestion which might account for a different kind of variability with nonsimultaneous ratings. He gives reasons as to why different judges will provide different ratings.

> A subject displays different facets of his personality to different experimenters . . . namely, that the personality of the analysts determines to an appreciable extent the attitude that the patient assumes . . . [p. 31].

Murray then turns to the state of the actors as a source of variance.

> In many cases, however, the subject's reactions are not inconsistent; they are determined by facts of which the experimenter is unaware. There is little opportunity, for instance to discover what daily shocks, victories, joys, and sorrows occur in a subject's life. It is always hazardous to apply what is discovered to other conditions, and times. . . .

Cronbach (1960) indicates a way of improving the agreement between either simultaneous or nonsimultaneous ratings. "Reliability of ratings is greatest for behavior which can be clearly specified and for traits which are descriptive rather than interpretative" (p. 509). It would appear from what has been said that it is very possible to obtain rater agreement, but not always! The matter of not always obtaining agreement on ratings reveals a third issue covered by Eysenck's statement. If Murray and Lewin are reviewed, both suggest that this disagreement can be expected and furthermore it is not necessarily a "bad" thing. The difference in ratings may be at least due to three different types of variance: (1) faulty ratings, i.e., unreliable measures, the phenomenon not being clearly perceived, and the discrimination task being too difficult; (2) variance in rating because the subject is displaying different behavior due to the new actors in the social field; and (3) difference in behavior of the subject because they are being observed. When raters disagree, the issue is not necessarily one of retraining to obtain agreement but attempting to find out which types of variance are operating. There are, of course, other technical difficulties which may be involved in the first type of variance, such as rater generosity, ambiguity of behavior, and limited opportunity to observe the subject (Guilford, 1954).

Paradoxically enough, one would expect to see increased variability in observer ratings of behavior when subjects are undergoing change. During the movement period our theoretical formulation predicts the increase likelihood of subjects being more open to influence attempts by some staff member while concurrently being less open to others. The subject is more likely to reveal new behaviors differentially across situations because situations provide differential opportunity or freedom to express the behavior, and contain differential receptivity within the social field to trials of new behavior.

Time becomes another important consideration in looking at different situations. Time refers to frequency of samples, duration between samples, as well as sufficient opportunity to allow the new behavior to be displayed. If adequate time samples have not been taken, rather than simple before-after measures, then the erroneous conclusion of "no change" could be reached. For similar reasons the sampling of the subject's behavior must be frequent enough to catch the different opportunities which exist to detect the behavior, because they may not be continuous in nature. Behavior shifts frequently occur in very short time periods, but sometimes they stretch over relatively long episodes. The rating period must be of sufficient length so that the total episode of the behavior pattern can be established. This is a different problem from that of allowing the presentation of selected behaviors to take place. There is another advantage of time studies and that is they permit oscillating behavior patterns to reach a point of maximum stability around which a new base line can be established. In this type of time study a long period is needed to work out the sequences of behavior and to detect the trend.

Processing the Data

One of the biggest problems facing the investigator of planned behavior change is the mass of accumulated longitudinal data. There is a crying need to reduce the data to "manageable" units for profitable analysis. The quantification process could produce a number of serious errors because the reduction procedures may mask the evidence of behavior change. Some guidelines must be established to avoid this problem. The following steps are elaborated as ways of recovering meaningful information from the data.

1. It must be possible to establish a base line for each subject's behavior. If a base line is established, then it is possible for any deviation from it to be detected readily.

2. Trends, cycles, or patterns of each subject's behavior for any given unit of time and situation must be preserved. Sometimes change can be confirmed only when the overall pattern is spotted.

3. The overall pattern of each subject's behavior for any given unit of time and situation must be preserved. Greater understanding of the possible forces for change can be determined if the sequence and situational context can be maintained.

4. Any change points (deviations from pattern) which take place must be detected when and where they occur and in their proper time sequence. Without this information it is difficult to understand the way the change occurred.

5. It must be possible to compare one subject's behavior to another in order to develop a meaningful typology of subjects.

6. It should be possible to spot many of the possible sources of rating error such as halo, generosity, biases, and indiscriminant rankings.

Murray (1962) has suggested a way of meeting these criteria in a "psychograph." He describes the psychograph as "an abstract biography . . . [which] would resemble a musical score and those who knew the signs might, by reading from left to right, follow the entire sequence of events" (p. 17). This suggests that a graphic presentation would be the ideal instrument to display the data collected according to the demands of this model. Murray's psychograph would be simplified somewhat over what was referred to above. There would be a series of graphs for each subject, extending from initial entry to termination. The vertical axis would represent the placement of the subject on various rating scales from high to low for each activity. The horizontal axis would carry the time of participation and intervals of measurement, e.g., hourly, daily, weekly, etc. Each activity would be plotted in such a way that two or more entries could be plotted on a single graph. The following components or measures would be included in the makeup of the graph: base line, annotations, trends and cycles, and change points.

Base Lines

Each subject would be assessed upon his initial entry into the project along specified dimensions. Observations and formal ratings would be gathered from every area of direct contact between subject and staff. The staff would rate the subjects' behavior on standard rating scales designed to elucidate their perception of the subject's behavior--along specified dimensions. A composite description would then serve as a measure of the presumed initial state of target regions of the subjects. Future ratings could then be compared

against these initial assessments and correction factors or measures introduced when additional information became available. These initial measures would serve the calibrating function of determining the expression levels of the subject. It is obvious that much of this information would reflect many of the errors of the raters previously indicated.

Annotations

One of the difficulties of obtaining information from a variety of persons about a subject is the wide variation in reporting styles. It is difficult to compare the information given from these varied sources to each other, even when a standard format is followed. One way to handle this problem, yet include a wide representation of raters, is through rating scales. As Cronbach (1960) points out, "rating scales are used to reduce impressions to manageable form." Eysenck (1957) suggests that even simple rating scales vary significantly with the person doing the rating. "It was found again (and again) that some people were very much better than others, and this ability to carry out a task of this kind (rating subjects) was apparently a fairly general one . . ." (p. 189). It is clear then that rating scales do have their drawbacks in capturing impressions systematically as suggested by these critics. Despite these obstacles, they represent a useful way of structuring the "reports" of the raters. Because of the requirement of frequent reporting, and the variety of raters, scales seem to be the most feasible device to gather the data systematically.

The nature of the data to be observed and recorded must be thought about when evaluating the usefulness of rating scales.

Variance between raters rises sharply when going from simple recording of what is observed to making elaborate interpretations of underlying psychological dynamics. When "dynamic" interpretations are being made, it seems that raters are not very good. Eysenck (1953) calls attention to this matter by saying:

> There is, in fact, a good deal of evidence to show that experts in the more esoteric fields of clinical psychology tend to be less accurate in their predictions than beginners, and the reason for this appears to lie mainly in precisely this tendency for over-elaboration on insufficient evidence on the part of the expert [p. 190].

Murray, however, comes to a slightly different conclusion. The apparent difference in their positions is mainly a function of the type of rating the observers will be required to do. When the task is one of straight observation, then Murray and Eysenck agree that accurate assessment is possible. "Agreement, it is pointed out, is common among trained observers when interpretations are excluded . . ." (Murray, 1962, p. 7) from the rating process. Cronbach (1960) puts the matter a little differently. He says:

> It is common to regard such ratings (scales) and descriptions as information given by a competent authority who is in a sense the professional ally of the psychologist. Any one such report, however, must be regarded as one individual's perception of a fluctuating, ambiguous stimulus [p. 442].

In general, then, the potential for careful observation and rating, is possible if raters are required to record what they actually see (behavior) rather than rate underlying dynamics.

Turning from the question of the rating scales themselves to the matter of interpretation, there are still those who would agree with Eysenck's statement. He says, "Thus, what appears to be a

very simple rating procedure in fact turns out to be a highly complex process which is very difficult, if not impossible to interpret in any meaningful sense" (p. 85). He goes on to suggest that:

> This difficulty is quite inescapable, of course. We are throughout dealing with a process of interaction between two people, and what we have to do is to analyze this interaction rather than accept any part of it as being objectively true [p. 187].

Eysenck's position is really in closer agreement with Lewin's and Murray's view when he says that the interaction is the meaningful unit to assess. This is the heart of the matter when making a social assessment. There are aids, however, which can help get around the difficulty of making this kind of assessment. The clues are to be found in what Eysenck suggests is the problem--the idiosyncratic meaning of the situation. If each rater is required to record answers to amplify the ratings--annotations--then it should be possible to get at <u>some</u> of the hidden meaning of the ratings. The raters may not have rational reasons for their ratings, but penetrating questions could help uncover some of the thinking that went into the rating process. The meaning of the rating can also be discovered from studying the pattern of observations completed over time. The "meaning of the situation," to use Cronbach's phrase, at the point of rating, plus the longitudinal analysis can help to unravel part of the phenomenological base. In this way anecdotal material can strengthen some of the obvious weaknesses of rating scales.

Trends and Cycles

Cronbach (1962) and Murray (1948) both pointed out the tendency for behavior to persist from one situation to the next. Lewin's insistence on a need for awareness of the contemporary context of the person does not deny the presence of trends and patterns to behavior. Close examination of a series of contemporaneous events would allow trends and cycles to emerge when these "slices of behavior" were examined serially. Lewin postulated the presence of trends by pointing to the structural nature of the person which increases the probability that certain behaviors would persist over time. In a sense, people react similarly to varied situations because the psychological differences between the two contexts are not always perceived. Even if the subject were able to perceive the differences Lewin doubted he possessed the behavioral repertoire to act appropriately for these varied perceptions. For these structural and behavioral reasons, patterns, trends, or cycles would be expected to emerge.

The data must reflect this potential for consistency as well as change, or important information will be lost. The psychograph, with its repeated ratings over extended time periods, represents an ideal way to detect emergent changes as well as trends. "Such precise reports (systematic recording) are especially useful for measuring changes, since the observer's memory cannot compare performance now with performance several months ago" (Cronbach, 1960, pp. 535-36).

Change Points

One of the assets of the psychograph is its ability to indicate change points. As the graph maintains a certain level, any deflections up or down or dramatic leveling off immediately signal change. These change points must then be evaluated specifically for the meaning behind them. Such questions as the following can be answered by studying the psychographic data:

1. When do deflections occur (during day, week, or month)?
2. What precedes or succeeds deflections?
3. In what activity or areas do they most frequently occur?
4. What effect do these changes have on other activities?
5. Is there a trend line that is discernible?
6. How long does it take to resume the "trend"?
7. How does the level of the "trend line" relate to the "expressive ability" of the subject?
8. Are there noticeable cycles appearing in the patterns?
9. Is there a pattern to the intervals between and the duration of deflections?
10. What areas of activity demonstrate the least amount of change?
11. In which areas do deflections occur which have an effect on other stable areas and which areas are not affected?
12. Does this pattern change over time?
13. Are change points congruent over time and in different areas?
14. Are change points congruent but with a lag (parallel)?
15. Are change points incongruent with no lag (divergent)?

The annotated comments become an important source in amplifying the meaning of these various changes.

Some would argue that imprecision of measurement would account for "change points" and therefore the perceived changes were the product of rater variance. In partial answer to this view Cronbach (1960) states, "Whether an individual's reputation corresponds to his behavior or not, it is unquestionably significant" (p. 506). Whether the rating is based on the reputation (inferred behavior) of the subject or the directly observed behavior is of little importance because of two factors. First, a large number of ratings are completed on each subject. It is then possible to look for changes in pattern of repeated ratings over time which might signal specific changes in the social interaction of the actors. If the social interaction is rated differently, and these same differences remain stable over time, then the social field is changed for the observer. This change in perception may lead to shifts in the behavior of the staff member toward the client. The behavior of the staff may change, and if repeated ratings show a stable pattern of new behavior the rating should be considered "significant," to use Cronbach's words.

Comparison of Subjects

One of the major tasks which the data should accomplish is the ability to compare one, or a subgroup, of subjects with one another. Longitudinal graphs of ratings permit a display of each subject's rated behavior to be matched directly with others. There are, however, some theoretical difficulties involved in making direct comparisons of subjects in different situations because of the varying contexts of the ratings. The raters in different situations using the same subject may conceptualize the situation differently even

though the subject may receive exactly the same check marks. Anecdotal comments written by each rater can aid in deciphering the contextual meaning of the ratings, thus improving the evaluation of records of each subject. The physical and social setting of each activity may be very different, suggesting that the terms of the social interaction would also differ.

Graphing provides the added advantage of being able to review the original base-line measures of a subject against subsequent ratings. Any major differences in the way the change patterns develop for a subject could be detected easily. Pattern comparisons of one subject to others can be useful in developing a functional typology against which additional subjects could be compared to determine the generality of the change pattern.

Technical Problems Involved in the Rating Process

At this point it would be useful to look at some of the other technical problems in the rating process which are not unique to social assessment. The problems of rater agreement have been discussed, and ways of obtaining reasonable agreement were mentioned. In summary of the points made previously, it can be said that measuring overt behavior represents one of the best ways of obtaining agreement. Furthermore, avoiding interpretations and "depth" measures of underlying dynamics are other procedures to stay clear of to avoid the traps of unreliable data.

The next set of tasks becomes one of eliminating difficulties inherent in rating scales while improving the skills of the raters. Coming to grips with these issues can help the model to be more effective.

Training Effects

As previously indicated, rating techniques are difficult to use because their meaning is not always clear once the ratings have been completed (Eysenck, 1957). It would be obvious to suggest training as a method for bringing greater clarity to the rating Training can be useful in improving the ability of the raters to handle the forms and to report what they see accurately and succinctly Increasing the accuracy of ratings can also be accomplished if the problems of judgment can be lessened by precise definitions of relevant overt behavior. The training process tends to break down when speculations are called for beyond the observable behavior so that the raters start to overinterpret.

Levels of Interaction

Judges who have a high level of continuous interaction with the subjects are in a better position to give ratings than others (Cronbach, 1960, p. 510). For this reason the rating process should be an integral part of the ongoing activity. The observation procedures themselves, however, can distort the activity if they are too conspicuous. Cronbach feels that "if the rater is a regular member of the group his presence will have little distorting effect . . ." on the activity (p. 441). The integral presence of the rater will permit two things to happen. A larger sample of behaviors can be obtained, reducing the problem of having an inadequate behavioral sample. Secondly, the observer can see various combinations of actors interacting in a variety of ways within the social field. Both of these conditions will tend to improve his ratings.

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Familiarity

As the observer gets to "know" his subjects better, the increasing familiarity allows for a better assessment of their motivations (Murray, 1962, p. 13). Cronbach (1960) also indicates that improved understanding can come when these opportunities for increased interaction are permitted.

> One can be sure what a report of typical behavior means only when the observer specified the range of time represented in the data, the range of situations, and the range of motivations. When these are specified formally, they are often implied in the descriptions of the observation method.

Longitudinal measures would help increase the familiarity of raters with subjects, and would widen the range of exposures to his "typical behavior."

Generosity Error

There are some real problems created as the rater and subject interact. Generosity error might be increased by this heightened level of interaction. Generosity error is defined as the tendency for a rater to give a more favorable rating to subjects or groups he knows, or with whom he is working. If the rater has responsibility for the subjects to "improve" then his ratings may reflect the desired improvement rather than the observed movement. This particular problem can be demonstrated if the ratings by one observer of one group of subjects differ significantly and repeatedly from other ratings by another judge of that same group.

Ambiguity of Behavior Being Rated

Ambiguity as to the nature of the behavior or constructs being rated produces another hazard. When the definitions of the behavior to be observed are not clear, then many different things will be lumped together under the same heading. A "global" rating has been suggested as one way to counteract this difficulty (Murray et al., 1948). An overall rating has its limitations, however, because the particular impression which an individual makes on different judges in different situations may also vary widely. The selection by the rater of specific behaviors to include in the total picture as well as the weighting to be assigned increases potential variability of global ratings. Having the raters state the reasons for a global impression may reveal clues to the source of variance in their ratings and thus increase their potential for agreement.

Specifying the particular behavior to be observed, however, may or may not lead to a more accurate report of that behavior. The reasons for this type of variance are several. For one thing, the value system of different raters may be different. For another, the perceptual ability of the raters to see large units of behavior may not be the same. Despite these limitations, the anecdotal comments offer the best help in giving clues to the frame of reference and perceptual style used by a rater in making his rating. These added comments eliminate the necessity of all interpretations of the ratings being left to the reader.

Constancy Error

Constancy error is another difficulty which will creep into ratings and is defined as a systematic bias in the use of the rating scale. As a way of detecting this problem Cronbach (1960) suggests averaging the judges' ratings as a way to find out if the raters are looking at different things (p. 508). If the raters are using the scales differently, averagings will not improve the ratings if their standards shift continuously. If judges are perceiving or valuing their respective situations differently, but continuously, then averaging the ratings may counteract this error. If, however, the situation is rated by different judges at varying times, then averaging the ratings might mask real changes in the subjects' behavior over time.

To spot constancy error in longitudinal ratings, another approach is needed. If the behavior of the subject is rated repeatedly by several raters, the same in very different situations, then this may reveal constancy errors being made by the raters. When reviewing the records of these subjects, if there is a major variation in rating pattern of one judge contrasted to others, then disregarding the deviant rating may be a better procedure. In this case it is clear that a great deal of caution has to be exercised in making this judgment of error, because the subject may in fact be responding quite differently to this particular "deviant" judge.

Comparing records of several subjects with markedly different expressive styles might be another way to reveal constancy error of a particular judge. Subjects who would be expected to differ in their rated behavior, and in fact do differ in other areas, would also be expected to be rated differently in the area under scrutiny. Failure to do so would raise some doubts as to the validity of the

ratings. Again, disregarding the deviant ratings would be the only solution.

Halo Effect

Much has been written about "halo effect" in ratings, i.e., the tendency to give the same rating on every trait (Cronbach, 1960; Eysenck, 1957; Murray et al., 1948; Murstein, 1966; Catell, 1965). Forcing the rater to rank members (without ties) on a given behavior will tend to separate individuals within the same group. This technique will not necessarily force the rater to distinguish accurately between different behaviors within the same person. Asking the rater to rank only one subject at a time on a limited number of dimensions may decrease the impact of halo effect. Forcing the rater to report only observed behavior is another useful way to deal with halo effect.

Summary

The model presented in this chapter attempts to integrate a number of assessment techniques into a format which will permit the evaluation of planned change. The twelve steps outlined by the Murray group (1948), as modified, formed the basis of the model for evaluation procedure rather than selection. The assumption is made that the process of observing and rating specific dimensions of behavior can lead to valid evaluations of change. Furthermore, it is assumed that if these ratings are obtained for every situation and at frequent intervals then planned change can be demonstrated. This

is in contradistinction to the more typical methods of before/after sampling of behavior to determine planned change.

The difficulties of obtaining valid ratings with scales, and the ways of presenting the data in graphic form were discussed. The value of the psychograph (a longitudinal recording of the data) as a method of displaying the data most effectively to detect subtle shifts in behavior was explored. Theoretically, this method of presentation of the data appears most sound. The following chapters will review the data from the graphs which will help determine the feasibility and validity of this assumption.

Several of the difficulties encountered with rating scales were discussed. The problems posed by them, and possible solutions, were given. This discussion was included so that it would be possible to evaluate the effectiveness of the model for detecting planned change.

Four issues were posed at the start of this chapter which related to the feasibility of making this kind of assessment in an ongoing treatment program. These questions, while not formally discussed at this point, bear on all of the twelve steps outlined for social assessment. Until the actual operations of the project are reviewed in Chapter IV, it will not be possible to provide evidence of the nature of the interaction of these four problems on the model. This discussion will be delayed until after the data are reviewed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER IV

THE OPERATIONS OF A SOCIAL ASSESSMENT MODEL

Previous chapters have described the personality theory underlying the model as well as the conceptualization of how the assessment procedures should be carried out. In this chapter the actual operations of the assessment of planned change are discussed in some detail, as they were instituted in the sample treatment program. Although the project was designed to bring about planned change, the emphasis of this thesis will only be on conceptualizing and validating assessment procedures. No detailed discussion of treatment techniques will be given. A necessarily brief review of the components of the project will be made in order to understand the events which were being assessed. The assessment procedures will be described separately from the treatment operations so as to make the two functions as clear as possible. It should be remembered, however, that the assessment process in this particular project was considered an intimate part of the actual operations.

Description of the Treatment Program

Much of the theoretical thinking of the treatment scheme of this project is based on Lewinian concepts of change. The foremost idea in this theoretical view of social treatment was the concept of

multiple inputs. This concept can be described as the necessity for the total environment (the life space) to be structured to provide several simultaneous inputs which give the subject a real opportunity to change. Change can best be brought about in this view if two conditions are provided: (1) having the freedom to experiment with new behavior; and (2) receiving feedback from significant others in the life space about how the behavior was perceived. This simple statement contains the theoretical germ of the project but needs to be greatly elaborated in order to comprehend fully the various factors involved.

Client System

Prior to further elaboration of the treatment theory, it is worthwhile to describe the type of clients being dealt with in the project. Additional demographic data can be found at the end of this chapter. All of the clients who were included in the project were boys between the ages of thirteen and eighteen and a small number of their parents. The boys had been adjudicated wards of the juvenile court for a variety of offenses but were all considered serious delinquent. Car theft, breaking and entering, purse-snatching, and robbery are examples of the type of acts which led to their retention as wards of the juvenile court. Over 90 percent of the boys were repeated offenders, and about 50 percent had actually been committed to the state training school for juveniles. They were placed in this special treatment project as an alternative to removal from the community with the expectation that intensive work with the boys (and their parents in specific cases) would result in greater behavior change. None of the clients were overtly

psychotic and all were free of obvious neurosis. As a group they could best be described as sociopathic personalities.

Typically, the boys included in this study had to grow up in homes with little or no parental supervision. A latchkey was tied around their necks on a string so that they would be able to let themselves into the house whenever they wanted to. They didn't have to account for their behavior to anyone except when they got in the way. Nobody seemed to care! What they did and when they did it was a matter of personal choice. Almost nothing was provided in the way of guidance and support. This situation frequently came about because their mothers had to work in order to help with the family finances. Their fathers either had left the home permanently or were very ineffective in providing a family life. They often did little more than eat and sleep at the house. For some of the reasons suggested, the children treated were left during their very early years to be raised by grandmothers, aunts, or older brothers and sisters. The grandparents were too old to give much attention, affection, and training. The older brothers or sisters primarily saw to it that the young one's battles were won if they were called upon to help out. Other than this, these children were left alone. They were left to make something out of this aloneness. Excitement, or "something to do" as they typically express it, was what they were looking for to break through their feelings of abandonment. It was a case of "anything goes" if it would change the monotonous pattern of eating when hungry, sleeping when tired, and fighting when angry.

With this brief sketch of the client system it is now possible to examine the treatment approach that was designed to bring about behavior change.

Multiple Inputs

In viewing the life space of a person, it is clear that there are a number of actors who are significant in shaping the behavioral output of the person. These significant actors would be friends, peers, parents, teachers, and other adults, who all provide socialization messages to the child about his behavior throughout his life. It is frequently assumed that many of the voices giving these socialization messages are in agreement with the accepted patterns of the dominant social reference groups. These inputs would be called prosocial messages and would tend to help produce prosocial behavior. It is entirely possible, however, that discrepancies in the value and behavioral injunctions may exist among the prosocial messages. These discrepant inputs might condition the person to accept congruent antisocial inputs as a way of avoiding the conflict. There are also messages, however (the exact proportion is not important at this point), which do not agree with the "way things are done" in the larger society. These messages may be labeled antisocial. Lippitt (1953) has pointed out, in another context, that if the subject is left to himself to integrate these messages into his behavioral repertoire he may do one or a combination of three things. He can hold to the prosocial and reject the antisocial, the obverse of this, or he can lay a "pox on both houses" and do as he pleases. The third alternative results in an anomic condition providing free reign of impulses, inevitably leading to severe strain between the individual and his society. A fourth consequence of discordant messages may be a situational fragmentation of the person trying to follow whatever influence is present in the here and now.

Discordant multiple inputs are continuously operating on the person, helping to shape and direct his style of life. The impact of radically discrepant messages in the life of the troubled youth should be even greater. On the one hand his peer group actively supports his negative behavior, whereas teachers, parents, and other adults reject the very behavior that peers are praising. The actors most likely to be influential in shaping his style of life will be the rewarding peers rather than the nonrewarding adults. If social treatment is introduced into this somewhat confused condition, then its primary effect is to add another conflicting voice. The therapeutic messages may be able to counteract effectively the inputs from other sources, while services are being provided, but an obvious vacuum is created when services are removed. If there has been no internal resolution of these diverse messages, then little has occurred to stem the original confusion and the old pattern returns.

A way out of this impasse is the creation of a multiple input system with controlled prosocial messages coming from a variety of relevant sources. The critical actors (parents and friends) would be included within the project itself to provide the support for change. School and work experiences represent other vital areas and, when possible, teachers and work supervisors would be included within the project. The aim of bringing all these social influences together would be to decrease initially the disparity in messages, thereby facilitating the internalization of the positive socialization process. Once greater convergence in messages has been achieved, there would be the potential for these actors to continue supporting the subject beyond the impetus for change initiated by the treatment agency. This can be stated formally as the first hypothesis of this study:

Hypothesis 1. The pattern of observed behavior of subjects will be very similar (or congruent) in different social situations.

This type of environmental restructuring suggests several requirements to be accomplished if the change effort is to be effective. These steps go beyond mere agreement between the actors as to what messages they will send and their proper sequence. One of the important ingredients needs to be the freedom of experimental movement within the life space, psychologically as well as physically. Two other important requirements are the opportunity to try out newly suggested behaviors from the different sources, and the chance to receive feedback from these actors as to how they perceived the behavior. There is the added need for the subject to review his behavior in terms of his current thoughts and feelings to see if his behavior matched his intentions. As this re-evaluation process takes place, internal restructuring may eventuate which would bring stability to the new behavior pattern. Structural changes will then carry the behavior to different situations as a persistent pattern. This restructuring of intrapersonal regions can come from the affective and cognitive evaluation of the experienced behavior by the actors. This idea was stated formally as the second hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2. Observed change behavior in one social setting will influence direction or magnitude of observed change behavior in another setting.

Structuring the Treatment Environment

The theoretical importance of having congruence in the socialization messages to help shape the behavior of the subject is

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Structuring the Treatment Environment

The theoretical importance of having congruence in the socialization messages to help shape the behavior of the subject is

clear. The critical issue facing the practitioner, however, is attempting to provide social treatment on the scale necessary to accomplish this task.

The strategy utilized within this project was geared to simplifying the problem of providing congruent multiple messages. It was assumed that the most feasible approach would be to set up a self-contained community. This therapeutic community would have as its most important functions the involvement of subjects in the lives of others whom they could use as peer referents. Parents would be brought into the operation to help them learn new and more effective behaviors with their sons. A classroom situation for formal learning would be created, and the opportunity for boys also to learn from a work experience would be provided.

In line with these plans, a theoretical expected change pattern was prepared for each type of subject. It was expected that this theoretical behavior pattern would approximate rather closely the way the subject would behave as he became involved in the activities of the project. The third hypothesis was:

> Hypothesis 3. The expected change pattern of behavior will equal the actually observed change pattern of behavior.

Because of the various types of subjects, it was expected that there would be some variation in the ability to describe accurately the behavior of each type. For this reason it was also hypothesized that:

> Hypothesis 4. Agreement between expected and observed change behavior will vary with subjects in different categories in the typology.

Assembling the significant actors and activities into one project creates a social situation for the subject which may or may not be entirely conducive to behavior change. In order for this type of social situation to be effective it must be possible to induce all the actors to provide support for one another so that the subjects may learn (1) that different behaviors are possible, (2) that trying out of new behavior can take place in safety without being committed to it for keeps, and (3) tha feedback from others is an important part of the tryout and evaluative process. As the social field can be structured along these lines, then it is possible to move toward congruence of messages and adoption of new behavior styles. This was stated formally as the fifth hypothesis.

> Hypothesis 5. Subjects whose observed change behavior is highly congruent in different social situations and stable over time will be seen as changing faster than unstable and incongruent subjects.

Working through the peer relationships to provide support for change is the first and hardest task in bringing about congruence. The next focus of effort is the relationship between the subject and all adults, including staff members of the project. Lastly, along with the willingness to take on new behavior comes the need to learn new skills. These skills may be at the interpersonal level, but they may also revolve around specific areas such as academic and vocational tasks. The sequence of events specified above is in line with the view of change as moving through a series of phases as specified by Lewin, Lippitt, et al. For this reason it was hypothesized that:

> Hypothesis 6. The expected phases of change will equal the observed phases of change.

Lewin was careful to point out that change was not unidirectional through the various phases. Subjects could be expected to enter the movement phase, meet a block, and regress to the point of a previous phase. This was considered an important part of the change process and should be expected to appear. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

> Hypothesis 7. The expected change pattern of vascillating behavior through phases will also appear in subjects' actually observed change pattern.

It was considered highly unlikely that different types of subjects would respons similarly to change efforts. It could, therefore, be expected that different types of subjects would display new behavior at different rates, and even in different phases. The eighth hypothesis states:

> Hypothesis 8. Revelation of new behavior will occur in different phases with various types of subjects.

Treatment Hypotheses

It has been indicated that discordant voices in the form of incongruent messages have negative effects on the socialization of the child. It now becomes important to look at specific intrapersonal regions which are sensitive to these messages as the targets in the treatment-assessment process. From basic research completed (Flint Youth Study, 1958) and a review of the literature (Moles, Lippitt, and Withey, 1959) a list of five intrapersonal regions was obtained which seemed to be important in helping the child cope with social demands. They were: level of hostility, impulse control, affective expression, love, and social skills. The level of hostility was defined as the

amount of angry feelings which the subjects demonstrated in their behavior. The degree of impulse control was defined as the ability of subjects to contain their behavior in appropriate ways. The efforts at control would appear primarily as an effort of containment so that little variation in behavior would appear. If control were low then they may have been highly labile with radical shifts in apparent moods. The level of affective expression may be defined as the ability of the subject to convey through facial expressions and bodily movements their emotions. The level of social skills was defined as the ability to manipulate persons or objects in a conscious manner in a social situation. The level of love was defined as the pervasive emotional tone used by parents in raising the child which was reflected in the degree of positive behavior displayed in interpersonal relations with staff and peers.

The treatment hypotheses can be stated as follows: The focus of the therapeutic interaction would be to (1) help subjects develop skills in controlling their impulsive behavior, (2) help them find channels for their many angry feelings, (3) increase their opportunities for attainments of job and academic skills which would bring improved social functioning, (4) allow subjects to try out new behavior in interpersonal situations so that they would become more competent in expressing, in acceptable ways, their feelings, and (5) develop the ability to tolerate warm interpersonal relationships across generations, as well as among their peer group. Techniques of social treatment were developed so as to help in restructuring the behavior patterns of the subjects so that appropriate actions would emerage and/or old behavior patterns would be inhibited or eliminated. As the subjects became familiar with the expectations being set for them by others, their repertoire of behavior could

expand in relevant directions. It was expected, however, that detecting each phase for every subject would be difficult. The initial phase, unfreezing, would be most easy to detect because subjects opening up to new stimuli are likely to show dramatic shifts in behavior. This opening up is likely to be true also of the movement phase when subjects try out new behavior. By the methods of recording behavior adopted in this study, unfreezing and movement would be most easy to detect as compared to readiness and freezing.

Hypothesis 9. Unfreezing and movement phases will be more clearly distinguishable than the readiness phase.

Treatment Operations

Transportation

Lewin (1936) described the need for movement (locomotion) around barriers in the life space of the person to obtain certain goals. Locomotion, as he used the term, included psychological and physical movement, the latter including transportation from one part of the life space to another. Physical locomotion is important in the life of the person because it permits the movement around barriers of time and space, but it may also introduce new barriers into the life space. The amount of physical locomotion within a person's life space may inhibit or permit new environmental or interpersonal influences to reach them resulting in major changes.

One of the major handicaps of the subjects was their relative immobility. It was always difficult for them to locomote throughout their life space because of real barriers of time and space. In order to facilitate their involvement in the project and to demonstrate

a willingness on the staff's part to help them solve real problems, they were helped to come to the project, rather than demanding that they come on their own. The actual importance of the cars in their life can be illustrated by their concern over which seat they occupied, who would see them in the cars, and eventually how they were behaving while riding. Their sensitivity to being transported was even reflected in their concern over whether the cars were clean or dirty. These latter concerns, however, came very late in their stay within the project!

The social field of the cars could serve other and rather unique functions in the project. The cars provided transitions from one part of the life space of the subjects to the next, including movement from their life outside of the project through various activities and back to home. It was expected that observing the subjects closely in this transitional situation might reveal changes in their usual pattern of behavior which might not be as quickly revealed in structured group meetings.

There would be the additional advantage of being able to observe the behavior of all the subjects as they interacted with various mixes of actors, depending on who had been picked up or let off. It would likewise be possible to observe changes in each individual's behavior as he attempted to relate to specific other actors, within this variable group setting. The ability of the actors to shift roles, depending on who the occupants might be, may indicate a readiness for behavior change by some actors prior to this set being revealed in other situations. For these reasons the operational hypotheses concerning the way subjects would respond to the social field which they experienced in the cars were developed.

Hypothesis 10. The social field of the cars was sufficiently different from other social situations for some boys that there would be noticeable shifts in their behavior here first.

Hypothesis 11. For some categories of boys, new patterns of behavior will first appear in the cars.

Group Meetings

Over the years a variety of investigators have attempted group treatment with very disturbed boys (Aichhorn, 1935; Redl and Wineman, 1958; Riese, 1962). Their work indicates that it is very possible to bring about changes in the behavior patterns of their clients. These investigators have found that bringing the clients together in face-to-face groups helps produce a peer environment, over time, which includes norms of exploration and reflection on individual and group behavior. As these norms become fully operative in the group life, behavioral repertoires of individual members expand to include more situationally appropriate responses to the demands of the immediate social field.

Following out the leads of these workers, subjects were confronted with daily group meetings involving their peers and an adult staff member. Specific objectives of the meetings were: (1) to provide a place where clients could reflect, systematically, on their behavior and receive feedback from others; (2) to become a major source of frank discussions of their behavior; (3) to be used as a place for sharing with other group members personal issues which were of deep concern to them; (4) to develop simultaneously images of adults as helpful in solving personal problems rather than being the ones who denied them pleasures; and (5) to provide resolution

and support for trying out new ways of behaving in relation to old problems. For these things to be accomplished the meetings were held daily and the composition of the groups remained stable. New members were added, but very infrequently or only at the start of a new phase when groups were reconstituted (i.e., changed over from summer schedule to winter program).

The operational hypotheses as to the function of the group meetings were:

Hypothesis 12. Examination of self and others' behavior would take place within the discussion groups.

Hypothesis 13. Subjects are expected to change behavior patterns in the discussion groups first.

Hypothesis 14. Characteristic behavior styles, as predicted by the expected change pattern, will emerge for each subject in the group meetings.

School Program

No operational hypotheses were developed about this area of the project because it was not functioning during the summer. The period of this analysis only covered forty consecutive days, from June 15 through August 7, 1964. This period was selected because it was the period of maximum involvement of the boys. A number of boys were released from the regular schedule to attend a summer camp during the latter days of August. For this reason the analysis ends with August 7 even though the actual summer program did not terminate until the end of August.

Work Program

One of the principal ideas about the cause of delinquency is the lack of access to the means of achieving social status (Ohlin and Cloward, 1960). Most subjects had never held a steady job, nor even been required to do chores around the house, which certainly contributed to their future unemployability. Because of this poverty of work experiences, the clients had no relevant ideas about job-finding, nor the responsibilities and appropriate behaviors of an employee. In order to facilitate their learning in this area, work had to be an integral part of the project. As the subjects faced the demands of a work program, they were in a better position to learn the suitable behavioral repertoire of an employee than would be possible by merely talking about these skills. Their assigned work task was of a primitive nature (wood-chopping, clearing brush, picking up trash, etc.) so that more physical effort was required than any specific skills. As the subjects became adjusted to the situational demands, increasingly skilled jobs were provided, e.g., repairing equipment. The work program aimed at building both motor developmental and interpersonal skills in order to build more effective behavior repertoirs for a work situation.

Hypothesis 15. Boys who were highly congruent would show a strong relationship between behavior patterns at work and in discussion groups.

Hypothesis 16. Some subjects would change first in the work area, but fewer subjects would be expected to show this change here over the discussion area.

Hypothesis 17. Characteristic behavior styles would emerge from the work setting.

Parent-Son Meetings

The messages which many of our parents appeared to be giving their children were of not caring what happened to them. The parents, on the other hand, when interviewed, expressed feelings of caring a great deal but felt ineffective when dealing with their children. The necessity of working out these discrepancies in perceptions and intentions suggested joint meetings with parents and sons to deal with these issues. It was clear, however, that one could not simply place all family members in the same room and sift through their confusions. Apparently the parents were unaware of the "messages" they were sending their children, and the sons were equally indifferent, hostile, and fearful of their parents. Communication between family members was not carried on at meaningful levels, nor was talking a real part of their common everyday experiences. Their interactions and mutual feelings of despair led them to express hostility toward one another when they did talk. For these reasons, the meetings had to be organized so as to provide a "controlled interaction" between the significant actors in the situation. Discussion groups composed of fathers, mothers, and sons (but nobody from the same family) could be formed with staff members acting as leaders to facilitate and direct the interaction. Explorations of family problems and feelings could be central foci of these meetings. To bring about a further controlled interaction the participants could be assembled into family trios with a staff member sitting in. Each family could then try to look at how things had been going during the past week and what might be done to improve the situation. The staff member would have to work hard, of course, to keep the family focused on the "facts" of what had

happened and then explore the feelings which arose from the described situation. Family members tend to blame one another rather than looking at the situation for clues to resolve their difficulties. The opportunity to learn a more productive way of living with each other could be a direct outcome of this type of experience. The development of new attitudes about responsibility-taking, authority, sharing, and the demonstration of feelings are some of the specific possible results of such meetings. Since the family meetings were not convened during the summer months, no data were available for inclusion in this analysis.

Summary

This represents a brief overview of the various operations of the project and the specific activities which were designed to cope with certain issues in the lives of the clients. With these therapeutic objectives in mind, it will be possible to return to them when reviewing the data to see how many of these goals were accomplished in the actual operation of the project.

Assessment Operations

The next set of issues to examine are the actual steps taken to provide the data necessary to make an assessment of planned change. The different opportunities for assessment will be described by looking at each instrument used to obtain the data and relating these specific operations to the personality theory previously explained. First, it is important to be explicit about the major assumptions underlying the data-recording process.

The primary assumption was that recording the interactions of the subjects (communicative and behavioral acts) with others in their life space was the critical requirement. A limited attempt was made to record the subjects' interactions with nonsocial objects but this was a secondary consideration. It was not that nonsocial objects were thought to be unimportant, but effective ways of recording and evaluating what was being observed could not be devised. Second, it was assumed that change would be cumulative and difficult to predict as to where, when, and in what particular form it might occur. For these reasons it was important to capture as much of the total social interactions as possible. When staff members were filling out a structured form for a particular situation, they were encouraged to make additional comments so as to capture unanticipated but informative behaviors. Many varied and interesting comments were obtained in this way. A detailed examination of the instruments used in making the social assessment would be informative at this point.

Transportation Report Form

The main focus was to gather the type, amount, direction of the behavior, and the roles of the actors involved in the ongoing process. This information was obtained by having drivers check the appropriate blanks describing the involvement of the clients in a number of standard interaction patterns. In addition, each driver was to select from a list a description of the roles that the actors were playing during their interactions. The topic of conversation among the boys was recorded when it could be discerned. When

possible, any shifts in behavior of the subjects as a result of who was or was not in the car were noted when appropriate.[1]

A brief summary of the items asked for on the Transportation Report Form can be accomplished easily enough, but many issues are masked by this description. This is especially true when the concern is with observed behavior change and when attempting to understand the reasons why that behavior might have occurred. A number of these issues are covered by Lewin's personality theory which need to be considered when determining the value of any form for social assessment.

Life space

The life space is a critical concept to reflect on when trying to evaluate the client's behavior. First of all, the subject may have two very different locations; he may be physically in the car while being psychologically somewhere else. When drawing inferences about the impact of the social field on the actor's behavior, ignoring the possibility that the client is psychologically out of the region of the car can be a problem. He may in fact be miles away, and the place where he is psychologically located is the real determinant of his behavior. There is also the danger of seeing a repeated behavior pattern in the car as evidence that he must be reacting to the ongoing events in the car. He may in fact "locomote" to another place whenever he gets into the car and may never remain psychologically within the region of the car. Time trend studies cannot help unravel this mystery.

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[1] See Form 1 in the Appendix for a sample Transportation Report Form.

Momentary versus life situation

There is another unprofitable view of behavior which must be checked, and that is assuming that the contemporaneous responses are the product of the momentary situation as opposed to life situations. The region of the car may evoke momentary situational forces in some subjects and life situational ones in others. Seeing the pattern of behavior as it fits into the whole life space of the subject is the important task. The Transportation Report Forms should only be seen as momentary slices out of the lives of the subjects and cannot determine which particular situational conditions are operative.

Social field

The social field was delimited, to a certain extent, by listing all the actors on the top of each form. This permitted a comparison of the subject's behavior when various combinations of actors related to one another. As some clients left the cars it was possible to observe behavioral shifts on the part of those who remained. Once again, there should be some caution in assuming that the only relevant actors in the social field were those within the car. It became evident from an analysis of the boys' comments that there were feelings about being seen in the cars. These comments would suggest that nonpresent actors were capable of influencing the social field in important ways. The subjects' conversations and gestures were noted so as to be able to determine some of the field forces operating. Behavioral contagion was observed carefully as a way of assessing the referents in the social field which were acting on various boys.

Target regions

The target regions to be assessed by this form were specifically listed on a structured checklist so that staff members could enumerate the specific clients. Providing categories may restrict the vision of the rater to only these events, or it may overly stimulate him to look for these specific behaviors. On the other hand, if he were using his own labels a closer approximation of his cognitive meanings could be obtained. Hopefully, however, the standard categories would permit a specific reading on the target regions and the additional space for comments would permit the rater to add his own perceptions. All of these cautions and limitations of the form must be remembered when reviewing the data and coming to conclusions about how carefully change was observed and reported. Both observing and reporting problems were very real in the cars.

Processing the data

The frequent trips made with the boys (minimum of four a day) required the data to be processed in such a way as to maintain the proper time sequences. This requirement was important if a comparison were to be done of the client's behavior as he made transitions from one situation to the next. In order to capture his performance as completely as possible, a separate form was made out for each trip. The data obtained from these sets of forms were graphed on a separate scatter plot for each time period. By looking at Form 2 it is possible to know who the driver was, how many other boys were in the car, what the behavior of the subject was, and how he reacted to other's behavior.[1]

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[1] See comments on the social field above, page 105; also see Case 1 in the Appendix.

This form can then be examined for comparisons of a particular subject's behavior over the forty days at a given time in the day, or the four forms can be compared to see how he behaved throughout a particular day. This information can then be checked to see what his behavior was prior to or after group meetings and work. Using the forms this way allowed for the discernment of momentary situational and possible life situational patterns.

Examination of a particular sheet over the entire time span would permit some guesses to be made as to the level of expression of the client in the car at a particular time. The observed pattern of behavior can also be compared with a theoretical expected pattern for closeness of fit. Maximum flexibility in analysis is permitted by this format of data presentation.

Another form of analysis can be made by using Form 2 to check back on the empirically developed typology. The behavior over time may give some clues as to whether various subjects belonged in the same category in terms of how their behavior became patterned over time.

Group Meeting Form

The task of assessing the actual events which transpire within a meeting can be most staggering. The focus can be on verbal or nonverbal behavior, conversational content, silent periods, or talking, and a host of other observations. Attempting to record and evaluate this type of information results in a welter of data for just one meeting, much less for 160! In order to aid the leaders in their task, as well as to obtain ratings on specific behaviors, a number of scales were incorporated into one form.

Variety of scales

This was a multipurpose form with several objectives, including evaluation of the effectiveness of group meetings, recording the therapeutic interventions of leaders, as well as the assessment of each subject. This mix of various types of scales was included for purposes of assessment, supervision, and staff training. The scales which were used in the assessment of subjects were: (1) productivity of group members, (2) level of accomplishment, (3) interaction and behavior, (4) centrality level, (5) level of attraction, (6) level of acceptance, and (7) levels of relationship.[1] In order to avoid as much halo effect from one type of rating with the other as possible, the rating scales were separated from the global measure (scale 3) of the subject for that meeting. It is entirely possible that raters referred back to other rating scales when attempting to make their global assessment. This was discouraged but there is no assurance that this safeguard was successful, and if not the number of times that this type of checking back occurred.

Training requirements

The complexity of the form made it difficult for the raters to use them so that training in their proper use was required. There were several simplifications made in the instructions to the scales included in the form, but it is presumed that these changes had very little affect on the actual quality of ratings. The scales included in the assessment process remained the same throughout the period under study.

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[1] See a sample of Form 3 in the Appendix.

Variety of rating tasks

When making a rating, the group leader was asked to do a number of things. First, he made observations about the behavior of the group as a whole as well as judgments about each individual subject. When judgments about the group were made, for example the "level of group acceptance," type of behavior was rated as the entire group displayed it toward each subject. There were other scales on which the subject's effect on the leader or the group was also rated, e.g., "level of relation to leader" and "centrality level." There was a deliberate effort to obtain as clear as possible a rating on the social field of the group through these various scales. It was also possible to recover from this information some data about the momentary and life situation by noticing trends and nonrecurring events. Listing topics discussed at each meeting made it possible to assess the degree of carry-over to subsequent meetings as well as the variety of issues. Because of the sheer complexities of this type of content analysis, a highly summarized presentation of this material will be included here.

An important clue that was being searched for in the behavior of subjects was the degree of contagion found between members. Just as this was specifically looked for in the car, so too in the groups. These contagion patterns could be used to map out the nature of relationships between various members and cliques in the groups. The contagion pattern is also observable by noting the subject's placement on the level of relationship, acceptance, and attraction scales.

Specific target regions were assessed by indirect means in that each rater had to complete an anecdotal statement of each

client's interaction and behavior pattern. A content analysis of these statements was done and comments aimed at capturing the flavor of the reports were entered on the bottom of the daily work/discussion group Form 4. These comments could then be compared with ratings made on the other scales to see if they added further meaning to the ratings.

The primary focus of the discussion groups was to get members to look at problematic situations for them and work toward eventual resolutions. For this reason, the problem solving or avoiding work scale was a primary measure. In order to tap the problem solving/disruption behavior relevant to the primary interest, a specific rating scale was included. Each subject was ranked (with no ties) on the scale, from "predominance of problem solving work" as contrasted to "predominance of problem avoiding effort." Whether the subject actually engaged in problem-solving work was the first consideration, but the next question was what was accomplished by his efforts. To obtain this additional information subjects were also ranked on a level of accomplishment scale. Items ranged from "no problem-solving work attempted" to "problem resolution; insight, action commitment to 'better' behavioral, perceptual or affectual coping with problem." Examining the last item shows how the attention of the rater was called to specific behavioral or affective stances which the resolution should include. This type of item was included to help raters focus on the target regions of concern and to spot changes in these regions. It was recognized that all of the problems, previously listed for structured ratings, would hold in this case.

Following the movement of subjects on this problem solving scale while in the project will give some idea as to how important various target regions are on the subject's behavior over time.

Part of the task of the assessment process was to learn how the subjects were able to relate to others, primarily peers. One of the scales to be completed by the leaders, problem-solving support given, was included to obtain information about this type of interaction. Subjects were rated (with no ties) on a scale that ranged from "predominance of problem-solving support" to "predominance of problem-solving work disruption." The first scale, problem-solving work/disruption, rated the subject's attention to the task of the group process rather than his behavior toward other members. This scale also showed how the subject was behaving toward other members of the group rather than providing data on the ongoing work of the group. The behavior of the subjects toward one another can serve as an important measure of the group's progress toward the therapeutic objectives set for the meetings. This scale should be an important indicator of the change process going on when the group is viewed as a total unit.

The third rating was interaction and behavior. Each group leader had to describe the behavior of the subject which he had seen during the meeting by summarizing "briefly the nature of his interactions and picture his behavior in the meeting." These anecdotal reports on each subject were then read and content categories were devised by which a summary of each subject's report could be made. In most cases it was possible to reduce these brief reports to one or two words which tended to capture the flavor of the notes. The opportunity for the rater to make these comments was provided

due to some of the reasons previously stated above about structured versus unstructured forms.

The fourth scale to be completed by the group leader was one called centrality level. The leaders were asked to consider "the total activity, verbal and nonverbal, of each member during the meeting and place a '1' in the category most characteristic of the member in this meeting. . . ." The ratings moved from "central to ongoing process . . ." to "counter contributor."[1] It is obvious that group members will have different levels of influence on what takes place in the group at various times and situations. It is important, therefore, to try to determine how much of what the group is doing is directly attributable to which specific members. It is difficult to assess the interactions within a group because forces shaping the interactions within the social field are sometimes difficult to discover. The verbal (or even nonverbal) behaviors may not be the only clues to which the members are responding as some participants may be psychologically removed from the contemporaneous situation. Nevertheless, it is important to attempt to clarify the salient actors in the social field where possible.

One of the target regions of concern was love. The level of attraction scale was one such effort to measure, if possible, the relationship between an individual member and the group. This was the most direct effort to assess this region, aided by inferences that could be made from "attitude toward peers" and "attitude toward supervisors" on the work report form. The perception of this sentiment is very subjective and difficult to indicate just what is being observed when this judgment is made. For this reason, we

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[1] See a sample of Form 4 in the Appendix.

would expect the raters to have a difficult time assessing the members on this region. Despite these obvious difficulties it was considered worthwhile to attempt to assess this region. The relationship between attraction and centrality is expected to be high, as many of the appealing aspects of group life are the influence opportunities available to group members. On the other hand, it is entirely possible that some members, who are very low in centrality, feel a high degree of attraction to the group. Whether those with high attractions to the group can be distinguished by the rater is a difficult question to answer. For these reasons, it was considered worthwhile to include this particular scale in the hopes of being able to detect this latter category of subjects.

Level of acceptance by group was the fifth scale included on the form. How the leader saw members being accepted might clearly influence his own ratings on how attractive the group appeared to any particular subject. Because of this difficulty, the raters were asked to make this judgment to see how the two ratings would compare. In order to help detect behaviors that could be tagged as "accepting," the form asked for specific public acts rather than judgments about internal states. The categories ranged from "high acceptance" to "high rejection." Definitions of just what this particular type of behavior would look like were specific. For example, high acceptance was described as:

> Member's attempts to change process accepted and followed up by others; contributions to ongoing process supported, carried on; behavior contaged to others.

For high rejection, the following description was given:

> Contributions produced negative feedback, process change attempts rejected, hostility present; behavior criticized, laughed at (not with), taunted, picked on, etc.

The last scale consisted of items relating to the levels of relationship. It was described as:

> Considering total range of behavior, distribute each member's behavior during the meeting into the following categories. Please note that we are not concerned here with "liking for" as an individual, but we are concerned with how members related to the leader role during the meeting.

The categories ranged from "behaviors exhibiting overdependence on leader as authority figure or expert . . ." to "behaviors exhibiting acceptance of 'good joe' role only. . . ." The other items tapped specific target regions that might appear in the subject's behavior such as (1) impulse control, (2) love (trusting and accepting behavior), (3) hostility, (4) affect (withdrawal), and (5) skills (in search of own relevance to self).

There was a specific effort to focus on overt displays of behavior which could be inferred to be the result of the various target regions as revealed in the social interaction of group members. Many of these regions were assessed simultaneously but indirectly on other scales, while this scale attempted to make a more direct evaluation. The rationale for this approach was twofold. First, as the subject makes progress in his relationships to group members, direct or indirect evidence of changes in intrapersonal structure may be revealed in the ratings. Second, because of the many simultaneous events taking place, the rater's comments would be too general to ascertain at what level of function each subject is located in specific regions. In order to get the raters to attend to behavior-relevant events which would help locate the client along

a specific behavioral continuum, specific questions were asked. It was also important, however, to capture the ongoing events as they saw them, so that freedom to report some of these multiple impressions was desirable. Comparing the scales to see what was detected, when unsolicited, would be a way of checking the saliency of the regions in the behavior of the subjects and the observations of the staff.

Family Unit Group Meeting Form

The instrument used to rate the family unit meetings of parents and sons was the same as the one used for the boys' group meetings. The comments made above apply to the scales when used in this setting also. The social interaction of family members was the focus of the assessment strategy in the family unit meeting. There was the additional possibility of comparing the sons' behavior in family meetings with their ratings in their own group meetings on the same day. There was high desirability for this kind of cross-checking and this was one reason why the same form was used. There are some real problems in this type of cross-situational comparison, however, not the least of which resides in the competence of the various raters to use the form. Whether the same standards are being applied by the different raters when using the form, and a host of other matters, must be checked out before this type of comparison is a valid one. It is true also that the boys will behave very differently in group meetings with parents as contrasted to their own meetings with peers. This presents the problem of comparing behavior in two different social fields previously described.

For this reason, any observed and rated differences in behavior between the two groups may be either real or a function of rater error.

This type of cross analysis will not appear here because the family unit meetings were not held during the period of this analysis.

Client Profile Form

Rating tasks

A form (Form 5) was prepared to rate each subject on the level of functioning on each of the target regions (love, affect, control, hostility, and skill) from high to low. The ratings were prepared initially by each staff member having any knowledge of the subject at the beginning of his stay in the project. This initial evaluation provided a "base-line measure" against which subsequent ratings could be compared. On the basis of this type of rating, subjects could (although it was not done in this project) be assigned to therapy and work groups of similarly rated subjects. Furthermore, expected change patterns for each group of subjects could then be prepared against which to compare the observed behavior patterns of the clients.

There are a number of complicating factors which must be kept in mind when this instrument is used as a diagnostic tool. The subjects may be so upset, frightened, or confused upon entering the project that a distorted picture of their expressive level is obtained. What is measured, under these circumstances, is the presenting behavior of the client which contains a mixture of several behaviors. They may be presenting momentary or life situational responses to contemporaneous events, or the behavior may be perseverations from

a previous situation. It is entirely possible that all of these patterns of behavior are going on at the same time. Despite these complications, a scheme must be developed from this presenting behavioral pictures which will provide some expectations of the client's behavior during his stay in the project. This longitudinal view of the client's behavior through the various phases of change was prepared and labeled the expected change pattern.

One way to avoid some of the problems of basing the assessment on just the presenting behavior of the subject is to do a record check. A detailed and systematic evaluation of prior records can be completed on each client to form the basis of a personality profile. The data gathered from this source can then be compared with the observed presenting behavior. These two sources of data would allow a fuller picture of the subject to be developed which might result in a more accurate assessment. One of the principal problems attached by this approach is the one of having too small a behavioral sample upon which to make up the profile. Initial impressions can be very important and significant for determining the intrapersonal structure of some subjects, but the opposite is true for others.

Training requirements

The form was simple to fill out and it was easy to obtain rater agreement on the various categories. The important problem in its use was avoiding some of the contamination problems of rating forms previously discussed, e.g., halo, constancy, biases, etc.

Work Rating Form

The work situation provided a somewhat more "lifelike" experience for the boys than other project activities. They were expected to work on various assigned tasks under adult supervision. The primary therapeutic issues involved in this work relationship --(1) the systematic variation of the social field by working in various size groups, (2) the boys' interactions with their peers and adult supervisors, and (3) their attitudes toward work in general--were some of the specific items on which they were evaluated.[1] They were also rated aso to the quantity and quality of their work. Each boy, an elected work representative, and the adult work supervisor all made work ratings. This three-way rating scheme was used as a work evaluative process as well as a therapeutic tool and an assessment procedure.

Listing the several attitudinal and production items on the form did not give a complete picture of the work situation. The limitations of a structured form were very real here. In addition to the assessment of the client on these attitudinal and production measures, it was important to obtain a more complete picture of the nature of the assigned task. A description of the client's behavior was needed in order to know what was taking place within the life space of the subject at work. This simple but efficient rating form could not provide this type of information. Furthermore, using the structured form tended to block the reporting of information which did not fit into one of the appropriate boxes. In order to sound out the picture of the work situation, an additional report was needed.

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[1] See a sample of Form 6 in the Appendix.

Work Report

This was a relatively unstructured report in that the work supervisor was asked to record his daily comments on a blank sheet of paper.[1] He was given the following guidelines as to what the report was to contain: (1) each actor was to be listed (those specifically not present were reported as absent); (2) the place where the work was to be done; (3) the conditions under which they were working, i.e., weather, lack of tools, etc.; (4) the quantity and quality of work; (5) the date; and (6) an anecdotal description of the boys' behavior for that day. Often this part of the report contained valuable information which helped clarify just what had taken place at the work site. It must be remembered that all of the dangers of attributing causation to the contemporaneous events taking place right then and there are inherent in this type of reporting. It was also clear when reports were actually read that the clients often responded to forces in their life space which were not physically apparent at the work site. Some would act the same in the work group as they did in their discussion group, whereas others would act very differently. It was not always possible to know why these changes occurred, but it provided further reason for caution in rating the contemporaneous situation as the only determinants of the observed behavior.

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[1] See Form 7 in the Appendix for a sample Work Report Form.

Group Movement Report Form

In making an assessment of the individual's performance within the group there was little opportunity to assess the movement of the group qua group. For this reason, a second form was devised by which an overall daily ranking of the group itself could be made.[1] It was assumed that each member of the staff had his own picture of what was a "good group meeting" and what was a "bad" one. For this reason, the scale only listed two points, "high" and "low." Staff members were asked to place an "X" on the scale where they thought their group's level of performance should be rated for that particular day. This form theoretically gave a measure of the group alone, without regard for any particular member's performance. Obtaining this measure permitted individual members to be compared against this group standard for any particular day, and it also permitted an evaluation over time, of the entire group. In making comparisons of specific individual members' performances against the group's, it would be possible to see how closely any one person's behavior approximated the total group's rated performance. This type of comparison might show that a particular member was in fact the "model" subject which the rater focused on when deciding what the rating of the group would be for a specific day. This standard could shift from person to person, over days, making it difficult to compare any one subject as "the model" member across the entire time span.

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[1] See Form 8 in the Appendix for a sample Group Movement Report Form.

This form was used with both group meetings and work groups providing a comparable scale as the staff attempted to assess total group movement.

The Population to Be Studied

There was a total of 107 clients involved in the project throughout its 2-1/2 year life (June, 1962, to December, 1964). During this period of time, subjects were admitted and discharged from the project for a number of reasons, e.g., commitment to a state or county institution, admitted to the Army, moved away, etc. Boys were admitted at various periods during the life of the project as more staff or facilities became available. For some of these reasons, it would be extremely difficult to evaluate the total project and the impact of starting at different times on each client who participated. In order to bring some order to this varied pattern of entering or leaving the project, a fixed period of time (June 15 through August 4, 1964) was taken for the data analysis. During this study period a number of things were held constant.

1. The discussion groups were held every day for all clients participating at that time. There were a few who were absent, because of illness, unexcused absences, or who started late, due to transportation problems and mixups in scheduling.

2. With few exceptions, all the boys included in this assessment period were working each day with a work group. Three boys did not participate in the group work program, as two were assigned to clean up the house, positions which they held prior to the start of the summer program. One boy was excused from working because of an injury received in a motor bike accident during the summer.

Other than these variations, the work experiences were similar for most of the boys.

3. All of the boys were transported in project vehicles for at least three rides a day. Some boys were able to walk home at the end of the day so that a few did not have the standard four trips. On a few occasions boys missed rides in the morning and came to the house on their own.

Of the fifty-three boys participating in the project during the forty-day summer program, only thirty had records that were substantially complete to allow the type of analysis to be carried out suggested here. Of the twenty-three boys who were not included in this analysis, ten were released to attenc a summer camping program which caused their records to be eliminated from this analysis. Of the remaining thirteen, seven were confined during substantial parts of the summer which eliminated them from most of the project activities for this period. Of the other six, suspension from the project for legal processing and eventual commitment to the state necessitated their records being removed. A careful review of the boys in the small sample of thirty indicated that they had participated in all phases of the project and provided the most consistent records for analysis. The subsequent histories of the boys after the period of analysis indicated that several boys did not do well in the project and were eventually terminated through formal institutional commitment. The records of those in this sample did not represent a group who were substantially different from those excluded from study. Their performances ranged from outstanding to substandard. For this reason it is presumed that the records under analysis were comparable to all of the boys going through the project at that time.

Summary

This chapter contains a statement of the theoretical basis of the treatment process as proposed in Lewin's view of multiple inputs to the life space by significant actors as sources of data for change. To facilitate this process an effort was made to establish a sense of freedom for trying out new behavior and developing norms within the group to support change and provide relevant feedback on the new behavior. The subjects were exposed to discussion groups, work situations, family meetings, and even formal school as specific approaches to facilitate the obtainment of these objectives. From this variety of experiences in different settings it was hoped that the maximum number of congruent messages about the subjects' behavior would be produced leading to planned behavioral change.

Five hypotheses were derived from Lewin's theoretical concepts which were the focus of the treatment strategy. These hypotheses were not formally tested in this thesis as the techniques of treatment were beyond the scope of this work. In addition to the treatment hypotheses, five regions of the person were identified as targets toward which the treatment efforts were directed. These regions, selected from many suggested in the literature as being important in shaping the behavioral pattern of the delinquent boys, were: degree of impulse control, level of hostility, affective expression, social skill, and love.

In addition to the goals and targets of treatment, the specific operations included within the project were presented. This chapter included the rationale for transportation, group and family meetings, and the school and work programs. The operational hypotheses that were developed about each one of these areas were also

presented. Furthermore, the forms which were used to gather data on the behavior of the subjects in each one of these areas were described in detail. Not only the make-up of the forms, but the theoretical rationale for each one and the possible restrictions on the conclusions which could be drawn from them were also spelled out. A careful reading of this chapter will prepare the reader to come to grips with the many issues presented in the next chapter about the variety of ways of analyzing the data in order to detect planned change.

CHAPTER V

EVALUATION OF THE ASSESSMENT MODEL

It has been argued in previous chapters that change requires a variety of coordinated socialization messages and situations. Furthermore, in the model it was suggested that subjects be assessed in each of these situations over time if change is to be detected. The proposed model was tried out in a delinquency treatment project in order to measure the change in behavior of the subjects. As a result of following out the procedures indicated in the model, a great variety of measures were obtained. The resulting accumulation of data from this strategy is voluminous and needs to be reduced to those critical measures which will most clearly demonstrate the feasibility of the model to detect planned change. This post hoc analysis will attempt to discover if it was possible to detect change in the subjects' behavior. The analytic forms will be directed at discovering where, and in what manner, the change appeared, and what techniques of data recording and processing were most helpful in illustrating the changes in behavior. In order to maintain a clarity of focus in this chapter, three basic themes will be used to organize the data. These themes are:

1. What convenient and useful subcategories of subjects can be established to present in the clearest way possible the variations that can be expected as the subjects undergo change?

2. If detailed understanding of the subjects' change behavior is to be grasped, what meaningful subclassifications must be used to determine individual change patterns?

3. When subjects have a specific type of inner structure (with regard to target regions only), what type of change behavior do they display?

The following presentation will deal only with the formal propositions of the model to determine their usefulness in completing a social assessment. Additional findings not included in the original statement of the model will be discussed if they add important information to the study. Furthermore, all of the results of the data analysis will not be reviewed here, as they are not relevant to the model under discussion. The twelve steps proposed by Murray (1948) and elaborated in Chapter III will be covered with the formal hypotheses included at relevant points in the analysis.

Analytic Schemes for Processing the Data

Total Pattern Analysis

The first step (clarification of assessment objectives) picks up the first theme of the chapter by attempting to discover the general patterns of change behavior to be found in the data. One obvious and rather simple analytic device that can be used is the graphs themselves, which were prepared for each subject. Careful analysis may yield clues to changes in behavior. This type of total pattern review will be the first major focus of the data analysis. A variety of hypotheses can be tested by this type of graphic analysis.

In Step 1, two conditions were specified for accurate social assessment to take place: (1) a variety of settings to reveal change patterns, and (2) sufficient time for the change picture to emerge. The thirty subjects were assessed daily over a forty-day period in each major setting, e.g., work, discussion groups, and in the cars. These procedures must be evaluated to determine whether the variety of settings and ratings were necessary to develop a change picture. This was stated more formally as the first hypothesis:

> Hypothesis 1. The pattern of observed behavior of subjects will be very similar (or congruent) in different social situations.

Variety of settings

In order to complete this analysis, the graphs (both work and discussion) from the Daily Person/Group Rating Form (Form 4) for each subject were compared for their degree of similarity. If the patterns of the two graphs were rated the same, they were considered congruent. In making this decision of congruence each of the two points (work and discussion) for a given day were compared together with the two points of the consecutive days. If the resulting pattern which emerged from this day-by-day comparison was parallel for six out of eight weeks, then it was considered congruent (see Graph I, first to four, seventh, and eighth weeks, in the Appendix). The distance between points on the same day was ignored as the lines may have been widely separated but still parallel (see eighth week). This degree of separation between the two graphs was called intensity spread.[1] On occasion, the patterns

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[1] "Intensity spread" means that the overall level of one line (discussion group) was placed higher on the scale than the other (work group). This implied, of course, that the behavior was more conforming to the objectives of the specific activity (see Graph II).

would be parallel but there would be a lag of a day (see fourth week), but they were still considered congruent.

A pattern was considered incongruent if the two graphs were divergent 75 percent or more of the time (see Graph II). Mixed graphs had a "fifty-fifty" split between congruent and incongruent patterns (see Graph III). When all the graphs on Form 1 were evaluated in terms of whether they were congruent, incongruent, or a mixture of both, six out of the thirty (20 percent) were congruent, fourteen (47 percent) were incongruent, and ten (33 percent) were mixtures (see Table 1). The hypothesis is not supported by these findings.

When the ratings for discussion and work groups were redone by computing a running average for each week, similar results were obtained. Computing a running average smoothed the graphs out so that it was easier to see the pattern trends in detail. Under these conditions it was found, as indicated in Table 2, that two (6 percent) were essentially the same (congruent), seventeen (57 percent) were

TABLE 1

PATTERN CONGRUENCE OF WORK AND DISCUSSION GROUP GRAPHS

Pattern Congruence	No.	Pct.
Congruent	6	20
Incongruent	14	47
Mixed	10	33

TABLE 2

PATTERN CONGRUENCE OF WORK AND DISCUSSION GROUP GRAPHS (RUNNING AVERAGES)

Pattern Congruence	No.	Pct.
Congruent	2	7
Mixed	17	57
Divergent	3	10
Convergent	4	13
Incomplete	4	13

mixed, and four (13 percent) were incomplete. Additionally, patterns could be distinguished as four (13 percent) converging (one rising or falling toward the other, or both moving toward each other, suggesting different behavior in the two settings), and three (10 percent) diverging (the converse of the above).

The findings from the transportation records need to be examined to see if they are consistent with the data from the work and discussion group graphs. Generally the boys were transported four times a day, and each time their interaction pattern was recorded. The subjects who were rated as major interactors (either initiating behavior or behavior being contaged from others) were selected for study. A tally was completed of the total number of times a subject was rated in the category of "major interactor" by the two drivers.

Those who were ranked above the median were studied over the four transportation periods. The four periods were:

Period 1--picked up from home and brought to project house.

Period 2--taken to work site after group meetings for one-half the subjects and immediately after pickup for the other one-half.

Period 3--returned to house after work for one-half the boys to attend meetings, or to the house prior to departure for home for the other one-half.

Period 4--departure for home for all.

When examining the pattern of the boys separately by time, eight maintained the pattern of being a major interactor for four periods, five for three periods, three for two periods, and seven for only one period. In summarizing these findings, support for the previous point can be found that for most subjects the behavior differs from situation to situation, but also indicates that it differs for some subjects in the same situation at different times. When the findings from the cars, work groups, and discussion groups are combined, it becomes even clearer that a small number of subjects (about one-fifth) have the same behavior pattern from situation to situation, whereas for others (about one-third) there is an erratic pattern of continuity. This finding immediately raises questions about the ability to predict the behavior of subjects assessed in one situation and working in another.

Time for change picture to emerge

Time was considered the second important factor in developing a clear assessment picture. The relatively large group of

subjects who presented mixed behavior patterns over the entire graph would tend to support the need for an extended assessment period. Until a sufficient time interval had elapsed, it would be impossible to obtain a clear picture of those subjects who were only temporarily fluctuating back and forth from a congruent to an incongruent pattern from those who were permanently erratic. This problem also suggests the necessity of frequent assessments in order to record these changes in different situations over time.

Summary

From this initial data anlysis it can be seen that it is possible (and also necessary) to make very simple divisions of the subjects into subgroups to ascertain the degree of similarity in their graphic patterns. Some subjects can be expected to be very consistent from situation to situation, whereas others are always unpredictable. In addition, there is a third group which sometimes holds a pattern across situations and sometimes does not. An effective data anlysis scheme must be able to spot these different types of subjects.

Typological Analysis

From the findings of Step 1, it is clear that a systematic breakdown of subjects must be done in order to be more precise in predicting change behavior. Developing a meaningful set of subgroupings is the second theme to be discussed here, and Steps 2 and 3 attempt to accomplish just that.

Specifying the behavior to be observed

Step 2 calls for the careful delineation of the subjects' behavior, and Step 3 suggests the development of appropriate diagnostic instruments to measure the observed behavior. The first process can be carried out by developing a typology of the variety of subjects that can reasonably be expected to make up the set of assessees. From the data already presented in Step 1 above, it can be seen that there are a variety of responses that subjects make to situations when undergoing change. This variety must be dealt with systematically or else the differences in the change process, from subject to subject, may tend to cancel each other out. In this project, a typology was developed dividing subjects into ten categories as called for in Step 2. The distribution was skewed somewhat toward the more defiant hostile end (see Table 3). This skewing was not unexpected because subjects were originally selected for inclusion within the project due to their hostile attitudes and antisocial behavior. The ten categories were derived from an instrument called the Client Profile Rating Form (Form 5) by scoring subjects on the five target regions. These regions, it should be remembered, were selected as being important areas of the person toward which treatment effort should be aimed. The clients were ranked from high to low on the five target regions, and from this ranking subcategories were made up, by inspection, to include the most homogeneous subgroupings (see Chart III). All subjects who had the same general profile (Chart III) were put into subcategories and given a number. As a result of an examination of these general categories, a short written description was made up for each. From these descriptive statements, key words were taken from the context

TABLE 3

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY TYPOLOGY

Subcategory	No. of Subjects							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I. Indifferent	×							
II. Frozen	×	×	×					
III. Rejecting	×	×	×	×				
IV. Defiant	×	×	×					
V. Withdrawn	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	
VI. Hyperactive	×	×	×	×				
VII. Suspicious	×							
VIII. Testing	×	×	×					
IX. Lazy	×							
X. Too open	×	×	×					

which seemed to describe the overall behavior of each one. Indicated in Chart I are the descriptive statements (with key word emphasized), the numbers assigned to those subcategories, and their subsequent names. Ten categories were used even though several contained only one subject for an important reason. Previous familiarity with this type of subject suggested that they might in fact be very different from each other and it was important to retain these variations where possible. The distribution of the subjects included within the subsample of thirty was essentially the same as all the subjects included within the project but not involved in this study. A summary of the names and numbers assigned the subcategories follows:

I. Indifferent
II. Frozen
III. Rejecting
IV. Defiant
V. Withdrawn
VI. Hyperactive
VII. Suspicious
VIII. Testing
IX. Lazy
X. Too open

A complete description, as included in the Description of Behavior for Use with Client Profile Analysis, made it easy to identify subjects for relevant categories (see Chart II).

Since subjects were rated on a scale from low to medium to high, a three-by-five chart was prepared with each subject assigned his appropriate place for the relevant target region (Chart IV). There was very poor separation along the hostility dimension with twenty-seven rated high and three rated on the high side of medium. For this reason hostility was dropped from further analysis.

CHART I

DESCRIPTIONS OF SUBJECTS BY TYPOLOGY

Typology No.	Description	Name
I	Because of their ability to express their feelings in subtle ways, and yet a tendency to be guarded, they will not express feelings directly toward adults. The presenting behavior will tend to be indifferent as a more neutral way of expressing hostility.	Indifferent
II	Because of the general appearance of a frozen affect which is not subject to much fluctuation these subjects will tend to remain unresponsive to their new surroundings for a long time. Highly defensive and suspicious behavior and the tendency to perseverate these feelings will allow the original character of frozenness to persist.	Frozen
III	There is a tendency for this group to be rather frozen in affective expression as well as somewhat tense in appearance. These subjects will take the more appropriate way to deal with these negative feelings by rejecting the situation rather than openly defying it.	Rejecting
IV	Because of the tendency toward high lability of self-control these subjects are more likely to display their hostile feelings toward the project. Since they express their feelings directly, but with some restrictions, then the behavior will be seen more as defiant rather than open and unbridled hostility.	Defiant

CHART I (Continued)

Typology No.	Description	Name
V	These subjects who are unwilling to engage in social interactions will appear withdrawn. Their tendency to be frozen will reinforce this appearance by masking over any expressions. Their high degree of hostility and suspiciousness can best be hidden by remaining withdrawn from personal interactions.	Withdrawn
VI	Hypersensitive and perseverative persons with vary labile controls who will continually act out. The general emotional tone which will color their behavior will be one of hostility, but in some cases there may be a tendency to modify the picture in the presence of adults as they feel successful in manipulating them. Hyperactivity will characterize their behavior.	Hyperactive
VII	Since these subjects can express their inner feelings skillfully and in appropriate ways, their hostile feelings will be masked over by their suspiciousness toward adults. The persistent quality of their behavior will tend to cause the suspicious appearance to continue for some time, beyond the initial entry into the project.	Suspicious
VIII	This subcategory can best be described as testing those around them, for their emotional tone is even but not entirely accepting. This testing at first helps to orient them to the situation.	Testing

CHART I (Continued)

Typology No.	Description	Name
IX	This subject is distinguished from those in V in that he is open to influence attempts but his performance is very inadequate and he appears to be lazy. The reasons may reflect an ineptness for what is being done or a masked hostility toward those who are asking him to perform.	Lazy
X	These subjects are suspicious but can fit right in and do what is required of them very well. They are smooth in interpersonal relationships and reflect an even-tempered degree of self-control. They are most often too open and sensitive to negative or hostile emotions which are being displayed in the situation by others and will pick them up readily.	Too open

CHART II

DESCRIPTION OF BEHAVIOR FOR USE WITH CLIENT PROFILE ANALYSIS

Level	Description	Code
	Skills[a]	
Low	Generally inept, easily confused, frustrated, or distracted. Interest can be easily extinguished by negative experiences. Very slow to pick up on instructions. Not necessarily incapable of learning but just doesn't get the "hang of it." Progresses slowly after catching on. Resistance is extremely high to entering activity again. Will lead to reactions which will spill over into other areas if associated with some person, event, or general environment of the previous activity.	Slow, unwilling, inept
Medium	Seems to catch on at a rate on a par with his group. May show some signs of frustration if learning doesn't come right away, but quickly brightenes when he gets the point. Success tends to reinforce and to a certain extent frustration leads to reverse effect. Excessive frustration will extinguish interest and will cause subject to avoid activity in the future.	Appropriate
High	Adept at acquiring skill. Tends to be persistent in attempting to acquire the skill. If acquires skill too easily (or thinks that this is possible) may not attempt to try out the activity. Often possible to overcome this reaction with little personal persuasion.	Adept and persistent

[a]Skills--ability to manipulate persons or objects in a conscious manner.

CHART II (Continued)

Level	Description	Code
	Love[b]	
Low	Suspicious of the motivation behind adults' behaviors. Willing to accept from high status peers. Will sometimes lower barriers to adults and become oriented toward them over peers if the motivation of the adult becomes clear.	Suspicious, defensive
Medium	Will be able to interact with and accept from all range of peers. More so from high status peers, however. Can accept from adults without high overt suspicion. Is satisfied with a straightforward answer to his questions about adult motivation.	Open to influences
High	Quickly accepts adults over peers. Oriented toward them in his actions. Relates easily with peers but is more able to see "hidden motivation" in their actions.	Adult oriented
	Affect[c]	
Low	Almost no expression appears on the face unless the emotional level is overwhelming to subject. You see torrents of emotion expressed for exceedingly short periods. Variations in the facial expressions to go along with changing emotional situations will be absent. "Deadpan" or "frozen" features are most characteristic.	Frozen

[b]Love--the pervasive emotional tone used by the parents in raising the child as perceived by the child (Steiner and Berelson, 1964).

[c]Affect--the facial expressions which subjects use to convey their felt emotions.

CHART II (Continued)

Level	Description	Code
Medium	A good match between emotion and expression of same. May be expressed directly toward adults but limitations of appropriateness are usually exercised.	Balanced expression
High	Expression of emotion seems "too free" for the situation. Emotionality seems to become a way of influencing the nature of subject's interaction with others. Subject will be seen as "too angry" or "too happy" in terms of the situation. There is a quality of "pseudoemotionalism."	Pseudo-emotional
	Hostility	
Low	Emotional plane should appear rather flat. Can best be described as "level headed." Often called easy going and nonchalant. May even appear somewhat disengaged from an emotional crisis. If angered quickly dissipated. Few discernible moods.	Disengaged
Medium	Anger more appropriate to situation, i.e., may dissipate rapidly or perseverate past the original issue. The pattern would be flexible, sometimes appropriate, but at other times not especially so. Target of hostility would tend to be appropriate and in keeping with what the situation would allow.	Appropriate
High	Guarded behavior, quick to anger. Tendency to flood out in torrents against diffuse and poorly differentiated targets. Anger is quickly provoked to an inappropriate degree and highly perseverated.	Hypersensitive, perseverative

CHART II (Continued)

Level	Description	Code
	Control	
Low	Tendency for quick change of mood. Hyperactive with perseveration past the point of original stimulus. Strong restraining or resisting pressures are needed to curb ongoing action.	Labile
Medium	When controls break down, only moderate pressures are needed to curb the outburst. Perseveration is limited to highly traumatic situation. Evenly flowing pattern with minor peaks of high or low emotionality. When peaks occur they tend to be damped out by the subject himself rather than relying on others or external forces to bring him back into control.	Even keel
High	Frozen behavior showing little spontaneous movement. Emotionality leaks through in very short burst with the "lid being clamped on" again very quickly. Strong emotions are not shown with the exception of possible hysterical episodes. The general picture of an exceedingly tense person is presented at all times. Smiles seldom and when he does it appears forced rather than "natural."	Frozen, tense

CHART III

PROFILES OF CLIENTS
(High, Medium, Low)

Typology No.	Sub-category	Case	Target Region				
			Skill	Love	Affect	Hostility	Control
I	Indifferent	A	H	M	M	H	L
II	Frozen	B	L	L	L	H	M
		C	L	L	L	H	M
		L	L	L	L	H	M
III	Rejecting	E	H	L	L	H	H
		F	M	L	L	H	H
		G	M	L	L	H	H
		H	M	M	L	H	H
IV	Defiant	I	H	L	M	H	L
		J	M	L	M	H	L
		K	M	L	M	H	M
V	Withdrawn	V	L	L	L	H	H
		M	L	L	L	H	H
		N	L	L	L	H	H
		O	L	L	L	H	H
		P	L	H	L	H	H
		Q	L	L	L	H	L
		R	L	L	L	H	L
VI	Hyperactive	S	H	L	L	H	L
		T	M	L	L	H	L
		U	H	L	M	H	L
		W	H	L	M	H	L
VII	Suspicious	X	H	L	M	M	H
VIII	Testing	Y	M	M	M	M	M
		Z	M	H	H	H	M
		AA	M	L	L	H	L
IX	Lazy	BB	L	L	M	H	H
X	Too open	CC	H	L	M	H	M
		DD	H	L	M	M	M
		D	H	L	M	H	M

CHART IV

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS ON FIVE TARGET REGIONS

CONTROL	HOSTILITY	AFFECT	SKILL	LOVE
O†, G, N, D, M, E, F, R, BB, X, V, H, Z (13)	A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Z, AA, BB, CC (27)	(0)	S, I, E, A, X, CC, DD, W, U, (9)	(0)
CC, DD, D, Y	BB, L, Y	U*, CC, X, BB, DD, W, I, J, Y	F, Y, T, D, G	Z, A, Y, P*
T, K, L (7)	(3)	O, K, L, A, D, T (15)	AA, Q, J, Z, K, P, N, O (13)	(4)
B, C, J, O, S, A, I, W, U, AA (10)	(0)	AA, N, P, G, F, E, M, V, R, H, Z, B, Q, C, S (15)	C, B, V, BB, L, M, R, H (8)	U, W, S, C, Q, B, I, J, BB, X, L, T, D, K, CC, DD, N, O, G, F, E, R, H, M, AA, V (26)

† Case letters

* Rated Low-High so placed in medium

Two of the other regions could be clearly trichotomized (Control, 13-7-10; Skill, 9-13-8), whereas Affect and Love could only be dichtomized[1] (Affect, 15-15; Love, 26-4). When making the original ratings at the start of the project, all of the staff members tended to distinguish between high-medium and low-medium for all four regions as indicated on Chart IV by the dotted line running through the medium row. Because of the small number of total subjects it was decided to dichtomize the regions in the data analysis, so that the individual categories would be larger. From these two steps it was possible to develop subclassifications as suggested in the second theme. The instrument was simple to devise and the categories easy to determine by inspection.

Summary

When studying a group the size of this subsample, there is a tendency to treat all of the data on the subjects as if they were the same. From just the information recovered from the analysis of the regional assessment data it is clear that the subjects are very different when assessed this way. Because these differences were possible to discover, it is considered important to maintain the separate subcategories even though the cells will be small. Being able to trace out the specific change patterns of each subject would provide the most fruitful ideas about planned change.

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[1]One high subject in both Affect and Love were rated as a low-high, so they were both placed with the medium category.

Regional Analysis

The next issue raised, if subcategories are to be used, is determining the meaningfulness of the categories. In order to do this, taking up the third theme, the effect of various types of intrapersonal structure on change behavior would be instructive.

Target regions as shapers of behavior

The selection of the specific target regions presumed that they would be important in shaping the behavior of subjects in their social interactions within the project. At this point in the analysis, the feasibility of bypassing the previous subgroupings--e.g., convergent, divergent, and mixed groupings, as well as the typological subcategories--will be explored in order to see the varieties of behavior arising from these intrapersonal differences. This strategy, of course, was the one followed by "trait psychologists" in the past. The effort here is to try to establish the relationship between ratings on the Client Profile Analysis Form and specific behaviors in the project. Toward this stated objective, a number of rating scales were devised so as to record the nature of the subjects' behavior. Measures of association were obtained between these regions and the various scales using a Filter tau program for computation of chi-square values. All values of p were obtained from tables appearing in Siegel, Non Parametric Statistics, 1956, p. 249.

When measures of association between each of the five target regions (measure at entrance to project) and the seven scales in the Group Meeting Report Form (Form 3) (model measure of behavior for specific time period) were computed, only three regions--Affect, Skill, Control--out of five appeared to be significantly related to

the scales and various measures on the graphs[1] (see Table 4). When the three regions were paired with each other--i.e., Affect-Skill, Affect-Control, Skill-Control--six of the behavioral ratings were strongly associated with ratings on these clusters (see Table 4).[2] For this reason Control, Skill, and Affect were retained in the subsequent data analysis, but Love was not. Subjects who were rated as highly skilled initially were also rated as most effective in influencing group behavior, either negatively or positively, as their most characteristic behavior for the total period. This is to be expected when it is remembered that Skill was defined as the ability it manipulate persons or things. Clearly the most skillful members were typically able to manipulate the group and were rated accordingly.

The impact of Affect on the ratings is less clear but suggests that subjects who were seen as best able to express their inner feelings initially made a clearer impact on the raters than subjects who were not. When Affect and Skill are combined it is apparent that most scales are affected showing a strong association between highly skilled subjects who were best able to express their feelings and also able to cope with various situations. Although individual regions (Affect, Control, and Skill) make some independent impact on the rated behavior of subjects, the combinations had an even greater effect. This finding seems to agree with much that

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[1]The scales were: Level of Accomplishment, Problem Solving Support/Disruption, Level of Centrality, Level of Attraction, Level of Acceptance, Level of Relationship, and Interaction and Behavior.

[2]All of the above scales with the exception of Interaction and Behavior.

TABLE 4

SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS OF CHI-SQUARE ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN BEHAVIOR SCALES, GRAPHS, AND TARGET REGIONS BY REGIONS AND PERIODS[a]

Rating Scale	Affect	Love	Skill	Control	Aff.-Skill	Aff.-Con.	Skill-Con.
1. Accomplishment first half .	- .02	- -	<.02 .10[b]	- -	<.01 .01	<.01 <.01	<.05 <.05
2. Problem-solving support/ disruption	- -	- -	.10[b] <.001	- -	- <.02	- .10	- <.01
3. Centrality . . .	- -	- <.05	<.02 <.05	- -	<.05 <.02	- -	- -
4. Attraction . . .	.05 .05	- -	<.05 <.01	- -	<.05 <.01	<.05 <.10	.10 <.05
5. Acceptance . .	- .05	.01[c] -	<.05 <.02	- -	.10 .10	.10 <.05	.10 .10
6. Relation to leader first half .	- -	- -	<.10 -	- -	.10 -	- -	- -
7. Work group-deflections (graph)	- -	- -	- -	- -	.20 -	.20 -	- -
8. Plateaus-discussion (graph)	- -	.05 -	<.05 -	- -	.20 -	- -	- -

[a]First line = first period; second line = second period.

[b]Almost equal to level given.

[c]Recalculated with dichotomized data.

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Rating Scale	Af-fect	Love	Skill	Con-trol	Aff.-Skill	Aff.-Con.	Skill-Con.
9. Divergions-							
work to discus-	-	-	<.02	-	.05	-	.10
sion (graph) . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10. Crosses-							
work to discus-	-	-	<.05	-	-	-	<.05
sion (graph) . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11. Overall ex-							
pressive level-	-	-	<.01[c]	-	<.01	.20	.10
disc. (graph) . . .	-	.05	-	-	-	-	-
12. Averaged							
expressive level	-	-	<.001	-	<.001	<.05	.05
-disc. (graph) . .	-	-	<.02	-	-	-	-
13. Terminal							
expressive level	-	-	-	-	.02	.05	<.10
-disc. (graph) . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14. Initial ex-							
pressive level-	-	-	-	-	-	.10	.10
disc. (graph) . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15. Cent. and							
prob. solv. sup.	-	-	-	-	.10	-	.10
1 mode	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16. Cent. and							
acceptance	-	-	-	-	.10	-	<.02
2 modes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17. Cent. and							
accompl.	-	-	-	-	.10	-	-
1 mode	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Rating Scale	Affect	Love	Skill	Control	Aff.-Skill	Aff.-Con.	Skill-Con.
18. Cent. and prob. solv.	.05	-	<.10	-	<.02	-	<.05
2 cat.	-	-	<.10	-	-	-	-
19. Cent. and	.02	<.05	<.05	-	.10	.10	.02
accept. 1 cat. . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20. Cent. and	-	-	<.01	-	.10	<.05	<.01
accept. 2 cat. . .	-	-	<.05	-	-	-	-
21. Cent. and	-	-	<.02	-	.10	-	-
accomp. 2 cat. .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
22. Interaction-	-	-	<.01	-	<.02	-	<.05
trans A	-	-	<.001	-	-	-	-
23. Interaction-	-	-	<.01	-	-	-	.20
trans B	-	-	<.05	-	-	-	-
24. Interaction-	-	-	<.02	-	.10	-	.01
trans C	-	-	<.01	-	-	-	-
25. Interaction-	<.10	-	<.02	-	.10	.20	.10
trans D	-	-	<.01	-	-	-	-
26. Interaction-	-	-	<.01	-	.10	.10	-
trans total	-	-	<.05	-	-	-	-

came out of old trait studies. In general it was concluded that the clustering of traits with regard to relevance to specific situations had to be measured rather than searching for the absence or presence of a particular one.

Summary

From these findings, it would appear that Love as initially assessed for each subject either could not be properly assessed by the methods used in this study or made little impact on the behavior of subjects in groups over time. Out of the five original regions selected as targets of the treatment effort, only Skill, Control, and Affect seem assessable with the techniques selected. There is another possible interpretation of these findings if Lewin's ideas of central and peripheral location of regions is followed. In Lewin's scheme it would appear that Love is a more central region of the person because of the difficulty in assessing it, whereas Affect, Control, and Skill are less central. As previously stated, Lewin felt that regions which are more central in their location are not easily affected by outside stimuli, whereas those that are peripheral are easily influenced by external stimuli. It is also true that they are less likely to have a consistent effect in shaping the behavior of the person because of continual changes due to new external stimuli. From an assessment point of view, then, it would appear to be more difficult to assess the region of Love than Affect, Skill, and Control. Impressions, reported by staff members in the project log, indicated that subjects began to demonstrate the ability to make and form better interpersonal relationships with peers and adults. The elapsed time, however, was very long, indicating high resistance to change.

Developing a picture of the various regions and the extent to which they shape the particular behavior patterns of subjects in the group, work, and transportation was a feasible objective. Knowing that a significant association between an initial rating of regions obtained on one instrument can be obtained from another rating of specific modal behavior on a second is only a first step. The next important venture in assessment is to obtain some understanding of how these target regions influence the subjects' behavior as they undergo change.

Target regions and change behavior

Step 4 indicated the need to develop a theoretically expected change pattern for each type of subject in order to obtain a better expectation of the change behavior for the particular type of individuals. The development of the subcategories was accomplished by inspection of the rankings on the region as previously reported. The next step of providing an elaboration of a change pattern for each one of the subcategories comes back to the second theme of this chapter. Chart I reflects the work done to elaborate the expected change patterns for each of the ten subcategories. It will be noted that the four phases, as previously indicated, follow the Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley (1958) elaboration of the Lewin (1936) formulation.

The expected change pattern was based on an analysis of the antecedent data on the clients gathered from their case records. In addition, initial impressions obtained by the staff of the subjects' current behavior were included. The chart represents certain inferences which were made about the nature of the change process that might be expected. Starting with the readiness phase, a short

statement of the evidence (behavior displayed) and the rationale for this type of behavior is given below.

Readiness phase

1. Evidence of "slanting" behavior would be the most predominant pattern. This may take the form of "being nice," appearing "indifferent," or frightening by being loud and/or hostile toward observers and peers.

2. Rationale--efforts on the part of subjects to shape their behavior or "slant it" provides a most important clue that the subjects feel a demand being placed on them by the social situation. This may not be an entirely conscious awareness but may reflect the subject's typical ways of behaving when adults are around, in a structured environment, or when first entering into a strange situation. If the behavior of the subjects is placed along a continuum of ready/not ready for change it would appear to be something like that indicated in Example A below. This, of course, represents clinical hunches as to just what this behavior means rather than being based on phenomenological evidence from the subjects.

Example A

Not Ready <———> Ready

indifferent <———> nice behavior
frozen <———> hostile

Indifferent and frozen behavior tends to be used to avoid interactions with observers and peers. This is a way of neutralizing influence attempts made by others.

Nice behavior seems to be an effort to meet self-perceived concepts of what is expected in the new situation. It is a way of

extending oneself into the environment rather than attempting to retreat. Since the subject is attempting to exert influence, he is more liable to be influenced by others than if he is withdrawing.

Hostile behavior seems to be a way of coloring the interaction pattern. Expressions of latent feelings about things should become more manifest when this behavior is demonstrated. The expression of these feelings may take the form of increased interaction attempts (overt or covert--either positive or negative in direction), decreased interactions, or general shifts in the pattern of the interaction style.

Unfreezing phase

1. Evidence--The behavior pattern of the subjects should take on more depth, rather than changing in kind.

2. Rationale--Unfreezing is seen as a loosening up of controls by subjects from their previous behavior. It should be expected that the unfreezing process will begin to reveal more of the subjects' behavior. The unfreezing process will be different for the various types of subjects, depending on their initial pattern of behavior.

Example B

Readiness		Unfreezing
hostile	<——>	increased hostility
withdrawn	<——>	increased interaction
nice behavior	<——>	decreased niceness
hyperactive	<——>	same or hypoactive

Movement phase

1. Evidence--One would expect to see controls begin to emerge, although the efforts will be spotty and vacillating. The

controls will not always be effective nor appropriate, and when they are ineffective the subjects' behavior may regress to typical readiness or unfreezing phase behavior.

2. Rationale--As a person perceives "new ways of behaving" he sets expectations for himself. Communicating these expectations becomes part of helping him to "move" toward his new goals. Failure to meet these goals should bring about countervailing pressures from others attempting to bring subject's behavior into line with his expressed goals. These pressures can be the cause of his vacillation and his regressive behavior. Pressure applied tends to push subject toward his goals, yet this same pressure can become an irritant which will produce regressive behavior. This can be illustrated with reciprocal arrows in the following manner:

Example C

hostility	<——>	increased hostility	<——>	decreased hostility
withdrawn	<——>	increased interaction	<——>	increased affective expression
nice behavior	<——>	decreased niceness	<——>	balance nice/bad behavior
hyperactive	<——>	same or hypoactive	<——>	hyperactive or normal

Freezing phase

1. Evidence--The shifts in the pattern of behavior should stabilize with only minor fluctuations. The fluctuations which do occur should be associated with strong environmental or personal intrapsychic pressures.

2. Rationale--Even though subjects have stabilized they have not become fixed. For this reason fluctuations should be expected around a certain "general level" of new functioning. Regressive behavior should be of short duration and revolve around rather clear events rather than diffuse stress points. The return to the "new level" should be rather rapid.

Graphic analysis

In addition to these general statements about how the change phase would appear in behavioral terms, statements were also developed about the way behavior would be rated on the graphs. For each subcategory of subjects five characteristics were specified for their graphs. They were the degree of congruence in the total pattern between work and discussion, the similarity in shifts in ratings for each day for work and meetings, the lability of the two patterns, the degree of vascillation, and the intensity spread between the two lines for the entire period. These various concepts were defined as:

1. Situation similarity--The number of change points which coincide in the work and discussion graphs. These change points are counted without regard for their convergence, or divergence. Rationale--Taking stock of these changes will give some idea as to the number of times the ratings will vary on the same day for each subject in both situations. This daily analysis will help to point up the amount of relatedness between two different situations.

2. Congruence--As previously defined, this is an indication of how parallel the trends are in the overall patterns of work and group meeting ratings. The patterns may be congruent, incongruent, or a mixture of the two. Rationale--A highly congruent pattern

would suggest another way of seeing the degree of similarity that exists between ratings in one situation as compared to a second.

3. Lability level--The number of major deflections (two or more lines up or down) on the graph. The total number for each situation and subject were counted and then ranked (by discussion group rating) and then dichotomized into high and low (above 13 high and 12 or below were low). The highs were considered "stable" and the lows were classified as "labile." The same procedure could be followed with the anecdotal comments for the discussion group. Each one of the comments was tallied, and if more than 50 percent of the comments were of one class then the subject was classified as "stable," and if less than that, he was rated as "labile." An example of a class of comments would be "leader role" and "supportive," or "hostile" and "disruptive." Rationale--This was a way of noting how much up-and-down movement there was on the graphs which might indicate how unstable or stable the performance of a particular subject was in the two different situations.

4. Vacillation level--The number of planes (two points connected on the same horizontal line) on the total graph were counted and subtracted from the total number of points possible to determine the overall degree of vacillation of the patterns. Rationale--The number of connected points on the same level gave some indication of the amount of perseveration in rating there was over the entire rating period. Some subjects could have a relatively stable pattern but they would be rated at a different intensity level. On the other hand, the subject could play different roles but at the same intensity.

5. Intensity spread--The amount of separation on the graphs between each line. Rationale--Some subjects had a high-level work performance, but a low level of group participation. In this case

the intensity spread between the two lines would be high. For other subjects the two lines would be almost entirely superimposed on each other. This would provide some indication of how similarly the subjects were rated in two different situations.

The expected change patterns presented in Chart I grew out of specific information obtained on each subject rather than just a theoretical view of personality drawn up independently of the subjects under assessment. The change patterns were developed prior to obtaining longitudinal data on subjects but after the initial assessment data had been collected. The third hypothesis stated:

> Hypothesis 3. The expected change pattern of behavior will equal the actually observed change pattern of behavior.

Table 4 displays a variety of results from the analysis of the overall patterns of each subject along seven dimensions. Each dimension will be discussed separately, but a summary at this point bears specifically on Hypothesis 3. Taking the total number of subjects and comparing the ratings predicted on Chart I with the actual findings on the graphs, the following is obtained: The Suspicious subject was total unpredictable, while the Lazy one was totally predictable. The Indifferent, Frozen, and Too Oper were rated very good in the amount of agreement obtained.[1] The Defiant, Withdrawn, Hyperactive, and Testing subjects were rated in good agreement, and

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[1] A rating of Excellent was obtained if there was 100 percent agreement between findings and predictions; Very Good indicated no major areas of disagreement and only minor disagreement in minor areas, i.e., pattern stability measured by scale or annotated comment; Good meant one disagreement in a major area, e.g., "situational similarity," or all agreements and disagreements for some of the different subjects in minor areas; a rating of Poor reflected disagreements or a split between agreement and disagreement in all areas.

the Rejecting subjects had poor agreement with the prediction. For the ten categories this is an 80 percent rate of good through excellent agreement between the predictions and the actual findings, supporting the hypothesis. Of the total number of subjects involved in all categories, 83 percent were successfully rated on the variety of pattern analyses carried out agreeing with the Expected patterns on Chart I (see Table 4).

Phases of change

If we for the moment continue looking at the graphs without regard for any particular typological subcategories, the question to be asked is: "What can be determined about the number of phases of change which subjects actually go through as contrasted to the four predicted by the theory? Toward this point it was hypothesized that:

> Hypothesis 6. The expected phases of change will equal the observed phases of change.

One of the major theoretical concepts about change was the postulated presence of four phases of change (Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley, 1958). In this particular project it was not possible to establish the presence of all phases in most cases. This was to be expected in that the evaluation period was less than the total life of the project. The presence or absence of the initial phases can be determined by examining the initial ratings of the majority of the boys as they entered the project. Phases were determined by having an independent rater who did not know anything about the project reinspect the graphs for major changes in the behavior pattern of the subject as recorded on the discussion graph (see Graph I,

weeks 1, 2, 3). These changes were noted, and then the annotated comments were read. Where there was a clear break in the verbal comments and graphic pattern a phase was marked (see Graph I, anecdotal comments, weeks 1, 2, 3). The nature of the behavior was also used to determine which phase the subject might have been in by comparing the annotated comments with the expected change behavior pattern (Chart I). The following examples are taken from Graph 1.[1]

Readiness: Expected behavior--hyperactive

Observed behavior--avoiding, testing, nervous* and tense,* anxious,* agitated*

Unfreezing: Expected behavior--markedly hyperactive or hypoactive

Observed behavior--supportive, uncooperative, withdrawn,* angry*

Movement: Expected behavior--normal or hyperactive behavior

Observed behavior--manipulative, leader role in discussion group,* agitated*

Following this technique it was possible to demonstrate the presence of three phases in twenty-four cases (80 percent), four phases in four cases (17 percent), five phases in one case (3 percent), and only two phases in one case (3 percent).

The clients were not uniform with regard to the weeks in which the changes from one phase to another appeared. Taking only

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[1]Asterisks (*) indicate behavior in agreement with that expected.

the three phases of readiness, unfreezing, and movement, it was possible to establish the presence of three phases on the graphs for discussions in 80 percent of the cases. This gives strong confirmation to the hypothesis.

The observed or actual recorded change pattern on the graphs can be examined in further detail to see what other ways it may be possible to relate them to the expected pattern. As reported previously the degree of vacillation in the graphs, the similarity of subjects' ratings in work and discussion group situations, the amount of spread between the work and discussion group lines, the congruence of the two patterns, and the sensitivity to behavior changes in the graphs as compared to the annotated comments can be determined. All of these specific factors will be evaluated and reported on subsequently. The final question is to determine which phases of changes are most easily detected on the graphs. It was hypothesized that:

> Hypothesis 9. Unfreezing and movement phases will be more clearly distinguishable than the readiness phase.

The graphs were reviewed and the judgments made by an independent rater, without any knowledge of the project, on the number of phases which were apparent on the records for the thirty graphs of work and discussion groups using the system described above. It was found that the rater only indicated four cases with a separate "presenting" phase, two had "presenting and readiness" combined as one unit, and three had a phase that could only be distinguished as a combination of "presenting, readiness, and unfreezing." Only three graphs were found to not have separate phases which could be identified as "unfreezing," and every graph had a "movement"

phase. The hypothesis is confirmed when looking at the graphs for both discussion and work groups.

Summary

When attempting to measure the planned change of subjects, it is important to determine where the clients are in the change process when the final measures are taken. Too often it is assumed that all subjects are at the "terminal point" because the treatment is over. In this project it was not possible to confirm the appearance of the freezing phase because the assessment period was completed before the termination point was reached. Had the assessment continued to the point of termination, it would have been instructive to see how many of the clients actually reached the freezing point, in view of the differential progress through the project.

Application of Various Analytic Schemes to Data

Detailed Overall Pattern Analysis

Graphic analysis

A detailed analysis of the individual graphs was suggested as necessary to be carried out. There are a variety of ways in which the graphs can be analyzed. The complexity of the task suggests that the techniques of analysis be given first, followed by the application to the sample data, then the implications discussed. This will help the reader keep the entire picture of the graphs in mind when making interpretations. Each way of approaching the graphs contributes something different and it would be premature to draw

conclusions from just one particular bit of information. A place to start is with Hypothesis 4, which states that:

> Hypothesis 4. Agreement between expected and observed change behavior will vary with subjects in different categories in the typology.

In the above examination both graphs from work and discussion were reported on as though similar events were taking place at the same time. This represents the results of very macroscopic examinations. The fact of the matter is that when all the graphs are examined microscopically several additional details come to light. First, the ratings were made by four different judges (two from the discussion groups and two from the work situations). Only five subjects (17 percent) had highly similar work and discussion patterns (as previously reported). Since so few graphs were essentially the same the necessity of looking at the graphs more closely to make a detailed analysis of the situational similarity--i.e., to find examples of behaviors which occurred in one situation which seemed to be associated with behavior in a second--is obvious.

Situational similarity

In making the determination of situational similarity, the following steps were taken. First, each point on the discussion group graph was compared with the point on the work graph for the same day. Second, the following days were examined to see where deflections occurred. When deflection (change in direction of graph) occurred simultaneously, this was counted as a situational similarity. If more than 50 percent of the points were classified as similar, then the graph was rated as high (Graph I); if 25-49 percent (Graph

III), it was rated medium; and less than 24 percent (Graph II), low. Only 17 percent (five) of the subjects had a high number of situational similarities. Seven (23 percent) had a moderately related pattern, and eighteen (60 percent) had a low level of similarity. These figures can be broken down by typological subcategories, along with the predictions made as to what level of situational similarity could be expected for each subcategory on Chart I. Correct predictions were made for Indifferent, Frozen, Defiant, and Lazy categories (eight subjects), and partly correct predictions were made for Withdrawn, Hyperactive, Testing, and Too Open subjects (17 subjects), and incorrect predictions for the Rejecting and Suspicious categories (five subjects). A total of 53 percent were rated in agreement with the expected change pattern. Since most subjects were predicted to have had little similarity from situation to situation, the variation in this case was mostly in the direction of having more similarity from situation to situation than would have been predicted from the expected change pattern.

Pattern stability

When making judgments about the patterns of subjects, it becomes important to be able to distinguish between one which is relatively stable throughout the entire length from one that is unstable. Stable patterns were determined by viewing the entire pattern, and counting the number of planes (two points on same line) and plateaus (three or more points connected on same line). If half or more of the points were planes or plateaus then the pattern was considered stable (see Graph I). When determining the stability of comments, if a majority of the comments were of the same type, then it was considered stable (see Graph I). Inspection of the patterns led to them

TABLE 5

SITUATIONAL SIMILARITY BY TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIES

Typology	No.	Low	Medium	High	Expected Sit. Sim.	No. Predicted	
						Right	Wrong
Indifferent . . .	1	0	0	1	High	1	0
Frozen	2	3	0	0	Low	3	0
Rejecting	3	3	1	0	High	0	4
Defiant	4	3	0	0	Low	3	0
Withdrawn . . .	5	3	3	1	Medium	3	4
Hyperactive . .	6	1	1	2	Low	1	3
Suspicious . . .	7	0	1	0	High	0	1
Testing	8	2	0	1	High	1	2
Lazy	9	1	0	0	Low	1	0
Too open	10	2	1	0	Low	2	1
Totals		18	7	5		16	14

being classified as "stable" or "labile," and the anecdotal comments were examined for trends by which the subjects' behavior could be characterized consistently. When both anecdotes and patterns (work and discussion rated together) were examined, twenty-five (83 percent) were found to be rated the same, e.g., stable/stable or labile/labile patterns. Only five (17 percent) were mixed (one rating stable and the second labile). Of the thirty graphs, sixteen were classified labile and fourteen stable, whereas ten of the annotated comments were judged to be labile and twenty stable.

These ratings of the graphs and anecdotal material for stability of pattern were then compared to what had been predicted in the expected change pattern. Twenty-three out of thirty (76 percent) were called correctly when judging the graphs,[1] and sixteen out of thirty (53 percent) were considered in agreement with predictions when looking at the anecdotal material. Broken down by typological groups, the results can be summarized as shown in Table 6. Again, because of the type of subjects included within the project it was expected that most of them would be very labile. Only the Testing and Too Open subjects were expected to be stable because their patterns of behavior tended to be most appropriate all of the time. The other subjects either were retreating from the situation or actively fighting it most of the time. For these reasons it was

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[1] Subjects who are seen as psychopathic, or sociopathic, as these were, are frequently judged as having very unstable behavioral patterns from situation to situation to situation. After examining the client profiles (Chart III), and seeing that only ten subjects were classified as "labile," and that most were either "frozen" and "tense" or "even keeled," the prediction should have been changed to indicate a higher expected number of subjects whose behavior would be similar in different situations.

TABLE 6

STABILITY OF GRAPHS AND ANNOTATED COMMENTS BY TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIES

Typology	No.	Stable/ Stable	Mixed	Labile/ Labile	Exp. Pattern Stability	No. Predicted Right	No. Predicted Wrong
Indifferent . . .	1	0	0	1	Labile	1	0
Frozen	2	0	0	3	Labile	3	0
Rejecting	3	0	1	3	Labile	4[a]	0
Defiant	4	2	0	1	Labile	1	2
Withdrawn . . .	5	3	3	1	Labile	4[a]	3
Hyperactive . .	6	1	0	3	Labile	3	1
Suspicious . . .	7	1	0	0	Labile	0	1
Testing	8	3	0	0	Stable	3	0
Lazy	9	0	0	1	Labile	1	0
Too open	10	3	0	0	Stable	3	0
Totals		13	4	13		23	7

[a]Mixed cases were counted with labile group.

expected that a rather labile pattern of behavior would be presented resulting in labile graphs and annotated comments. The pattern for just the annotated comments alone is indicated in Table 7. If 50 percent or more of the comments could be put into one cluster, the subjects were rated as stable; less than 50 percent but a clear majority, rated as stable; and no clear majority, rated as labile.

Vacillation of the patterns

Another way of looking at the overall pattern which might give important clues about the change pattern of the subjects can be obtained from the amount of vacillation in the graphs. In Lewin's theory subjects were expected to shift back and forth as they tried out new behavior. Some graphs were noted to swing from high to low over short time periods, whereas others were more stable. Examining the graphs for this type of movement might indicate how typical this behavior was. If a point was more than two spaces above or below a previous point, it was considered a vacillation. The pattern was classified as highly vacillating if the number of plateaus and planes was less than four, medium between five and six, and low if seven or more. Eight (26 percent) were rapidly vacillating, fourteen (46 percent) were moderately so, and eight (26 percent) were very stable in pattern (Table 8 gives the breakdown by typological group). For subjects who had highly congruent and highly vacillating patterns, it would be expected that all subjects would be in the high-vacillation column, as these subjects are expected to be far more similar. If, however, the group was considered incongruent, then they would be expected to spread out over the high and medium columns. When the findings are compared to what was predicted on the expected change pattern, we find that Indifferent,

TABLE 7

STABILITY OF ANNOTATED COMMENTS
BY TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIES

Typology	No.	Sta-ble	La-bile	Expected Pattern	No. Predicted	
					Right	Wrong
Indifferent	1	1	0	Labile	0	1
Frozen	2	3	0	Labile	0	3
Rejecting	3	1	3	Labile	3	1
Defiant	4	2	1	Labile	1	2
Withdrawn	5	5	2	Labile	2	5
Hyperactive	6	1	3	Labile	3	1
Suspicious	7	1	0	Labile	0	1
Testing	8	3	0	Stable	3	0
Lazy	9	0	1	Labile	1	0
Too open	10	3	0	Stable	3	0
Totals		20	10		16	14

TABLE 8

DEGREE OF VACILLATION BY TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIES

Typology	No.	High	Medium	Low	Expected Pattern	No. Predicted	
						Right	Wrong
Indifferent	1	1	0	0	Labile-congruent	1	0
Frozen	2	1	2	0	Labile-incongruent	3	0
Rejecting	3	2	2	0	Labile-congruent	2	2
Defiant	4	1	2	0	Labile-incongruent	3	0
Withdrawn	5	1	2	4	Labile-incongruent	7	0
Hyperactive . . .	6	0	3	1	Labile-congruent	0	4
Suspicious	7	0	0	1	Labile-incongruent	0	1
Testing	8	1	0	2	Stable-congruent	2	1
Lazy	9	1	0	0	Labile-incongruent	1	0
Too open	10	0	3	0	Stable-incongruent	3	0
Totals		8	14	8		22	8

Frozen, Defiant, Withdrawn, Lazy, and Too Open were rightly predicted (eighteen subjects), Rejecting, Withdrawn, and Testing partly correct (seven subjects), and Suspicious and Hyperactive incorrect (five subjects). This gives a total of twenty-two (73 percent) correctly classified (all those who were predicted correctly, eighteen, plus those who were correct from the partly classified group).

Intensity spread

One last way of looking at the groups is to compare one total pattern to the other to determine the amount of separation that existed between the two graphs. Two patterns which have the same configuration may not be superimposed on each other. For this reason it is profitable to try to ascertain the degree of separation, the intensity spread, between graphs. A subject may be very productive in work yet he may be very unproductive in discussions. The contrasts between these two styles of behaving can be pointed up best by looking at the spread between them. If the graphs were on the average two or fewer spaces apart, they were classified as "low" on spread; two to four spaces apart, "medium"; and more than four, as having a "high" level of intensity spread. It was found that 16 percent (five) had a low degree, 53 percent (sixteen) medium, and 30 percent (nine) a high degree of spread. This is broken down by typological groups in Table 9. The observed intensity spread can be checked against what was predicted in the expected change pattern. The method of determining agreement between expected and observed patterns was similar to the system used above. If a particular subcategory was classified as having congruent patterns, then all subjects were predicted as having a low intensity spread. If the subcategory was considered to have subjects with high incongruent

TABLE 9

DEGREE OF INTENSITY SPREAD BY TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIES

Typology	No.	High	Medium	Low	Expected Pattern	No. Predicted	
						Right	Wrong
Indifferent	1	0	0	1	Low-congruent	1	0
Frozen	2	1	2	0	Medium high-incongruent	3	0
Rejecting	3	3	1	0	Low-congruent	0	3
Defiant	4	0	3	0	Medium high-incongruent	3	0
Withdrawn	5	2	5	0	Medium high-medium-incongruent	7	0
Hyperactive . . .	6	0	2	3	Low-congruent	3	2
Suspicious	7	0	1	0	Medium high-incongruent	1	0
Testing	8	1	1	1	Low-congruent	1	2
Lazy	9	1	0	0	Medium high-incongruent	1	0
Too open	10	1	1	0	Medium high-incongruent	2	0
Totals		9	16	5		22	8

patterns, then the graphs could be spread over low to medium or medium to high intensity spread. Subcategories Indifferent, Frozen, Defiant, Withdrawn, Suspicious, Lazy, Too Open were correctly classified (eighteen subjects), Hyperactive and Testing were partly correct (eight subjects), and Rejecting was incorrectly classified (four subjects). A total of twenty-two (73 percent) subjects were classified correctly according to the predictions on the expected pattern if those correctly and partly correct are summarized.

Summary and interpretations

It is clear when the findings are summarized (as they are in Table 10) that this hypothesis has been confirmed, as most individual subjects were correctly predicted. The subcategories were less accurately predicted. It is also apparent when looking at the patterns

TABLE 10

PREDICTIONS OF GRAPHIC PATTERNS BY SUBCATEGORY PATTERN ANALYSIS

Pattern Measure	Right	Partly Correct	Wrong
Congruence	1, 2, 4, 9	5, 6, 10, 8	3, 7
Stability	1, 8, 9, 10	2, 6, 3, 4, 5	7
Situations similarity .	1, 2, 4, 9	5, 6, 10, 3, 8	7
Vacillation	1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 10	8, 3, 5	7
Intensity spread	1, 2, 4, 7, 9, 10	6, 8	3

and anecdotal records, that it is difficult to make a simple interpretive statement about them. It is necessary to determine the various ways that the graphs can be related to each other and the expected change patterns and then draw conclusions from the total results. When a number of analytical procedures are attempted, various results hold for the different subcategories of subjects. For example, the Suspicious subject was consistently misinterpreted on four out of five measures, and the Rejecting subjects twice. Either this was a misclassification at the typological level, instability of classification because of the small number of subjects involved, or the expected change pattern was incorrect. If Chart III (page 142) is examined, it can be seen that the Testing subcategory (no. 8) was made up of subjects who had slightly different profiles. With hindsight, it would have been better to separate them into different subcategories. At this point, the classification process seems to be the source of error. In the case of the Rejecting subjects (no. 3), the original mistake also seems to lie with the classification process. The subjects divided all the way through this analysis (Tables 5 through 9). Two of the subjects were rated identically on the client profile (M.L,L.H,H, Skill, Love, Affect, Hostility, and Control), two were different from each other and the other two subjects (one M on Love and the other H on Skill). In an effort to keep the subcategories as large as possible, variations on one or two categories tended to be overlooked. Again with hindsight, it would have been wiser to avoid making this compromise. For the Suspicious subject (no. 7) instability of prediction would be expected because accuracy of prediction is impossible with one case. It was also apparent that the classifications along some measures were better than others. For example, the intensity spread only had one wrong category and

two partly correct, whereas pattern stability and situational similarity had five partly correct categories and one that was wrong.

These findings suggest a number of things to be considered when making a graphic analysis of client's behavior. First of all, a number of useful ways of looking at the rated behavior can be accomplished. It is important to look carefully at a subject's behavior in a specific situation, as well as his actions in all other situations. As stated previously, there are some (six) who did in fact respond similarly to each situation, as measured by congruent patterns, and it is important to detect them. On the other hand, the pattern of behavior may be incongruent, as was true of the majority, but there can be behavioral shifts which occur in each situation simultaneously. This condition can be illustrated by watching when the graphs diverge or converge at the same time. This is interpreted to mean that these regularly occurring cycles of behavior are related in some way, even though the subject may be doing very different things. In one situation he exerts interpersonal skills to overcome the barriers in his life space, while in the second he erupts into hostile maneuvers. Effective social treatment techniques must be applied full well knowing that these two different types of subject behaviors are possible. Viewing the client this way may help reconcile the confusion that comes when two very different treatment interventions are being successfully applied to one subject in two different situations.

Second, it would appear that congruent subjects are easier to predict than incongruent subjects since predictions are based on their contemporaneous situations forecasting future actions in another situation. Incongruent subjects will be more difficult to predict as it will be necessary to understand more of the dynamics of

their behavioral shifts before accurate predictions can be attained. The importance of this point should not be overlooked. It should be remembered that most agencies (prisons, mental hospitals, schools, etc.) make their predictions of future behavior based on the way the subjects behave within their own facility. If an attempt were made to determine the degree of congruity of the subjects' behavioral patterns, then their predictions might have more validity.

A third problem to consider was the difficulty of establishing the exact sequences of behavior from situation to situation. When new or alternative behavior had been discussed in the group meetings it was impossible to figure out when the subject intended to put his behavioral plan into action. He may have been reticent to do so or the situation may have changed to the point whereby the newly formulated plan would have been inappropriate.

A fourth complication in understanding the behavior graphs of the subjects is the variance in rating style of the group workers. The subjects were not evenly divided between the four discussion and work groups studied, which might have accounted for some of the variations (see Table 11). It was also true that the distribution of members in the various groups was not altogether uniform with regard to specific subcategories (see Table 12). If Table 10 is compared with Table 12, it might be possible to determine the ability of the various raters to rate the different types of clients on the various scales. It is clear that each one had some types whom they rated well: subcategories 2 (Frozen) and 4 (Defiant) for the leader of Groups IX and XI, and subcategories 1 (Indifferent), 4 (defiant), and 9 (Lazy) for the leaders of Groups X and XII. The leaders of Groups X and XII uniformly rated subjects in subcategories 3 (Rejecting) and 7 (Suspicious) incorrectly. The same leaders met

TABLE 11

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY DISCUSSION GROUPS

Group Number	No. of Subjects Studied from Each Group
8	6
10	9
11	8
12	7

TABLE 12

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY CATEGORIES AMONG FOUR DISCUSSION GROUPS

Disc. Group No.	Typological Categories of Subjects									
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
9	0	2	0	0	1	2	0	1	0	0
10	1	0	3	0	1	1	1	1	0	1
11	0	1	0	2	3	1	0	1	1	0
12	0	0	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	1
Totals	1	3	4	3	7	5	1	3	1	2

with Groups IX and XI, and two different leaders met with Groups X and XII. If we combine all the subjects of the same subcategory that each set of leaders met with into one group, we get the following (see Table 13).

TABLE 13

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY CATEGORIES RATED BY TWO SETS OF GROUP LEADERS

Discussion Group No.		Typological Categories of Subjects									
		I[a]	II	III[b]	IV[a]	V	VI	VII[b]	VIII	IX[a]	X
9	11	0	3	0	2	4	3	0	2	0	0
10	12	1	0	4	1	3	2	1	1	1	2

[a]Correctly rated. [b]Incorrectly rated.

Detailed Individual Pattern Analysis

Vacillation patterns

It is now important to switch focus to the way change took place as individual subjects participated, rather than simply observing the overall picture of behavior of subcategories of subjects as reviewed in the previous section. To accomplish this task a subsample will be analyzed in detail. The final hypothesis that concerns the individual behavior of subjects undergoing change was:

Hypothesis 7. The expected change pattern of vacillating behavior through phases will also appear in subjects' actually observed change pattern.

Inherent in Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley's view of behavior change is the idea of shifting back and forth between phases as new learning occurs. The retrogression within the movement phase is an expected part of the process as the subject faces central issues in his interpersonal life. Table 8 indicates eight subjects who were classified as being highly labile because of a high number of vacillations on their graphs. This may be one way to detect the back-and-forth fluctuations suggested by Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley. There is another way to attack this problem and that is to study the first half versus the second half of the graphs to determine how stable or unstable they appeared. The inference is that changes in the pattern from the first time period to the second would be an indication of the amount of vacillation subjects might be displaying as they worked toward change. The same system of determining pattern stability for the graphs was used in this analysis. Table 14 reports the data. A number of speculations arise from looking at this problem.

It can be assumed on logical grounds that as a subject becomes more familiar with a situation his behavior becomes more routinized. When this happens a number of things could account for the changing pattern of stability. The initial behavior was one of a great upsetment and as the person settled down he became familiar with the actual norms existing in the situation. In general, however, the subjects saw potential threat in discussion groups so that increased stability might be predicted as they obtained a better idea of the group's task. Of course, the actions of the therapist in

TABLE 14

PATTERN ANALYSIS OF GRAPHS FOR DISCUSSION AND WORK GROUPS BY PERIODS[a]

Group	Period	Stable Patterns		Unstable Patterns	
		No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
Work	First	21	70	30	9
	Second	18	60	40	12
Discussion	First	19	64	11	36
	Second	20	67	10	33

[a]Chi-square values = N.S.

bringing up new material for the group to work on would tend to keep the "edge" on the activities. This type of therapeutic thrust would elevate the instability factor in the membership. On the other hand, the group might have been resistant to becoming engaged in a particular activity. A variety of passive moves could routinely be taken by the members which would raise the stability score initially. Once the therapist could break this conspiracy, then the group score might have appeared rather unstable for the second half of the evaluation period.

Comparison of the discussion group to the work group is also a little difficult. For one thing the subjects would have a better orientation to the work situation than they would to the discussion groups. It would be easier for the clients to do the manual tasks

than to become actively engaged in discussion of their intrapersonal feelings. For these reasons, it would be expected that work scores would be initially stable and move toward unstability, as compared to discussion group scores. When the data are studied the work groups are found to have been initially more stable for the first four weeks and to have become less stable during the second period. These findings agree with the prediction. In the discussion group, less stability was displayed initially but the groups moved toward more stability as stated in the prediction. Calculation of chi-square values using the McNemar test for significance of change indicated that none of the changes were significant, however.

Antecedent behavior contrasted with current behavior

Another way of detecting some of the subtle shifts in the behavioral patterns of subjects undergoing change would be to compare their prior behavior to their contemporaneous behavior. Step 5--"Evaluate the Subject's Antecedent and Current Situation"--makes this specific suggestion.

It was not possible to complete a detailed analysis of the antecedent conditions of the subjects because the incoming records were very scanty. The available antecedent information was used in combination with the staff's initial impressions of the subjects from their final contracts. These brief encounters served as the basis for making the profile analysis. Much of the error which may lie in the typology can probably be traced to this original measurement problem. The inadequate review of antecedent conditions did, however, prevent a more thorough analysis of contemporary events taking place within the project. A number of ideas were gained as

to how staff members would rate subjects in the contemporaneous situation.

In general, staff members were more favorably disposed toward subjects whom they saw as maintaining the same pattern of behavior from situation to situation. They had set expectations of "positive" or "negative" behavior from certain subjects and were not prepared if they changed this pattern in any radical way. Typically, great disappointment was expressed by the staff if a subject "got worse," and they were most suspicious and gave a critical review to his performance if he suddenly got better. For this reason it was hypothesized that:

> Hypothesis 5. Subjects whose observed change behavior is highly congruent in different social situations and stable over time will be seen as changing faster than unstable and incongruent subjects.

Approximately one-half of the clients in the project were rated as having stable graphic patterns (devoid of major fluctuations) and anecdotal comments (see Tables 6 and 7). According to the above hypothesis, this subsample should have a higher proportion of subjects with congruent patterns in both work and discussion groups. It turns out in fact that three out of the six congruent members are actually in this stable/stable group, or 50 percent of all congruent subjects. When we examine the data on all thirteen clients with stable/stable ratings, we find that three (23 percent) are congruent, four (30 percent) are mixed, and six (46 percent) are incongruent. This compares with six (20 percent) congruent, ten (33 percent) mixed, and fourteen (47 percent) incongruent in the total group of thirty (see Table 15). It can be seen that the percentages of the two groups are approximately the same.

TABLE 15

DEGREE OF CONGRUENCE OF STABLE/STABLE[a] SUBJECTS

Typology	No.	Con-gruent	Mixed	Incon-gruent
Frozen	2	0	0	1
Defiant	4	0	0	2
Withdrawn	5	0	2	0
Hyperactive	6	1	0	0
Suspicious	7	1	0	0
Testing	8	1	1	1
Too open	10	0	1	1
Totals		3	4	6
Percents		23	30	46

[a]Stable/stable = stable graphs for work and discussion group and stable annotated comments.

With this picture of how the subsamples of stable/stable subjects compared with the total population, it is possible to determine whether they were seen as changing faster than other subjects. Each subject's graphs were classified as to the week the Movement phase began, following the system of phase determinations presented elsewhere. In making this determination, the entire week was taken as the appropriate time unit because it was difficult to determine exactly when movement could be documented without using several days as a basis for judging (Table 16 shows this breakdown). We find that out of the thirty subjects only three (10 percent) were in the Movement phase by the second week of the evaluation period, eleven (36 percent) by the third week, fourteen (47 percent) by the fourth week, and two (7 percent) by the fifth week. This yields an arithmetical mean of 3.5 weeks for all subjects.

When the graphs of the subsample of subjects with a stable/stable[1] rating are examined the mean for when they first appeared in the Movement phase is 3.3 weeks. If we look at those subjects rated labile/labile, the mean for them is 3.7 weeks, with the mixed groups (labile/stable) between them with 3.6 weeks. In general then the most labile subjects took the longest to enter the Movement phase and those judged stable appeared in the Movement phase sooner. Because the number falling in the mixed category was so small they were ignored when determination of significance values was calculated using the median test. A chi-square value of 1.4 was obtained (p greater than .30). While the results are not statistically significant, they are in the direction predicted by the hypothesis. The

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[1]Stable/stable = a combined rating on the work and discussion group graphs and the annotated comments.

TABLE 16

START OF MOVEMENT PHASE AS DISPLAYED IN GRAPHIC PATTERNS OF ALL SUBJECTS BY CATEGORIES

Typology	Week Movement Phase Began			
	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth
Indifferent	0	1	0	0
Frozen	1	0	2	0
Rejecting	0	1	2	1
Defiant	0	0	3	0
Withdrawn	0	2	4	1
Hyperactive	1	2	2	0
Suspicious	1	0	0	0
Testing	0	2	1	0
Lazy	0	1	0	0
Too open	0	2	0	0
Totals	3	11	14	2
Percents	10	36	47	7

TABLE 17

NUMBER OF SUBJECTS WHEN FIRST STARTED MOVEMENT PHASE AS DISPLAYED IN GRAPHIC PATTERN BY DEGREE OF STABILITY[a]

Degree of Stability	Week of First Movement				
	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	Total
Stable	2	5	6	0	13
Unstable	1	3	7	1	12
Mixed	0	3	1	1	5
Totals	3	11	14	2	30

[a]Chi-square = $p > .30$.

hypothesis is tentatively supported by these findings. Further data must be examined before this finding should be taken seriously.

It would also be instructive to look at the subsample of thirteen subjects classified stable/stable to see if the above trend indicated for the entire group holds. The average week when movement first appeared for the congruent-stable/stable[1] was 2.7, with 3.5 for both stable/stable incongruent and stable/stable mixed (labile/stable)

[1]Congruent-stable/stable = those with a similar graphic pattern in work and discussion groups, and a low level of vacillation in the graphs and the anecdotal comments.

subjects. In all three cases the stable/stable subjects are on or below the average (3.5) for all subjects, with the most stable and congruent subjects arriving at the movement phase sooner than other subjects as predicted by the hypothesis. These findings add further support for the hypothesis. These findings should be related to the previous comment that predictions are best made by checking on the congruence pattern of the subjects. It would appear that pattern stability can be added as another factor that might be useful in making predictions about future behavior of clients.

Influence of one situation on the behavior displayed in a second

In looking at the individual behavior of subjects, it is important to see the flow of behavior displayed in one social situation to the next. The behavior may be very similar or it could change in terms of the direction (change from supportive to hostile) or the magnitude (change from slightly hostile to very hostile) from situation to situation. This was formally stated in the second hypothesis.

> Hypothesis 2. Observed change behavior in one social setting will influence direction or magnitude of observed change behavior in another setting.

The large majority of subjects presented a mixed picture with regard to convergence or divergence of pattern when the averaged graphs were studied by the method indicated previously. Divergent patterns were clear in two cases, convergence in four, mixed in eighteen, and two were essentially the same. There were four cases which were incomplete and could not be classified. The evidence is inconclusive from these data for either support or rejection of the hypothesis. However, Table 18 indicates that there is a strong

TABLE 18

INTENSITY SPREAD AND DEGREE OF PATTERN CONGRUENCE--EXPECTED AND OBSERVED FREQUENCIES[a]

Pattern Congruence	Intensity Spread						Total Observed
	Low		Medium		High		
	Exp.	Obs.	Exp.	Obs.	Exp.	Obs.	
Congruent . . .	1.0	3	3.1	3	1.8	0	6
Mixed	1.7	2	5.6	5	3.0	3	10
Incongruent . .	2.3	0	7.5	8	4.2	6	14
Totals		5		16		9	30

[a]Chi-square = $p < .001$.

association between the level of intensity spread and degree of congruence in pattern ($p < .001$) as determined by the chi-square test for two independent samples. These data would suggest support for the hypothesis.

Another way of doing a situational analysis is to locate the place where subjects first displayed new behavior. It is expected that these revelations of new behavior would occur where they do because pressure for change would be felt in different places for different subjects. Following this idea, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 8. Revelation of new behavior will occur in different phases with various types of subjects.

The simplest way to discover where the pressure for new behavior to occur took place is to determine the number who were rated as "improved" in each situation. If it is possible to see subjects improve significantly more often in situation A over B, then it can be inferred that the maximum pressure for change was located in A. Toward this end each graph was examined to see if it could be determined in whic situation subjects improved, remained the same, or declined in most. The graphs used were the ones constructed from the running averages as they revealed trends much clearer. Tables 19 and 20 show the number of subjects who could be rated as improved, or not, by typological categories. Improvement was indicated if the trend in the graph moved upward one line. If the trend line neither increased nor declined one line, then it was rated the same. Trend lines falling more than one line were considered declining. Of the subjects in the discussion groups, twenty-two improved, four remained the same, and four declined in ratings. When this is compared with the work situation, we find twenty improved, seven remained the same, and three declined.

These figures call for closer inspection than can be obtained by looking at totals. The important question is not the total numbers but the way each subject behaved in each situation. When the graphs were examined several groups showed radically different behavior in the two situations. The Suspicious client, for example, was rated as declining in his discussion group while improving in the work situation. Examination of his discussion group graph showed a very moderate decline, although clearly present, whereas the work group improved rather sharply. The behavior displayed in one situation

TABLE 19

IMPROVEMENT IN RATINGS BY TYPOLOGY
FROM DISCUSSION GROUP

Typology	Improve	Same	Decline
Indifferent	1	0	0
Frozen	3	0	0
Rejecting	3	1	0
Defiant	2	1	0
Withdrawn	5	1	1
Hyperactive	4	0	1
Suspicious	0	0	1
Testing	3	0	0
Lazy	1	0	0
Too open	0	1	1
Totals	22	4	4
Percents	74	13	13

TABLE 20

IMPROVEMENT IN RATINGS BY TYPOLOGY
FROM WORK GROUP

Typology	Improve	Same	Decline
Indifferent	0	1	0
Frozen	3	0	0
Rejecting	1	3	0
Defiant	2	1	0
Withdrawn	7	0	0
Hyperactive	3	1	1
Suspicious	1	0	0
Testing	2	0	1
Lazy	0	0	1
Too open	1	1	0
Totals	20	7	3
Percents	67	23	10

was clearly different from the second. The reasons for this difference in rating may be a result of the behavior style of the subject or an antifact of the type of subjects he was compared to. The Suspicious subject was in the moderate behavior range in his discussion group and he may have been untouched by the group process. Since other members' ratings were improving, the group worker may have seen him as falling, by comparison (see Graph IV). One way to check this is to examine the graphs of subjects who were very

TABLE 21

IMPROVEMENT RATE OF MAJOR INTERACTOR/CONTAGORS BY CATEGORIES--DISCUSSION GROUP

Typology	Improve	Same	Decline
Rejecting	2	1	0
Hyperactive	3	0	1
Too open	0	1	1
Indifferent	1	0	0
Defiant	1	0	0
Withdrawn	1	0	0
Lazy	1	0	0
Totals	9	2	2
Percents	70	15	15

TABLE 22

IMPROVEMENT RATE OF MAJOR INTERACTOR/CONTAGORS BY CATEGORIES--WORK GROUP

Typology	Improve	Same	Decline
Rejecting	1	2	0
Hyperactive	2	1	1
Too open	1	1	0
Indifferent	0	1	0
Defiant	1	0	0
Withdrawn	1	0	0
Lazy	0	0	1
Totals	6	5	2
Percents	46	39	15

similar in the amount of interaction to see whether they improved in the same proportions as the total population. Subjects who were seen as major interactors and contagors[1] in the cars were

[1]Major interactions and contagors were determined by totaling the number of times each subject appeared in this column on the transportation report form. All those who were over the mode in three out of four transportation periods were selected for study.

analyzed for this purpose. The percentage rate improved compared with the entire group can then be made. Those in discussion groups improved, declined, or remained the same in about the same proportion as the entire group. Major interactors in the work situation improved at a substantially lower rate and tended to remain the same in higher numbers compared to the total population of work. The amount of interaction engaged in by the subjects may have made a difference as to how their behavior was seen in certain situations. There seemed to be little difference between major interactors and low interactors in the discussion groups but this does not seem to be true of the work situation. In short, those subjects who were seen as major interactors in the cars were also somewhat less productive in the work situation. At this point the hypothesis appears to be supported by the data, which are reported in Table 23.

In trying to understand the reason why more subjects improved in the discussion groups than they did in the work groups,

TABLE 23

INITIAL RATINGS IN WORK GROUP VERSUS DISCUSSION GROUP

Rating of Work Relative to Discussions	Frequency
Higher	25
Equal	3
Lower	2

TABLE 24

RATINGS OF WORK HIGHER THAN DISCUSSIONS BY CATEGORIES

Typology	Higher	Equal	Lower
Indifferent	0	1	0
Frozen	2	1	0
Rejecting	2	1	1
Defiant	3	0	0
Withdrawn	7	0	0
Hyperactive	5	0	0
Suspicious	1	0	0
Testing	3	0	0
Lazy	0	0	1
Too open	2	0	0
Totals	25	3	2

one immediate point is clear. In general, the initial ratings of subjects were much higher in work as compared to discussion, allowing less room for absolute improvement. Twenty-five of the thirty subjects were rated higher in work initially than in discussion group. Only three were rated equal in both, with two subjects being rated higher in discussion than in work. The subjects who were rated lower in work are worth noting. The Lazy subject was rated lower in work, and the Rejecting subjects were equal or lower in work in two cases. The Indifferent subject was rated equally in both situations. These findings would be what might be expected in view of the predicted behavior of these types.

Summary

In short, care has to be exercised when viewing the degree of involvement of subjects in the ongoing process to avoid assuming that high involvement signifies change. High interaction can involve hostile and disruptive behavior which will be rated as high behavioral output but result in little change. It should also be remembered that subjects who display a great deal of their behavioral repertoire are more likely to have some of their actions seen by the raters as negative than subjects sitting quietly in the groups. It can be concluded, however, that subjects did change and the hypothesis is supported.

The most difficult question to be asked of the data is whether improved ratings also indicated that the subjects had undergone interpersonal restructuring. Furthermore, if that restructuring had taken place, did it cause their behavior to continue to be better in other situations? There are three ways to answer this question. First, it was the staff's clinical impression that the boys' behavior

had begun to conform to some of the real demands of the project. The clients were able to explore with each other and staff their feelings about what they were doing and seek alternative ways of behaving. The atmosphere of high tension and overt hostility appeared to reduce with time. Work improved to the point whereby jobs previously requiring all day were taking half the time with the minimum of disruption and emotional outbursts. These were all signs of "improvement" from the staff's point of view. Furthermore, the stated improvement did not uniformly include all of the boys. Some were viewed as not changing, while others appeared to be getting worse.

The second point deals with the validity of the ratings. Were they reflecting the feelings of increasing comfort among the staff about what they were doing and their increasing skill in getting boys to do what they wanted, or were they capturing real change? This is an important point and there is no way to analyze the data to deal with this question.

The third point which needs to be remembered is the fact that most of the boys were not congruent in their behavior over situations so that the same degree of improvement in outside situations was not expected. What was hoped for was that, as restructuring took place, the range of behavior would narrow so that the boys were better able to respond more appropriately to the situation than previously. This trend was appearing in the ratings.

Detailed Peer and Staff Interaction Analysis

The interpersonal behavior of the subjects was the target of the change attempts, but the interpersonal relationship with the staff

also had to be examined. This was a strong recommendation of the Murray group. To do this effectively, the typological categories should be retained in the analysis to see what differences there were by type of subject.

Step 6 recommended placing the assessment procedures within a social matrix consisting of clients and staff. It was the clear impression of the Murray group that the behavior of the staff was important in affecting the behavior of the subjects. This assumption was accepted in this project and a scale was constructed to evaluate the relationship of the group worker to the boys. The worker in each group had to make this assessment from the observed behavior of the boys and record his views on a form (Group Rating Form 3). In the analysis by regions (Table 4) it was reported that it was not possible to find a strong association between any of the regions and the way subjects related to the leader. However, subjects who were rated as most skillful tended to be seen as relating to the leader better than less skillful subjects.

Another way of viewing the staff-client relationship is to examine the interpersonal acts between the two groups. Reviewing the data from the various scales on the Group Rating Form provides a number of ways of looking at this interpersonal matrix. Counting the number of times each subject was rated in various categories on the Relationship to Leader Role Scale can be done for the two assessment periods (twenty days first half and twenty days for the second). During the first half most subjects were engaged in testing behavior 224 times (37 percent), with the next highest category being withdrawn 139 times (23 percent). During the second assessment period this pattern shifted considerably, with 221 incidence (36 percent) of the subjects engaging in trusting behavior, and

TABLE 25

SUBJECTS' RELATIONSHIP TO LEADER BY PERIODS

Typology	First Period		Second Period		Signif. Level
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	
Trusting	117	19	221	36	.01
Testing	224	37	115	19	.01
Hostile	128	21	87	15	.01
Withdrawn	139	23	176	29	.05
Totals	608		599		

withdrawn behavior moving up to 139 times (29 percent). Hostile displays against the leaders dropped from 128 (21 percent) during the first half to 87 acts (15 percent) the second. All of these changes were significant at the .05 level and beyond when the significance of the difference between the two percentages was calculated.[1] The instructions on the form (Group Rating Form 3) directed the group workers to distinguish the behavior of the members as they related to the leader role, rather than their own feelings of likings.

[1]Critical Ratio Test (Q. McNemar, Psychological Statistics [New York: Wiley, 1955], pp. 56-60).

The above ratings rely on the perceptions of the leader to interpret what he sees as a form of behavior aimed against or toward him. The desire for the leader to want to rate subjects better, especially as he gets to know them, may account for some of the observed shifts. Furthermoe, behaviors which will be acceptable to one type of leader might be considered unacceptable to a second. All of these factors would tend to add confusion to the data of the type reported above.

A different approach, less subject to the errors indicated, would be a content analysis of the discussions to find out what topics were covered. This approach does not give a picture of the feelings that might have been aroused at a particular meeting but it does give some impression of the degree of freedom to explore topics with the leader. In all the groups, the question of leadership was an issue which can be interpreted as reflecting client concern over the interpersonal relationship with the leaders. Table 26 indicates that Group 10 only talked about leadership four (4 percent) times in forty days, whereas they looked at group problems nineteen (19 percent) times. Group 11 reversed the situation, concentrating its attention on leadership problems fourteen (12 percent) times and group problems only eight (7 percent) times.

Interestingly enough, the majority of conversations about leadership occurred within the first two to three weeks of the assessment period in most groups. Leadership was of greater salience in Group 11, with eight out of fourteen references to leadership behavior occurring within the first two weeks. Moreover, the matter continued to reoccur as often as once a week for the next four weeks. Furthermore, topics involving adult behavior were discussed in this group thirteen times, compared to only five times in Group 9,

TABLE 26

NUMBER OF TIMES TOPICS ABOUT LEADER OR GROUP WERE DISCUSSED IN GROUP MEETINGS

Discussion Group Number	Topics about Leader		Topics about Group		Total No. of Topics
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	
9	5	5	15	15	99
10	4	4	19	19	102
11	14	12	8	7	120
12	9	8	20	17	115

twice in Group 12, and three times in Group 10. It is possible that the generalized feelings of testing, hostility, trust, and withdrawal which the boys projected toward the leader were being expressed in more diffuse terms when other adults were discussed. With the focus on leadership an apparent issue for all groups during the first set of meetings, this suggests that this was one of the more salient issues for the groups. Until the membership could come to some rapprochement with the leadership, it was not possible to move on to other topics. Furthermore, this question was not discussed and dismissed. If the leaders did something to upset the developing norms about how the leaders should act, then leadership questions became relevant for the group to explore. Murray's position seems well taken when he says to probe for the interactions of staff and

assesses as part of the social assessment. The social matrix was clearly an issue in this project and we can presume that the effectiveness of the change process hinged on the nature of the resolutions obtained.

Detailed Typological Analysis

Assessing change by subcategories across situations

Step 7 calls for the selection of different types of procedures as well as procedures of the same type for estimation of the strength of selected variables under study. The first part of the step (different types of procedures) was accomplished by examining each situation separately to detect the impact it would have on the various subcategories of subjects.

The transportation situation was the first area of review. It provided the opportunity to look at the change behavior of various subgroups of subjects as well as specific typological categories, in a situation of low structure.

> Hypothesis 10. The social field of the cars was sufficiently different from other social situations for some boys that there would be noticeable shifts in their behavior here first.

Table 27 reports the number of boys showing shifts in their behavior patterns for the first time in the transportation situation. In this case, 40 percent of all boys showed change toward new behavior in the cars, and only 10 percent (three boys) changed simultaneously in the cars and noncar situations. This judgment was made by examining all four transportation records (Form 2) on

TABLE 27

SOURCE OF FIRST OBSERVED CHANGE BEHAVIOR BY CATEGORY

Category	Trans-portation	Nontrans-portation	Both
Indifferent	0	1	0
Frozen	1	2	0
Rejecting	1	3	0
Defiant	3	0	0
Withdrawn	4	2	1
Hyperactive	1	4	0
Suspicious	0	0	1
Testing	1	1	1
Lazy	0	1	0
Too open	1	1	0
Totals	12	15	3
Percents	40	50	10

each subject to see when a new behavior appeared over the forty-day span. When a driver charted a subject in a new area for the first time, it was checked to see whether that behavior also appeared on Form 9 (Group Rating by Subject). On the basis of checking each situation for the entire day, it was possible to make the determination indicated. Although more boys shifted their behavior in the nontransportation situation, it was still true that a substantial number (40 percent) did open up first in the cars. For this reason the hypothesis is supported.

Hypothesis 11. For some categories of boys, new patterns of behavior will first appear in the cars.

This hypothesis is looking at the development of a specific pattern of behavior as opposed to demonstration of a single new act of behavior. To make this analysis, a major pattern was established where possible, for each subject, by counting the number of times he was rated a certain way (e.g., being the major source of contagion or standard-setter in cars). A majority of all the ratings on Form 4 was required before the behavior was rated as a major pattern. Once this pattern was established, the records were examined as above to see when that behavior first emerged.

It is instructive to go back to Table 27 to see who made their primary change in behavior pattern in the transportation situation as opposed to other places. The majority of Frozen, Rejecting, and Hyperactive subjects opened up new facets of their behavioral repertoire in the nontransportation situation. On the other hand, the Withdrawn and Defiant boys primarily changed in the cars. These shifts in behavior patterns seem to have a logic if the situation of the car is examined. The car was described as a place

where the boys would feel greater freedom and lack of adult constraints. Lack of adult pressure would allow the Hyperactive child to act in his usual way because effort was needed to calm him down. No new behavior would be expected to emerge from the cars with this degree of freedom and lack of pressure to change his behavior. On the other hand, the Frozen and Rejecting boys would need specific types of adult stimulus to change their behavior. Both would not be likely to open up new behavior on their own accord if the situation permitted a high level of freedom. If these subjects shifted their behavior the the assumption about the car being of relatively low level of structure would not be true. In essence, then, the Hyperactive child needs controls to help him change, whereas the Frozen and Rejecting boys need inputs to stimulate them to deal with their lack of involvement. On the other hand, the Withdrawn boy is most likely to respond to the "free" situation wherein judgmental adult pressures are removed and critical peer pressures are in command. The threat of interacting with negatively valued adult drivers might be neutralized, to some extent, by the overwhelming presence of peer pressures.

The Defiant child is also more likely to respond to the "free" situation but for slightly different reasons than the Withdrawn child. The Defiant one is more likely to attempt to capture the "free" situation and give vent to some of his antiadult feelings when surrounded with such visible peer support. This ventilation process does not necessarily mean that he will be a major interactor (only one subject was classified as such), but this will be the behavior revealed whenever he displayed any overt behavior. The figures in Table 27 give rather clear support to this hypothesis also.

If we again look at the subsample of boys who were defined as major interactor or contagors in the cars, we find that four (80 percent) of the Hyperactive subjects were major interactors, and three (75 percent) of the Rejecting subjects followed their usual pattern of behavior. Only one (14 percent) of the Withdrawn subjects and one (33 percent) of the Defiant subjects would be called major interactors or contagors, which would be a change in their typical behavior pattern. These figures seem to add further confirmation to the above interpretations and level of support to Hypothesis 11.

Assessing change by subcategories within group activities

Origins of pressure for change

The group meetings provide another opportunity to see the patterns of various subcategories of subjects as they experienced change. The primary focus of the entire project was to bring about change in the behavior of the subjects. The group meetings were seen as central, but not the only place where this effort would take place. Table 28 indicates those who showed movement in the work situation as opposed to the discussion group. One of the primary goals for the group meetings was that the examination of a personal behavior would take place. The resistance of the boys to getting involved in this kind of dialogue was natural, as this was clearly not how they had envisioned the project to operate. In view of this resistance, there would need to be a real effort put forth by the group workers to establish the legitimacy of this type of discussion. This was stated more formally as Hypothesis 12.

TABLE 28

SOURCE OF FIRST OBSERVED CHANGE BEHAVIOR BY CATEGORY

Category	Dis-cussion	Work	Both	Total
Indifferent	1	0	0	1
Frozen	3	0	0	3
Rejecting	2	1	1	4
Defiant	1	2	0	3
Withdrawn	2	1	2	5
Hyperactive	0	0	1	1
Suspicious	1	2	0	3
Testing	1	0	0	1
Lazy	1	0	0	1
Too open	0	1	1	2
Totals	13	11	6	30
Percents	43	37	20	100

Hypothesis 12. Examination of self and others' behavior would take place within the discussion groups.

Table 29 indicates the most frequently discussed topics in the groups. The table was compiled by making a simple count of all topics listed on Group Rating Form 3 by the leader for the assessment periods. At the end of the meetings the group workers were asked to list all topics covered in the meetings on the form. There was no need to distinguish between subjects brought up and those that had been resolved. For the most part the initial efforts of the subjects were to introduce material without obtaining any resolution. Interpersonal behavior represented 21 percent to 37 percent of the topics brought up. Despite the natural resistances of group members, almost one-fourth of all topics could be directly assigned to this category. There were a number of other topics which could be classified under this heading also, such as group behavior, leadership, disruptive and aggressive behavior, etc. If all of these topics were included into the one category, then it is very clear that examination of self and others' behavior was a significant part of the group effort. The expectation of having interpersonal behavior a primary task was met.

Using group discussion for change

A second expectation for the group meetings was that new styles of behavior would develop as a result of verbal explorations. It is difficult to pinpoint very clearly whether a new behavior directly followed explorations of issues in the meetings. For this reason it would be instructive to see if "critical" issues were brought up for discussion. The assumption is that sensitive topics might reflect real concerns which the boys were dealing with at some

TABLE 29

FREQUENCY OF TOPICS BY GROUPS

Topic	Group			
	9	10	11	12
Group	15	19	8	20
Leader	5	4	14	9
Interpersonal behavior	21	31	28	31
Discipline	2	6	8	5
Aggressive behavior	4	1	7	1
Adults	5	3	13	2
Subtotals	62	64	78	68
Total topics	99	102	120	155
Percent of total topics	62	63	65	59

point in their life spaces. On the other hand, it is well recognized that "sensitive topics" are often introduced to "scare" the leaders. Both may have been operating here.

Table 30 lists three topics which many considered difficult ones to talk about in a group, especially with adults present. Despite the presence of adults, these "loaded" topics were discussed. It is not suggested that each topic was discussed thoroughly by the different groups. In fact, certain topics may have been raised for purposes of ventilation rather than resolution of the issue. Despite the fact that this was what might have happened, or even did happen, it is instructive to see when these "loaded" topics appeared in the group life. Table 30 indicates that delinquent behavior was discussed over a wide range of time in most groups. Discussions about sexual behavior occurred between the second and sixth weeks. In general, race was not brought up as a legitimate topic of discussion in most groups until the seventh and eighth weeks. This is an interesting finding in an interracial project with many obvious cleavages among boys along racial lines. Several "subrosa" conflicts were known to the staff due to the interracial composition of the project. One group looked at the question of race as early as the second week, but in general this group tended to scatter loaded topics throughout the entire forty-day period. Despite this unusual group, the order is maintained by the other groups of talking about delinquent behavior first, sexual behavior next, and racial issues last. From what is known about the "subrosa" conversations about race, and the lateness with which the racial topics appeared, race seemed to be a more potent issue than either sexual or delinquent behavior. Because of the large number of Negro boys (40 percent), there was a great deal of concern among the Caucasian boys of no

TABLE 30

WEEKS WHEN "LOADED" TOPICS WERE DISCUSSED BY GROUPS

Group	Topic		
	Delinquent Behavior	Sexual Behavior	Race
9	2, 5, 7, 8	3, 4, 6	2, 5, 7
10	1, 2, 4, 5	6, 7	8
11	3	2, 4	8
12	1, 4	5	7, 8

longer "being in control" of the situation. These feelings of inability to control the situation created a great deal of tension within the project and required a long time before resolution of the pressures could come about. It is clear that some groups used the meetings to focus on critical events. More can be said about how effective the groups were, but these summary views will be held until the end of the analysis of the data.

Level of accomplishment in the groups.--There are several other ways of looking at the group meetings to find measures of their productivity. Several scales were employed (in Group Rating Form 3) to evaluate the meetings which can illuminate this question. The Level of Accomplishment scale in particular is instructive on

this point. In order to detect change along any of the dimensions of these five scales, the assessment period was split into two equal periods of twenty days each. At the end of each meeting the worker would place a check mark in the appropriate category on the scale. Each one of these marks was tallied for each subject to give a frequency count for each type of behavior on any one of the scales. A comparison between the two periods would allow shifts in ratings to be detected. During the first period, the majority of the individual group members' behavior was recorded in the "not attempting" (43 percent) or "accomplishing" (29 percent) category. There were only scattered behaviors recorded as contributing (8 percent) or "present information" (7 percent) about problems, and when they did so they were frequently cut off (9 percent).

In the second half there was a shift in behavior away from "attempting" or "accomplishing" nothing (38 percent and 24 percent) toward an increase in effort for "accomplishing objectives" and "presenting information" (12 percent) on problem issues. The number of times members were cut off during this period also increased (10 percent). None of these shifts represent significant changes in the percentage differences within the exception of continued effort (.01) and presenting information (.01) as calculated by the critical ratio test.

Problem-solving support.--The behavior of group members can also be examined along the lines of the efforts which were made to support problem-solving work or to disrupt it. The Problem-Solving Support scale was divided into four zones (see Group Rating Form 3).

TABLE 31

FREQUENCY OF BEHAVIORS RECORDED ON THE LEVEL OF ACCOMPLISHMENT SCALE

Behavior	First Period		Second Period		Level of Significance
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	
None attempted	223	43	191	38	NS
None accomplished . .	149	29	118	24	NS
Cut off	44	9	51	10	NS
Continued effort	41	8	60	12	.01
Information giving . . .	38	7	57	12	.01
Other	17	3	21	4	NS
Totals	512		498		

Zone 1 was called "predominance of problem-solving support given"; Zone 2, "more problem-solving support than disruption"; Zone 3, "more problem-solving work disruption than support"; and Zone 4, "predominance of problem-solving work disruption." Table 32 reports the findings by zones. Examination of the table shows that problem-solving support went down during the second half (Zones 1 and 2) 15 percent to 6 percent, and 33 percent to 29 percent, and there was an increase in problem-solving work

TABLE 32

FREQUENCY OF PROBLEM-SOLVING SUPPORT AND DISRUPTION BEHAVIORS RECORDED IN EACH ZONE BY PERIODS

Problem-Solving Behavior	First Period		Second Period		Level of Significance
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	
Zone 1					
Most support	34		7		
Least support	42		24		
Total	76	15	31	6	.01
Zone 2					
More support	70		48		
Least support	100		96		
Total	170	33	149	29	NS
Zone 3					
Most disruption . . .	105		113		
Least disruption . .	74		112		
Total	179	35	225	45	.01
Zone 4					
Most predominance of disruption . .	67		58		
Least predominance of disruption . .	18		39		
Total	85	17	97	19	NS
Totals	512		497		

disruption (Zones 3 and 4), 35 percent to 45 percent, and 17 percent to 19 percent. Only Zones 1 and 3 made significant shifts as computed by the critical ratio test. These findings would appear somewhat paradoxical if, as stated above, the groups were providing the opportunity for personal growth and development of new behavioral styles. Further clues to the meaning of these findings may be gained by looking at the question of centrality of group members.

Centrality levels.--Centrality measures were taken on the Level of Centrality scale to see how vital various roles would be in influencing group process. The different roles varied from noncontributor to central contributor. The noncontributor's role (39 percent) was the major pattern of behavior initially, but the number in this category went down significantly (26 percent, $p < .01$) during the second half. In keeping with this movement, the number being rated as minor contributors increased during the second half (29 percent to 34 percent), though not significantly. However, the number in the major interactor category increased significantly (19 percent to 26 percent, $p < .05$) during the second half, whereas the number listed in the central to ongoing process group remained the same. The pattern of movement of the groups along these dimensions is what might be expected, although there would be some question as to why the number who were central to the ongoing process remained the same. It is possible that the nature of the groups and the behavior style of individual subjects prevented different group members from becoming leaders. In general a tight clique tended to dominate the leadership positions for themselves. They were skillful in looking at interpersonal behavior so that their leadership efforts were legitimated and supported by the group workers.

TABLE 33

CENTRALITY BY PERIOD

Centrality	First Period		Second Period		Level of Significance
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	
Noncontributor	198	39	128	26	.01
Minor contributor . . .	150	29	175	34	NS
Major contributor . . .	99	19	128	26	.05
Central	65	13	62	13	NS
Totals	512		493		

Summary

These three scales yield important clues as to what was going on within the groups even though they may at times appear somewhat contradictory. Sense can be made out of these results by comparing the direction of group activity as revealed in the Level of Accomplishment and Centrality Levels scale data with the topics of discussion. From the previous review of topics, it was found that "loaded" topics such as race relations, delinquency, and sexual behavior were being discussed during the second period. These topics would tend to be explosive and likely to generate increased hostility and lower support for orderly problem-solving activity.

Due to increased displays of hostility, more subjects would be cut off and disruptive behavior would be likely to occur. The more verbal "leadership" clique would also be more likely to be challenged for the leadership of the group by others, resulting in more disruptive behavior. It is possible that some of the active resistance against the workers was more likely to diminish during the second half as compared to the first. All of these factors would tend to elevate the non-problem-solving behavior as well as the problem-solving behavior measures. A review of the findings gives support to this position. The hostility expressed toward the leaders went down significantly (.01 in Table 25), lending support to the above argument. If the subjects were directing their hostility at each other, causing disruptions, then it would be expected that hostility toward the leader would decrease. This appears to be the case in that a marked increase (significant at the .01 level) in disruptive behavior (35 percent to 45 percent) did occur.

Subjects taking a more active role in looking at self and others' behavior are more likely to display hostile acts in the process than supportive ones. As the level of interaction steps up, it would be reasonably expected that efforts to present a particular point of view or position would "irritate" other members. In summary, it would appear that these findings are in keeping with what could be expected for groups that were in fact moving toward greater resolution and new behavioral styles.

Placing the group meetings in a core position of helping to change behavior does not indicate whether gains made in the groups remained outside the meetings. Previous findings indicated that the situational similarity is most high for subjects with congruent behavior patterns and low intensity spread between the graphs. This

would be roughly one-sixth of all subjects, and for this reason only a small number of clients could be expected to have a high degree of carry-over from one situation to the next. Despite this lack of similarity in behavior, change was seen in the group behavior of most subjects because, as pointed out above, the hypothesis is supported by the data. There was a second hypothesis about the group meetings.

Hypothesis 13. Subjects are expected to change behavior patterns in the discussion groups first.

Again looking at Table 28 (page 206), it is clear that most subjects (43 percent) do in fact change first in the group meetings, while 20 percent change simultaneously in work and discussions. These figures can be compared with the number of subjects changing in the car first (40 percent) as opposed to the nontransportation situation (50 percent), with only 10 percent (three) experiencing simultaneous change. This hypothesis is supported by these findings.

Summary of typological analysis

In reviewing the findings in this section it is clear that a number of factors must be kept in mind when measuring change. The degree of structure in the social situation may either facilitate or inhibit the change potential of certain types of subjects. The data on the transportation situation provide an example. Certain types of subjects showed change first in the less structured car than in their group meetings. On the other hand, about six subjects showed changed behavior in both the transportation and nontransportation situations at the same time. Again the highly congruent sub-

subject whose behavior is rather consistent appears in these findings as well as the previous ones.

The second finding from the group meetings is the increasingly negative behavior which appears over time. Loaded topics and a heavy focus on interpersonal behavior could take place, despite the fact that members were not supportive and accepting of one another, raising some fundamental questions about groups. It is certainly worth questioning whether group members who are engaged in active therapeutic work will continue to be restrained and controlled in their interpersonal behavior when they become truly involved. Our experience with the project certainly indicated that this does not happen and the data tend to bear this out.

Detailed Analysis of Individual and Group Discussion Behavior Styles

As members participated in the groups they were rated numerically, as well as having their behavior described in written comments. It was assumed that clients would adopt characteristic behavior styles as they interacted with others within the meetings. It was also expected that specific group behavior styles would emerge along the lines indicated in the typological categories devised from the Profile Analyses. For this reason the following hypothesis was formulated.

> Hypothesis 14. Characteristic behavior styles, as predicted by the expected change pattern, will emerge for each subject in the group meetings.

Annotated comments

If Table 34 is examined, it is clear that nineteen out of the thirty subjects (63 percent) could be characterized as having adopted a predominant behavioral style. In making this determination, all the annotated comments were used and grouped in appropriate clusters. For example, comments such as "leader role," "supportive," and "appropriate" would make up one cluster, while "disruptive," "hostile," and "angry" would make up another. The cluster which represented 50 percent or more of the subject's behavior was rated as his "style." In four cases the behavior showed a model pattern, even though it failed to reach 50 percent. Of the nineteen subjects who could be so characterized by a single pattern, sixteen (84 percent) were in line with the behavior specified in the expected change pattern. Of the subjects who could not be characterized by a single cluster, eight (27 percent) had two distinct patterns emerge. All subjects developed a pattern or patterns of behavior which they maintained for a period of time while in the group situation. The three who could not be characterized indicated a scattered pattern between three or more clusters. These findings lend support to the hypothesis.

Rating scales

There were other ways of characterizing clients' behavior in the groups, and that is along the sentiment dimensions. Two scales in particular were included (from Group Rating Form 3) which measured the apparent level of attraction the group members had for the group itself, and the level of acceptance the group demonstrated for its members. At the end of each group meeting the workers entered

TABLE 34

CHARACTERIZATION OF CLIENTS' PARTICIPATION IN GROUPS BY SUBCATEGORY

Typology No.	Characteristic Behavior Clusters	Ratio[a]	Pct. of Behavior Represented	Correctly Characterized by Expected Change Pattern
2	Quiet Withdrawn Leading role Support appropriate	3/3	52, 57 64	yes yes no
3	Leading role	2/4	50, 33	yes yes
4	Quiet Avoiding	1/3	57	yes
5	Quiet Withdrawn	5/7	71, 54 64, 47, 59	yes yes yes
6	Quiet Withdrawn Support Problem-solving Appropriate	2/5	60 51	no yes
7	Problem-solving Support Leading role	1/1	89	yes
8	Support Leading role Disruptive Quiet Withdrawn	3/3	66 43 48	yes yes no
10	Leading role Support	2/2	60, 68	yes yes 16/19[b]

[a]Ratio of subject who could be classified to the total number in subcategory.

[b]16/19 = 84 percent characterized correctly.

a check mark in the appropriate box indicating the type of behavior shown by the subjects on each one of the two scales. A total count of these check marks was then compiled on each subject and is reported in the table. Table 35 shows the pattern of attractive behavior displayed by members for each period. Table 36 shows the pattern of attractive behavior displayed by members for each period. During the first part of the assessment period, the majority (52 percent) demonstrated sentiments which were rejecting in nature. The behavior of the subjects during the second period showed a significant

TABLE 35

FREQUENCY OF ATTRACTIVE OR NEGATIVE BEHAVIORS BY PERIOD

Behavior	First Period		Second Period		Level of Significance
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	
Attractive					
High	29	5	56	12	.01
Moderate	86	17	130	27	.01
Weak	132	26	151	30	NS
Negative					
Weak	125	25	81	16	.01
Moderate	142	27	72	15	.01
Totals	514		490		

TABLE 36

FREQUENCY OF ATTRACTIVE OR REJECTIVE BEHAVIORS BY PERIODS

Behavior	First Period		Second Period		Level of Significance
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	
Attractive					
High	29	5	56	12	.01
Moderate	86	17	130	27	.01
Weak	132	26	151	30	NS
Rejecting					
Weak	125	25	81	16	.01
Moderate	142	27	72	15	.01
Totals	514		490		

(.01) shift with 69 percent of the acts in the attraction category and only 31 percent in the rejection group. It is clear that the behavior of the groups swung in the attraction direction, but not entirely. An equivalent weakly attractive group existed in both assessment periods. Interestingly enough, the majority of behavior was noted on the acceptance side of the Level of Acceptance Scale (77 percent and 84 percent) during both assessment periods (Table 37). A significant

TABLE 37

FREQUENCY OF ACCEPTING OR REJECTING BEHAVIORS BY PERIODS

Behavior	First Period		Second Period		Level of Significance
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	
Accepting					
High	44	9	85	17	.01
Moderate	138	27	150	31	NS
Weak	207	41	179	36	NS
Rejecting					
Rejecting	115	23	78	16	.01
Totals	504		492		

(.01) drop in the rejecting behavior (23 percent to 16 percent) occurred with members increasing their accepting behavior.

These shifts in behavior are important indicators of developing patterns of effective interpersonal relationships which were likely to permit more productive problem-solving activity to take place. The fact that racial problems were brought up in the second period may be another indication of the groups' developing a more accepting atmosphere. A certain level of acceptance by the

group and attraction to the group was necessary before the members could explore productively critical issues.

Productive exploration of personal behavior does not imply easy interpersonal relationships, devoid of tension and strife. In fact, the pattern of increased disruptive activity and decreasing problem-solving support given to members points to rising tension resulting in various negative acts. Members may have actually been providing support for disruptive behavior as a way of avoiding critical issues which might involve them personally. Of course, problem-solving work can go on even if members are not actively supporting one another. They may not need membership support if the group worker is providing it.

Table 38 gives the breakdown by discussion groups of the attraction/acceptance patterns assumed by each subject during both assessment periods. In general, it can be seen that discussion groups 10 and 12 had more rejecting subjects than did 9 and 11. Remembering the data from Table 30 (page 210), groups 9 and 11 were also able to introduced loaded topics such as sexual behavior sooner than either groups 10 or 12. It would appear that the attraction and acceptance levels were important factors in helping the groups do more productive problem-solving.

The work situation again brought an entirely different level of social interaction around different behavioral problems. Because of these differences, a number of subjects were expected to respond to the work situation differently from other areas of the project. Some of the differences outlined previously in contrasting the cars to the discussion groups hold here. The level of freedom experienced by the subject could be very different in the work situation. The fact that they could see what and how others were doing tasks may

TABLE 38

NUMBER OF SUBJECTS SHOWING ATTRACTING OR ACCEPTING BEHAVIOR BY PERIODS AND GROUPS

Behavior	Group 9		Group 10		Group 11		Group 12	
	Per. 1	Per. 2	Per. 1	Per. 2	Per. 1	Per. 2	Per. 1	Per. 2
Attracting								
Attraction:								
High	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14
Moderate . .	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	0
Weak	2	4	2	6	4	3	1	5
Rejection:								
Weak	3	0	2	0	3	0	1	0
Moderate . .	0	0	3	1	0	3	4	1
Accepting								
Acceptance:								
High	1	2	2	2	1	0	0	1
Moderate . .	2	2	1	3	4	5	1	1
Weak	2	1	4	3	2	3	3	3
Rejection:								
Weak	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Moderate . .	0	1	0	1	1	0	3	2

have made it easier for some boys to become actively involved. Many of the jobs required cooperative effort so that peer pressure "to help out" with tasks were in line with the work supervisor's desires without him doing the prodding. This peer pressure could also work against productive effort in the form of protest movements against work.

Hypothesis 15. Boys who were highly congruent would show a strong relationship between behavior patterns at work and in discussion groups.

If we examine Table 39 we find that there is little relationship between discussion and work patterns for most boys. In fact, only a small number (six; 20 percent) had congruent patterns of behavior. Of the total only nineteen (63 percent) were correctly predicted (either congruent, mixed, or incongruent) by the expected change pattern. Of the thirteen subjects who were expected to have highly congruent patterns, only four (30 percent) did. Two of the subjects who had congruent ratings were not expected to, and they helped bring the total number up to six subjects. In short, it would appear that a different social situation (work) did produce different behaviors in most subjects. The nature of the peer support, the demands of the task itself (complexity, strength required, etc.), intensity of supervision, and the desire to accomplish the job would be some of the factors which would help make the work situation easier for some to cope with than others. Therefore, the work situation provides a number of different ways for the subjects to be successful, whereas the discussion group, while having some of the same factors operating, would be more difficult for an individual to mobilize them. The impersonal demands of the work tasks as opposed to the very personal tasks required in the groups would also

TABLE 39

OBSERVED AND PREDICTED PATTERN CONGRUENCE BY CATEGORY

Category	No.	Predicted Pattern	Observed Patterns from Graphs		
			Con-gruent	Mixed	Incon-gruent
Indifferent	1	Congruent	1	0	0
Frozen	2	Incongruent	0	0	3
Rejecting	3	Congruent	0	2	2
Defiant	4	Incongruent	0	0	3
Withdrawn	5	Mixed-incongruent	1	3	3
Hyperactive	6	Congruent	2	3	0
Suspicious	7	Incongruent	1	0	0
Testing	8	Congruent	1	1	1
Lazy	9	Incongruent	0	0	1
Too open	10	Incongruent	0	1	1
Totals			6	10	14

inhibit, or change, most members' performance level. The hypothesis is not supported by these data. However, when Table 40 is examined some interesting findings appear, when other measures of pattern similarities are studied. If subjects are grouped by their degree of congruence, and then further reclassified by their degree of stability/lability (graphs and annotated comments), there is a strong association between degree of congruence, intensity spread, and pattern and annotated stability. When situational similarity (events in one situation seeming to influence events in a second) is added to the above system of analysis, the findings are also very clear. The data in Table 40 suggest that the patterns should be examined by degree of separation (intensity spread) and situational similarity, without regard to the expected change pattern. When this type of comparison is made, a closer relationship between situations appears to exist. What this suggests is that the level of congruity in the behavioral patterns of subjects in two different situations provides the primary basis for classification. After the group is separated out on this basis, then the lability of the subjects' overall graphs needs to be decided. When this next separation has been accomplished, it is possible to assess the situational similarity and the intensity spread on the graphs. This stepwise procedure seems to be the most accurate way to categorize subjects because subjects who are congruent and stable are different from those who are either incongruent, or mixed, and instable. The results of this analysis give much stronger support to the hypothesis than might have been assumed by examining the data in Table 39 alone.

TABLE 40

COMPARISON OF INTENSITY SPREAD, PATTERN STABILITY, AND SITUATIONAL SIMILARITY WITH OVERALL PATTERN CONGRUENCE

Degree of Congruence	Graphs/ Ratings from Comments[a]	Intensity Spread				Situational Similarity			
		High	Medium	Low	Total	High	Medium	Low	Total
Congruent . .	S/S	0	1	2	3	2	1	0	3
	L/S	0	1	1	2	2	0	0	2
	L/L	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
Mixed	S/S	2	2	0	4	0	3	1	4
	L/S	0	1	1	2	0	1	1	2
	L/L	1	2	1	4	0	1	3	4
Incongruent .	S/S	1	5	0	6	0	0	6	6
	L/S	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
	L/L	4	3	0	7	0	0	7	7
Totals		9	16	5	30	5	6	19	30

[a]S = Stable; L = Labile.

Summary

In this section two different methods for capturing data about behavior were used--annotated comments and rating scales. The annotated comments were useful in categorizing the styles of behavior of the subject. It was possible to find a characteristic behavior in more than half of the subjects, and of those so rated a substantial

number were in agreement with the expected pattern. This finding validated the feeling that members do take on behavior styles which do not change as their total behavioral repertoir may expand. This suggests that members tended to add to their behavioral patterns rather than to change them abruptly, indicating the cumulative nature of change.

When the findings from the rating scales are studied it become clear that the discussion groups had a great deal of ferment taking place in the form of hostile and disruptive behavior. Despite these outbursts, there was still a relatively high level of attraction to the group and acceptance of the membership. It is suggested that this acceptance and attraction quality were important dimensions of these groups which kept them from breaking down and failing to function. In short, the hostile outburst is not necessarily an indication of the attractions which the group members hold for each other. If the attraction level is high enough, the group can survive these disruptive behaviors.

Detailed Analysis of Individual and Work Group Behavior Styles

Origins of pressures for change

If the change picture is to be examined in detail, several things should be remembered. Table 17 (page 185) indicated that subjects who were rated as congruent tended to change faster (2.7 weeks) than those who were rated incongruent (3.2 weeks) and mixed (3.4 weeks) ($p = .30$). While the chi-square value is not significant, it certainly is in the right direction. Another way of viewing the change process is to determine the location of the most change.

Hypothesis 16. Some subjects would change first in the work area, but few subjects would be expected to show this change here over the discussion area.

Table 28 (page 206) gives a good indication of the source of first identifiable change for subjects in discussion and work groups. The majority of subjects, 43 percent (thirteen), showed changes in their pattern of behavior first in the discussion group, while 37 percent changed first at work. However, six (20 percent) demonstated change in both discussion and work simultaneously. Common sense might dictate that fewer subjects would change in the work situation first where the therapeutic focus was clearly less apparent. This is not as obvious as common sense would indicate when the data are examined.

Part of the reason for providing the work experience was the expectation that some subjects would begin to change their behavior when they obtained a positive experience. Some of the reasons indicated on page 226 may explain why some changed their behavior faster at work. Apparently the work situation provided the opportunity for a substantial number of clients to adopt different behavior patterns. It is further suggested that work provides immediate and tangible rewards for the effort expended. This kind of positive reinforcement, of completing an act along with the money which the boys received for their work, was far more solid and assessable evidence to the boys than any "positive" gains which might have come from the group meetings. These demands would tend to be more effective prods to get or keep some boys engaged in the work situation. There was the added benefit of working with certain peers or impressing others with various skills which could come out of the work situation more readily than the meetings for some. On the

other hand, the group did provide some of the more personally oriented boys with an opportunity to excell. The hypothesis is supported by these findings.

Development of work styles

In addition to knowing whether subjects changed or not in the work situation, it was also desirable to know the nature of the behavioral patterns. The expectation was that subjects would develop stable behavior patterns at work as well as in other situations.

Hypothesis 17. Characteristic behavior styles would emerge from the work setting.

Efforts to record the behavior styles of the subjects were far more difficult in the work than the discussion groups. The work supervisors, who rated the boys, tended to repeat comments made about the work style (quantity and quality of work) in the work-efficiency report. Few comments were made about the way subjects did their work (e.g., "cooperative," "supportive," "angry," or "lethargic") as opposed to the quality of work (e.g., "excellent," "fair," and "poor"). Because of this difficulty, another tack was taken to recover information on the work styles. Each of the work graphs was examined to see if they had a stable or unstable pattern. A pattern would be classified as stable if the subject seemed to maintain a general level of functioning for eleven out of the twenty days in either the first or second period. It was simple to apply this procedure to the work patterns as they either clearly stabilized or they did not. Table 41 summarizes the results. During the first period twenty-one subjects had a stable work pattern and nine did not, while eighteen were stable during the second period and twelve

TABLE 41

STABILITY OF WORK AND DISCUSSION GRAPHS BY PERIODS

Stability	Graph	First Period	Second Period	Level of Significance
Stable	Work	21	18	NS
	Discussion	19	20	NS
Unstable	Work	9	12	NS
	Discussion	11	10	NS

were unstable. This can be compared with the discussion groups where nineteen were stable and eleven unstable during the first period and twenty were stable and ten unstable in the second period. Application of the McNemar test for significance of changes indicates that these results are not significant.[1]

At first glance these findings would appear to be contrary to expectation. The fact that they are not significantly different from chance suggests that the findings are not worth mentioning. The fact that the findings are contrary to expectation means that they must be examined despite the fact that this might be a chance difference. The general expectation is that clients will make positive gains in treatment rather than negative ones. In this case increasing stability is considered a positive gain and instability a negative

[1] See Q. McNemar, Psychological Statistics (2d ed.; New York: Wiley, 1955), pp. 228-31.

one. These data must be compared with previous comments on the nature of problem-solving work in the discussion groups, before they can be understood. It was suggested that as groups developed more cohesion, as measured by the Level of Attraction and Level of Acceptance scales, each member was more likely to exert pressures on others to change. This resulting pressure for change would produce more unstable patterns during the second period as the members became more effective in breaking through defenses. Subjects would be responsive when their defenses were broken through and less responsive when this did not happen, yielding an unstable picture. The same thing can be seen in the work situation. It was also possible that some of the more stable subjects were rated this way because their performance was consistently low. They may have maintained a very stable role of actively or passively resisting the developing norms of the group. The "pulling power" of the peers would not be totally successful; therefore, a somewhat unstable picture would be produced. This is another example of how vacillating behavior must be expected as part of the change process. These are only speculations, without the data to support them. A clear behavioral style using several different analytic approaches could not be established for each subject in the work situation.

Summary

In summary, it would appear that all of the findings indicate variability from situation to situation for a majority of subjects and stability in only a few cases. How typical this tendency to shift from situation to situation would be for less disturbed clients, of course, cannot be commented upon by the data in this study. This finding, coming from a variety of measures, raises a basic assessment

question about the generality and specificality of traits which has been in the assessment literature for years. The data from this study may contribute some understanding to the issue. Without speaking of specific traits, it is apparent from this study that some subjects do in fact maintain a general "style" of behavior from situation to situation. The small number who maintain a consistent pattern (about one-fifth of the subjects) indicated what might be the basis for the different results reported in the literature. Until better typologies are developed so that more homogeneous groups can be studied, it will be difficult to support or deny the early assertions of Hartshorne and May (1933) that there is no "general trait."

Situational Tests to Improve Predictability

Expressive Style and Skills

Step 8 suggested the inclusion of a number of situational tests within the assessment process. The work program was considered an excellent "situational test" as the term was defined in this thesis. Work ratings would supply criterion measures as well as predictive data on the capability of specific subjects to function in a nonproject work situation. As the work skills of the boys improved, it was thought that it would be possible to predict the boys who would also work best in another situation. The Profile Analysis Chart (III) indicates the subjects who were rated high in skill. The work situation can therefore be used as a criterion measure against which the prediction of high skill (good workers) can be validated.

In previous discussions about situational testing, it was pointed out that the expressive levels of the clients needed to be evaluated first in order to have some clarity on how well the subjects revealed themselves. For example, one would expect to find that highly expressive subjects are better able to project themselves into group situations than their opposites. It is also probable that highly expressive subjects would be rated as central to the life of the group. The ability to express themselves would make them more salient in a group situation and therefore they would be rated as central.

In order to see the relationship between centrality and expressive level, a subsample of high-skill subjects was chosen for study. High-skill subjects were chosen because it was assumed that any relationship between these measures would be revealed most clearly in this type of client. Table 42 reports the following results of all the subjects ranked high in skill. (It should be remembered that skill was defined in two ways--either manipulating physical objects or being effective in interpersonal relationships.) High-skill subjects can be divided into two groups coded I (interpersonal skill) or O (object skill). There were five subjects in each group. Subjects were rated as high if the average rating of all points was above 4 on the work graphs, medium if between 2 and 4, and low if below 2. The overall expressive level for work is well represented among object-oriented subjects only. Of those rated high-skill interpersonal, only two were rated high, two medium, and one low on ability to express themselves in the work situation. These findings will be discussed below.

TABLE 42

EXPRESSIVE LEVELS (WORK) AND CENTRALITY (DISCUSSIONS) OF HIGH-SKILL SUBJECTS[a]

Case Letters	Skill Type	Expressive Levels		Centrality Levels	
		Overall	Initial	Period 1	Period 2
E	O	H	H	Maj	Min
D	O	H	L	Maj	C
CC	O	H	M	C	Min
X	O	H	M	C	C
DD	O	H	M	Maj	Maj
S	I	H	M	N	Min
U	I	H	L	C	Maj
I	I	M	L	N	Min
W	I	L	M	Min	Maj
A	I	L	M	N	N

[a]Key to abbreviations: C = Central; H = High; I = Interpersonal skill; L = Low; M = Medium; Maj = Major interpersonal skill; Min = Minor interpersonal skill; N = Noninterpersonal skill; O = Object skill.

Initial versus final period

An important next step is to look at the initial period of the subjects' participation in the project to see if their high overall rating was due to improvement in behavior or reflected the initial level of skill brought to the project. When attention is focused on the initial work expressive levels, all object-oriented subjects appeared initially lower and moved up except one. The object-skill subjects were all rated high overall. The interpersonal-skill people who started off with low ratings in two cases moved up, and the subjects who were rated as medium ended up lower in two and higher in one. The interpersonal-skill subjects' expressive pattern seems to be much more unpredictable than the object-oriented subjects. Predictions made about the overall expressive level for those who had high object skills on the profile analysis would have been well validated by the "situational test" of the work situation.

Expressive Style and Group Discussion Skills

The question now becomes one of determining if these same data can be used to supply answers about the high-skilled persons in interpersonal situations. The discussion group can be taken as a situational test in which the ability to manipulate people is the skill issue. Measures of centrality may give significant information on this point. Table 42 reports that those classified as high object manipulators were also major interactors (in three cases) and central to the ongoing process (two cases) during the first period. When high-interpersonal-skill subjects were examined, one was

classified as central, and the rest no (three cases) or minor (one case) contributions during the first period.

Ratings of both types of high-skill subjects on centrality during the second period showed interesting changes. The object-skill subjects responded differently to the discussion group than to work. Only two retained the same role, either central or major interactors, whereas two changed roles radically, dropping to minor interactors, and only one raised his performance level. Of the five interpersonal-skill subjects, three increased (two only slightly) their degree of centrality, one remained the same, and one decreased.

Interpretation of findings

These findings appear to be rather paradoxical if the original skill classification was correct. It is assumed that the ratings had some validity in that the subjects could be classified easily as to their work output. The fact of the matter seems to be that the figures are not as surprising as they might at first appear to be. Those who were object-oriented might be very able to manipulate the situation initially, because of the general confusion as to the purposes of the discussion meetings. They would be less able to do so in the second period when interpersonal skill was needed to deal with the process events of the group. The increased acceptance of each other and increased personal problem-solving may have lessened object-oriented members' willingness to become involved in group process. For object-skill clients dealing with person-oriented issues rather than object-oriented topics, such as rules and how the group should behave at work, etc., may have been too threatening.

Only one member who was rated high on interpersonal skills was also rated as central during the final period. Apparently the

initial response of interpersonal-oriented subjects to the group situation was to refrain from overt participation. In a sense they used their interpersonal skills to "smell out" the situation and avoid involvement. For the second period two of the three noncontributors only became minor contributors, whereas the central contributor slipped to a major interactor. Despite high levels of rated interpersonal skill, the actors do not automatically become central to the ongoing process of the group. An alternative point of view may be that the type of contributions made were initially rated by the group workers as "noncontributions" and were later revised upward.

The limited opening up of the high-interpersonal-skill subjects during the period when the conversation shifted toward interpersonal difficulties is inconsistent with expectations. For this reason it is suspected that the problem does not lie in the way the ratings of the contributions were made, but in the fact that there was a real pattern of resistance in the clients' behavior. Additional data are needed to understand better the resistance of the noncontributors or the high-interpersonal-skill subjects who played minor roles.

Expressive Style and Group Relationships

The Group Rating Form (Form 3) also contained several other scales providing information about the level of subjects functioning in a situational testlike condition. It is suspected that these scales would also have predictive value for "field" conditions. The three scales useful for this task were the Level of Acceptance, Level of Attraction (peer relations), and Relationship to the Leader (relations to authority). The ratings were simply compiled from all

the check marks which the subjects received in each category on the Level of Acceptance, Level of Attraction, and Relationship to Leader scales. These summaries for each group represent the modal behavior for the periods indicated. Table 44 is a summary of Table 43 with each category written in for ease in describing the ratings. Turning to the Profile Analysis, it would seem likely that there would be clear differences between high- and low-skill subjects on these three scales. Clients who are inept in their social functioning would be poorly accepted by other group members and possibly by the leader. Since the peer and leader relationships would be unproductive, then the group as a whole should have very little attraction for the low-skill member. The exact opposite set of relationships would be predicted for the high-skill group member.

Tables 43 and 44 present the set of rather complex relationships discovered in the data. Reviewing the tables, five different groups immediately emerge when attempting to dichotomize the subjects by level of skill. As previously indicated, some subjects seem to relate better to objects, and others to people, at a high level of skill. The same division was also possible with low-skill subjects. The low-skill group could be further subdivided into a third group of six (60 percent) who seem to manipulate both people and things poorly. The need for this subcategory of low-skilled subjects becomes very clear when the rest of the table is examined.

In general, the following can be said about object-oriented subjects, without regard for skill. They were attracted to the group, accepting of the membership, and developed a clear trusting relationship with the authority figure (the group worker). The high-skill subjects differed in the amount of acceptanc shown from the low-skill subjects in the expected direction. High-skill subjects

TABLE 43

IMPACT OF SKILL ON ATTRACTION, ACCEPTANCE, AND RELATIONSHIP TO LEADER SCALES[a]

Subject Type	Case Letter	Type of Skill	Attraction		Acceptance		Relation to Leader	
			Period 1	Period 2	Period 1	Period 2	Period 1	Period 2
High-skill	E	O	MR	WA	R	WA	Hos	Tr
Object-oriented	D	O	MA	MA	MA	MA	Tr	Tr
	CC	O	MA	HA	MA	HA	Te	Tr
	X	O	MA	HA	MA	HA	Tr	Tr
	DD	O	MA	MA	WA	MA	Wid	Tr
People-oriented	S	I	MR	WA	WA	WA	Wid	Hos
	U	I	WA	MA	MA	MA	Te	Te
	I	I	WA	WA	HA	HA	Te	Hos
	W	I	WA	MA	R	MA	Te	Tr
	A	I	WA	WA	WA	R	Te/Wid	Wid
Low-skill								
Object-oriented	P	O	WA	WA	WA	WA	Te	Tr
	O	O	WA	MA	MA	MA	Te	Tr
People-oriented	M	I	MR	WA	WA	WA	Wid	Wid
	B	I	MR	MR	WA	R	Wid	Wid
Neither	N	N	WR	WA	R	WA	Te	Tr
	R	N	MR	MR	R	WA	Wid	Wid
	L	N	WA	WA	WA	MA	Tr	Tr
	C	N	WR	WA	WA	WA	Te	Te
	Q	N	MR	MR	WA	WA	Hos	Wid
	V	N	MR	MR	WA	R	Wid	Hos

[a]Key to abbreviations: HA = High accepting; Hos = Hostile; I = Interpersonal skill; MA = Moderate accepting; MR = Moderate rejecting; N = No skills; O = Object skills; R = Rejecting; Te = Testing; Tr = Trusting; WA = Weak accepting; Wid = Withdrawn; WR = Weak rejecting.

TABLE 44

IMPACT OF SKILL ON RATED ACCEPTANCE, ATTRACTION, AND RELATION TO LEADER SCALES--SUMMARY[a]

Case Letter	Type of Skill	Period	Attraction	Acceptance	Relation to Leader
			High-skill Object-oriented		
E	O	1	Moderate attraction (-)	Weak accepting	Mixed
D	O				
CC	O	2	Moderate attraction (+)	Moderate accepting	Trusting
X	O				
DD	O				
			High-skill Interpersonal-oriented		
S	I	1	Weak attraction	Weak accepting (Mixed)	Testing Withdrawn
N	I				
I	I				
W	I	2	Weak attraction (+)	Weak accepting (Mixed)	Mixed
A	I				
			Low-skill Object-oriented		
P	O	1	Weak attraction (+)	Weak accepting (+)	Testing
O	O				
		2	Weak attraction (+)	Weak accepting (+)	Trusting

[a]Key to abbreviations: I = Interpersonal skill; N = No skill; O = Object skill; (+) = Modal rating slightly above category; (-) = Modal rating slightly below category.

TABLE 44 (Continued)

Case Letter	Type of Skill	Period	Attraction	Acceptance	Relation to Leader
			Low-skill Interpersonal-oriented		
M B	I I	1	Weak rejecting	Weak accepting	Withdrawn
		2	Weak rejecting	Weak accepting (-)	Withdrawn
			Low-skill Nonoriented		
N	N	1	Rejecting	Rejecting (+)	Mixed
R L C Q R	N N N N N	2	Rejecting (+)	Weak accepting	Mixed

showed all of the above qualities to a greater degree than low-skill subjects on the Relation to Leader and Attraction scales.

When looking at interpersonally oriented clients, the following generalizations seem to hold. The high-skill subjects are very weakly attracted to the group, whereas the low-skill subjects reject the group rather strongly. Both high- and low-skill subjects' acceptance of the various members in the group is rated as being weak. Their behavior toward the leader is seen as testing or withdrawn in the case of high-skill subjects, and clearly withdrawing by the lower-skill subjects. In general, the pattern shifts slightly from the first period to the second.

Those clients showing neither skill at the interpersonal nor object level have an entirely different pattern from the other subgroups. As a whole they reject group membership; that is, the group experience appears to hold no attraction for them. Their ratings on Attraction and Acceptance scales remains essentially the same for both evaluation periods. Their reactions to the group workers in the discussion groups is very mixed and could not be categorized.

Summary

In summary, it would appear that skill is a meaningful dimension to divide the subjects along, but it needs to be further subdivided into at least five different subclasses. Subjects who have high skill and are people-oriented tend to be less accepting of the initial group situation, but this weak acceptance improves slightly over time. High-skill subjects are accepted by the group and are capable of moving into a trusting relationship with authority figures. It is clear that the interpersonal high-skill subjects

are more likely to be seen less positively by authority figures and peers in a group situation. On the other hand, high-skill object-oriented persons are more likely to be seen as trusting of authority and more positive toward group members and group tasks. These differences in subject behavior in the groups might suggest another way of looking at the effects of the group experience. There were some shifts in behavior, but they remained small. The changes were more qualitative rather than quantitative in nature.

Clients who were not skilled at either object or personal manipulation remained rejected and were rejecting of group tasks, membership, and to a certain extent leadership. This posture would tend to keep them out of spheres of influence which might change them through interaction with other actors or have their actions bring about changes in others.

Formulating a View of Personality for Assessment of Change

Bench-Mark Data

Step 9 indicates that a sufficient formulation of the personality of each subject must be constructed before making specific ratings, predictions, and recommendations. Previous chapters have stressed the need for "bench-mark" information on subjects in the various regions. In the above case the profile analysis was the initial "bench mark"--helpful in developing the original typology by which the subjects could be compared to each other. This initial step permits a base line to be established at time one (profile analysis) when subjects first enter the project, and a second "bench

mark," an expected change behavior pattern, to be developed at time two after past records were examined and after one week's experience with the subjects. These data can then be compared with those collected during the ongoing operations of the project at time three. This outline of procedures seems necessary to follow when attempting to understand the different types of subject behavior revealed by the various rating scales. Table 43 illustrated the necessity of subgrouping subjects initially when attempting to assess the various ways they undergo change. Without the insight gained from these two "bench marks," the findings as to how variously skilled subjects changed their behavior would have been impossible to interpret.

Expressive Level Related to Target Regions

Involved in the initial rating process is the job of obtaining expressive levels of the clients. As indicated earlier, it is difficult to understand the ratings obtained unless the subject's ability to project himself is rated first. This requires that our attentions again shift to the total group of subjects to obtain some clarity about how the expression levels relate to target regions.

In this study, each one of the graphs was studied, and a rating was assigned which was to stand for the subject's initial, overall, or terminal expressive level. Overall graphs which averaged less than two points on the scale (Form 4) were classed as "low," those in the range of two to four points were medium, and those above four were classified as "high." The overall "level" of the graph as well as the initial and terminal weeks were rated, for both work and discussion groups. It should be noted that the

evaluations of the graphic patterns were assessments being made of previously rated behavior observed in the discussion or work groups. The ratings of expressive levels were not developed by actually observing the behavior of subjects. This rating process is one step removed from direct observation of the subject's actual behavior and might best be called the subject's "rated expressive level." With this point of caution in mind it is possible to look at the data.

Table 45 gives the breakdown of the way subjects were classified by this type of graphic analysis. When the entire patterns for the discussion groups were studied, fourteen were rated low, twelve medium, and only four were high. The same analysis was applied to the graphs from the work situation, and they showed a major shift upward. Only five subjects were classified low, nine medium, but sixteen were rated high. In general, subjects were seen and rated higher in the work situation than the discussion groups when the overall pattern was examined. These figures can also be compared to those obtained from graphs drawn from the computed running averages for work and discussion groups. These graphs were devoid of major fluctuations, and for this reason they were easier to judge. It should be remembered that the flattening out of the graphs would also bring them closer toward the midpoint on the scale. Of the discussion group subjects, eight were rated low, twenty-one medium, and only one high. The work group graphs reflected one low, sixteen medium, but thirteen high. More graphs were classified in the medium category, as expected, shrinking the number of low discussion and work group ratings, but doing little to subjects rated high in both situations.

Many attempts at assessing change are based on measures taken before and after to determine success or failure of subjects

TABLE 45

SUBJECTS' RATED EXPRESSIVE LEVELS AT VARIOUS TIMES BY DISCUSSION AND WORK GROUPS

Time	Discussion Groups			Work Groups		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Overall	14	12	4	5	9	16
Average	8	21	1	1	16	13
Initial	20	8	2	8	17	5
Terminal	4	21	5	5	12	13

in an experiment. A simulated "before" and "after" measure of expressive level was attempted. The graphs were classified by the previously described scheme for the first week and last week for each subject to produce an initial and terminal rating. Initially, twenty subjects were rated low in discussion, eight medium, and only two high (Table 45), compared to the work situation, where only eight were rated low, seventeen medium, and five high. The terminal ratings reveal marked shifts upward, with only four rated low, twenty-one medium, and five high in the discussions, while in work groups there were five lows, twelve mediums, and thirteen highs. Reflecting on both of these ratings (initial and terminal) there is a shift upward in both cases. The initial to terminal ratings shifted from low to medium in the discussion group, and

from medium to high in the work group. It is apparent that "rated expressive levels" changed as the subjects were in the project, and a before/after design would successfully detect the change.

Affect and overall expressive levels

It would be instructive, however, to compare the ratings subjects received on the affect skill and control scales on the profile analysis to the expressive level ratings. It is assumed that the ability for subjects to actually demonstrate inner feelings which they are having should be a function, in part, of a certain level of affect, skill, and control. For this reason, the relationship between affect, control, and skill with the various types of rated expressive levels also needs to be examined.

Table 46 shows the interaction of low and medium affect and overall expressive levels in discussion groups. The rated expressive levels were dichotomized into low and medium (1 to 4 points on scale) and high (5 to 7 points) in order to make larger subgroups for analysis. A chi-square value of 5.129 is significant at the .05 level, suggesting that subjects with a low level of rated affect also tended to be rated low on overall expressive level on the discussion group graphs. This finding does not hold true with the graphs from the work groups.

Skill and overall expressive levels

Subjects displaying a high level of skill (either interpersonal or object-related) tended to be rated significantly (.05) high on overall expressive level in the discussion groups (if skill is dichotomized equal to $p = .01$). Again the findings on the overall expressive level rating for the work groups are not significant.

TABLE 46

AFFECT AS RELATED TO OVERALL EXPRESSION LEVEL IN DISCUSSION GROUPS (FREQUENCIES)[a]

Rated Affect	Discussion Expression Level		Total
	Low-Medium (1-4 points)	High (5-7 points)	
Low	11	6	17
Medium	3	10	13
Totals	14	16	30

[a]Chi-square significant at .05.

TABLE 47

SKILL AS RELATED TO OVERALL EXPRESSION LEVEL IN DISCUSSION GROUPS (FREQUENCIES)[a]

Rated Skill	Discussion Expression Level		Total
	Low-Medium (1-4 points)	High (5-7 points)	
Low	8	3	11
Medium	4	5	9
High	2	8	10
Totals	14	16	30

[a]Chi-square significant at .05.

Control and overall expressive levels

When control is examined, there is no significant relationship found between subjects' rated level of control and their rated expressive level. There is a tendency for subjects who are high on control to be rated low in overall expressive level in the discussion groups. There was no significant relationship found between control and work expression levels.

When the averaged graphs for the discussion groups are examined, the previously reported relationships appear even stronger. Table 49 reports the data on rated affect and expression level in discussion groups, using running averages, showing a high degree of association (.005) with similar findings holding for skill (.02, and

TABLE 48

CONTROL AS RELATED TO OVERALL EXPRESSION LEVEL IN DISCUSSION GROUPS (FREQUENCIES)[a]

Rated Control	Discussion Expression Level		Total
	Low-Medium (1-4 points)	High (5-7 points)	
Low	3	6	9
Medium	4	5	9
High	7	5	12
Totals	14	16	30

[a]Chi-square not significant.

TABLE 49

AFFECT AS RELATED TO AVERAGED EXPRESSION LEVEL IN DISCUSSION GROUPS (FREQUENCIES)[a]

Rated Affect	Discussion Expression Level		Total
	Low-Medium (1-4 points)	High (5-7 points)	
Low	12	5	17
Medium	2	11	13
Totals	14	16	30

[a]Chi-square significant at .005.

.001 when skill is dichotomized). There were no significant relationships between Affect, Control, and Skill when the work group expressive level (averaged) was used.

Affect, control, skill, and initial and terminal expressive levels

The initial and terminal expression levels for discussion groups were also related to the rated regions of Affect and Control, but no significant relationship was found to exist. There was one exception, Skill, which was significantly associated with the way subjects were rated on the terminal expressive level in discussion groups (.05) (Table 50). The same findings are not significant for the work groups in this analysis.

TABLE 50

SKILL AS RELATED TO TERMINAL EXPRESSION LEVEL IN DISCUSSION GROUPS (FREQUENCIES)[a]

Rated Skill	Discussion Expression Level			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Low	6	9	0	15
High	1	10	4	15
Totals	7	19	4	30

[a]Chi-square significant at .05.

Affect, skill, and control combined with expressive levels

It would be useful to see the interaction effect of two regions on the expressive level, as measured by overall, running average, initial, and terminal methods of rating. If an increased relationship were found, then there would be some indication that certaion regions were interconnected, as Lewin (1936) has suggested. On the other hand, a very high association between two or more regions on expressive levels might indicate rater halo effects.

Affect and Control would appear to be related according to the way the two regions are conceptualized in this thesis, Affect being the expression of felt emotions, whereas Control is containing the expression of feelings. Subjects denying emotional reactions to persons or situations are highly controlling in that they don't or

won't allow their own feelings to be made manifest even to themselves. On the other hand, some subjects admit to having feelings but control overt behavior as a way of avoiding directly expressing these feelings. These two regions were not significantly associated with overall rated expressive level, for either work or discussion groups, but are related to discussion groups when averaged (.05) and terminal (almost .05). However, Affect and Skill were significantly associated with expressive levels when measured overall (.01), averaged graphs (.001), and terminal (.02) for the discussion groups. There were no significant relationships between Affect and Skill and the work group ratings. When Skill and Control are combined there was no significant effect on expression level, with the exception of averaged graphs in discussion groups (.05).

TABLE 51

AFFECT-SKILL AS RELATED TO OVERALL EXPRESSION LEVEL IN DISCUSSION GROUPS (FREQUENCIES)[a]

Affect-Skill	Discussion Expression Level		Total
	Low-Medium (1-4 points)	High (5-7 points)	
Low-Low	8	3	11
Low-High	3	2	5
Medium-Low	3	2	5
Medium-High	0	9	9
Totals	14	16	30

[a]Chi-square greater than .01.

TABLE 52

AFFECT-SKILL AS RELATED TO TERMINAL EXPRESSION LEVEL IN DISCUSSION GROUPS (FREQUENCIES)[a]

Affect-Skill	Discussion Expression Level			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Low-Low	5	6	0	11
Low-High	0	5	0	5
Medium-Low	1	3	1	5
Medium-High	0	5	4	9
Totals	6	19	5	30

[a]Chi-square greater than .02.

Summary

In general, the most powerful relationships were found between Affect and Skill, and expression level in the discussion groups. (Highly skilled subjects seemed to have skill at expressing themselves in ways that less skillful subjects could not.) Skill coupled with Control did not produce significant levels of association. It is possible that subjects who did not show their feelings (highly controlling) were harder to rate than those who did. There also seemed to be something about the particular situation in which the ratings were don which influenced the relationship between expressive level and various regions. Typically, the work situation yielded poor

relationships between these various measures, whereas the same subjects could be rated rather well in the discussion groups. This may be due to the fact that subjects were rated at work by how well they could perform assigned tasks with only the minimum revelation of self necessary. In the discussion groups there was a conscious effort to examine self-other relationships, and the expression of feelings, thus making more data available to group workers to assess these areas. On the other hand, the work supervisors may not have given much attention as to whether there was an revelation of self accomplished when rating the boys' work for the day. This might account for the poor associations between the variables.

When the initial and terminal ratings were used, there was very little association between these ratings and the three regions. In the few cases where there was any association, it was only terminal ratings that reached a level of significance. Increased familiarity with the subjects by the raters or the subjects "opening up" to express themselves more may have accounted for this finding. These findings certainly suggest that initial ratings would not be very helpful as base-line measures if they were to be related to the various regions.

Profile of Expected Behavior

Step 10 suggests the need to develop a personality sketch of each subject which describes how the person may function as a member of an organization. The expected change behavior profile served to accomplish this purpose. It became the basis for evaluating much of the data even when the predictions made on the chart were not corroborated by the findings. It is not possible, however, to tell

from the data how well clients would have been rated in various areas if these expected change patterns were not prepared.

Step 11 (hold a staff meeting for clarifying personality sketch) and Step 12 (conduct assessment in an experimental framework) were discussed in a previous chapter, and since no data were produced which add to the previous discussions these steps will not be reviewed here.

Summary

This chapter reports the results obtained in a treatment project which attempted to use social assessment to measure planned change. A series of hypotheses were derived from the model about how change would appear as well as appropriate ways to process the data to recover the evidence of change. One of the initial questions of data anlysis was whether the sample should be examined as a whole or relevant subgroupings developed. A variety of data analysis techniques were used which yielded different responses for subjects in various settings. In effect, subjects were rated in the cars (pattern of interaction), the way boys worked was recorded, and their style of behavior in discussion groups was observed. From these data at least three patterns emerged about their behavior. Some were very consistent in their behavior from situation to situation--congruent subjects--whereas others were found to be incongruent. There was a third group which could not be so categorized and was called the "mixed" group. At times the mixed group would be very stable (up to several weeks) and then their behavior would shift very radically and become extremely labile. Division of the

entire group into various subcategories proved to be an extremely useful way to understand the varieties of change.

The data were useful to look at whether before/after design could be used to establish change or whether a longitudinal approach was needed. It was possible to adopt several measures used in the study to the before/after design. When this technique was applied, several subjects were found to have improved. However, this approach would have failed to reveal an understanding of why some subjects were not seen as changing. When the longitudinal picture was studied, it was possible to detect the various phases of change which the clients were moving through. It was clear from the data that some subjects moved through the change process quite differently, and that all of the subjects were not at the same point in the process when the assessment period terminated. These findings helped fill in the details missing from the before/after design. Once more the diversity of change pattern of the subjects was revealed by this type of longitudinal study.

A third issue was revealed in the data in that there was a need for a typology, previously developed as well as depending on the variety of subject responses to build an ad hoc one. The initial basis for classifying subjects was based on a rating of clients by staff on five target regions. When the profiles were completed, then subjects were grouped into relatively homogeneous units, which led to the ten categories used in the analysis. The subcategories made it possible to develop a picture of how each type of client's behavior would appear as they underwent change. With a "blueprint" of the expected change behavior it was possible to compare the actual observed behavior against the expected change picture. At the end of the analysis the usefulness of the expected change picture could be

determined. In this case it proved to be very helpful in having a previously worked-out system to compare the data against. Specific types of behavior could be better explained if it fit into an expected pattern.

Each one of the rating scales on the Group Meeting Rating Form, the Work Report, and the Transportation Report were transferred to graphic sheets which displayed the ratings of every subject for every day. This system provided a longitudinal picture of each situation and subject. These graphs were then analyzed for the similarity between situations, stability of ratings, the amount of vacillation, and the degree of separation between the graphs. These various measures revealed changes in pattern over time which formed the basis of inference that subjects' behavior had improved, remained the same, or declined. The data were analyzed in such a way that the variety of change patterns could be seen. This method of data analysis made it possible to retain the typology.

Specific regions were identified as the target of the change effort. The target regions which were found to be significantly associated with other measures were skill, affect and control. For example, the relationship between affect, control, and skill to acceptance in and attraction to the group, and the relationship to the leader were all examined. The expressive level of the subject to these various measures was also analyzed. The effect of the work and discussion group on these various measures was also investigated. In general, the target regions had various levels of association with some of the rated behavior in the work or discussion situation. It was found that some regions were highly associated with good work but were not equally associated with effective discussion group membership.

The important problem associated with situational testing is the ability of the subject to express himself in the test situation. The level of expression of the subjects was determined by analyzing the graphs. Expression level data were found to relate to the target regions of affect, control, and skill, as well as the behavior patterns of the subjects in the work and discussion groups.

Chapter VI attempts to sum up the findings and the possible implications of this study.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The remarks in this chapter can be divided into three categories: (1) comments about the social assessment model, (2) a review of the problems encountered in carrying out this study, and (3) generalization and interpretation about the strategy of making a social assessment. The first area, comments about the model, is the most specific to the purpose of this thesis.

Social Assessment Model

The Thesis Problem

The primary purpose of this thesis was to adapt the assessment model advanced by the Murray group to a suitable format for evaluating planned change. The need for a more appropriate model was elaborated previously but bears repeating. In short, most efforts at assessing planned change have proved to be inadequate. Either the assessment techniques were inappropriate or the sensitivity of the instruments was too low to detect the changes frequently reported by staff and participants. This model for social assessment was designed to systematize the process in such a way as to accomplish several objectives simultaneously:

1. Detect the type and the way the subjects are involved in the change process.
2. Determine the way subjects behave in different situations.
3. Discover the nature and degree of change experienced by the subjects.

These general objectives were developed into specific hypotheses which are reviewed below.

Description of model

Before discussing the objectives of this study, a brief description of the model is in order.

This thesis attempts to present a model for assessing planned change. In order to accomplish this task several things need to be done: (1) Specific target regions of the change effort need to be identified. (2) Once the regions are selected, rating the subjects along a continuum from high to low on each dimension should be completed. (3) With these data collected, subcategories of clients can be made up which will permit the development of an expected change pattern for each type of subject and for each phase of change. (4) The behavior of subjects in each activity must be observed and rated over the entire time that they participate in the project. (5) The interactions of the subjects with their peers and staff must also be included to provide a picture of the dynamic forces shaping the interactions. (6) As part of this rating process, the expressive level of each subject should be determined so that the potential of each subject to project his inner thoughts and feelings into public behavior can be considered. (7) With this type of information it will be possible to relate the expressive level to the observed behavior.

The data analysis operation should be designed so that each subject can be studied separately and the sequence and location of his behavior can be maintained in the record. A psychograph was used in this project which consisted of graphs made up from scale ratings of each subject in each situation. The graph is one of the best ways of maintaining the data in such a format that will permit the sequence and location of behavior to be maintained. It is also possible to analyze the data by subcategories, so that the behavior change of one type of subject is not compared against the behavior of an entirely different subject. The measure of change should be the behavior of one subject against himself.

Objectives of model

Detecting type and way subjects are involved in change

Several hypotheses were developed which made certain predictions about the way subjects of various types would undergo change. It was hypothesized that subjects would be congruent in their behavior from situation to situation (Hypothesis 1), and that the most congruent subjects would show change faster than less congruent subjects (Hypothesis 5). The findings revealed that most subjects were not congruent but, of those who were, most changed first. More elaborate subcategories were then developed and expected change patterns were prepared. It was predicted that the expected change pattern would equal the actually observed change pattern (Hypothesis 3) and that the expected phases of change would match the observed phases (Hypothesis 6). Both of these hypotheses were supported by the data. In building a change pattern for these

subcategories of subjects it was predicted that different subcategories of subjects would have different change patterns (Hypothesis 4) and this was found to be true.

The change process was viewed as a series of phases and that shifts in the behavior of subjects would reveal when subjects were entering into a new phase. It was predicted (and supported by the data) that different kinds of behavior would be displayed by various types of subjects as they move from phase to phase (Hypothesis 8). This type of analysis of the behavior of the subjects might suggest a rather clinical program of assessment. This was clearly not the case. In the model presented here no effort was made to "measure," from a strictly clinical point of view, the intrapsychic processes of the subjects. What was attempted was a simple determination of the way subjects appeared to function in specific target areas as revealed in their records and from observations. Having obtained some understanding of their patterns, it was then possible to group clients into apparently homogeneous categories. This procedure, which is logical, is more often breached than abided by. Typically simple categories such as delinquent, student, parent, or the like are used, without recognizing that these labels do not describe people but depict roles. If a role analysis is desired, then these labels are appropriate. Knowing how people will behave within roles necessitates looking at those dimensions of the person which actually shape their role behavior. Lewin (1926) would define these dimensions as regions. It was possible to accomplish this type of analysis in the majority of cases in this study.

The detailed analysis of subjects rated as highly skilled is an example of the kind of subgrouping needed to obtain a picture of the variety of persons under study. Without empirical categories of

the type used here the data on change would have been uninterpretable. Once it was clear which dimensions were being affected by treatment, it became possible to measure the amount of change obtained. A profile analysis which yields data for the development of an expected change pattern was necessary to complete before a successful assessment of planned change could be accomplished. The development of a profile analysis and expected change pattern was feasible to accomplish in this project.

Determining the way subjects behaved in different situations

Too often the focus of the assessment of planned change has been on determining the appropriateness of one particular procedure over another. The unfortunate assumption here is that subjects are sufficiently similar (or congruent) in their behavior that different experimental programs can make valid tests of the efficacy of the various techniques. From the data collected here, even with a supposedly homogeneous group, the majority of subjects were found to respond differently from one situation to the next, therefore making it more difficult to compare one program with another. Furthermore, some subjects did better in one situation while declining in a second, right within the same program. This type of incongruent movement from situation to situation can be a major complication in the comparison of various techniques. This question about how subjects respond to the situations that they are placed in prompted a number of hypotheses along these lines. It was predicted that characteristic behavior styles would emerge for the cars, discussion groups, and the work situation (Hypotheses 10, 13, 14, and 17). All four of these predictions were supported by the data. It was predicted

(and supported by the data) that in congruent cases there would be a high degree of similarity in the way the boys approached a task in the discussion and work groups (Hypothesis 15). It is worth remembering that the different responses of the subjects do not necessarily suggest that one situation or the other is more or less appropriate. One reason for the variety of responses in different situations may indicated that all of the clients are not in the same phase. It was clear that some subjects began to change significantly sooner in the transportation situation than in groups. Unless the exact change phase of each subject is established for the particular situation, comparisons of subjects' behavior across situations can only lead to confusing interpretations of the data. It was hypothesized in this study that there would be some influence in the magnitude and direction of behavior from one situation to the next (Hypthesis 2). This was not supported by the data.

Discovering the nature and degree of change experienced by subjects

It has been pointed out frequently in this thesis that time is a critical dimension in assessing change. When the psychographs were reviewed, it was clear that almost four weeks were needed before clearly identifiable changes in a pattern could be found. This is a very long time in view of the intensive effort with subjects being immersed totally in a treatment situation ten hours a day. It is possible that changes might have been hastened appreciably if the subjects had been in the project twenty-four hours a day. Whether this is so cannot be resolved by the data presented here. What is indicated by this study is the fact that many efforts to show planned change may fail because the intensity of treatment is too low to

induce it. The techniques used might have been appropriate but were not given in sufficient concentration to have a meaningful effect. Pharmacology has shown that there are periods of time needed for drugs to reach their "peak action" after being taken into the body. Some drugs may not reach this initial point for almost twenty-four hours. It is also true that drugs do not become effective until after a certain concentration has been obtained in the blood (called "blood level"). These are important concepts to keep in mind as the interaction of time on the nature and degree of change is reviewed.

From the data recovered here, it can be concluded that time is an extremely important ingredient as it affects concentration and "peak action" effects. Without some idea of the "peak action" effect for the techniques employed, the assessment may be concluded before any appreciable degree of change takes place. Furthermore, the concentration level question seems relevant by the fact that some subjects changed first in the cars where the "level of freedom" was different from other situations (Hypothesis 11). Because of differences in the types and degrees of change evidenced in subjects, the timing of assessment is a vital question. The answer as to when a particular assessment step should be taken only becomes clear when the total treatment process is reviewed. It is frequently too late to make an evaluation of a critical incident at this point. To avoid this impasse the information on the behavior of subjects should be collected on a longitudinal basis. Then it will be possible to determine the nature and degree of change for each subject. The longitudinal record was expected to reveal certain things. For example, certain phases (unfreezing and movement) were expected to be easier to detect on the graphs than the readiness phase (Hypothesis 9). The

longitudinal picture was also expected to reveal the vacillation patterns which Lewin et al. saw as an important part of the change process (Hypothesis 7). Maintaining a longitudinal record is also likely to reveal the time and place where new behaviors (Hypotheses 13 and 16) will appear. All of these hypotheses were supported by the data. Simultaneously it may be possible to determine the "peak action" periods and "concentration levels" of specific techniques by retrospective analysis. There is of course the "sleeper effect" in social phenomenon, and it must certainly be considered in evaluating the planned change efforts.

From a review of the data it would appear that all of the steps in the model were necessary if effective assessment were to take place. The reader may question whether some steps are necessary for particular types of social assessment. The answer to this question may best be determined by building methods of obtaining answers to these questions into the data-collection process.

Problems Encountered in This Study

When a study of this type is attempted, usually many unsettled issues remain. Some of the difficulties encountered in carrying out the study may account for some of these bothersome questions. This was certainly the case in this study, and it is worthwhile reviewing some of them at this point.

Homogeneity of Population

In a study attempting to measure the degree of association between one variable and another there are problems raised if the

subjects are too homogeneous. The method of selecting subjects, while not ideal, led to a highly specialized group. Those referred to the project were a carefully chosen group in need of social treatment as they were unreachable by more conventional methods. They were extremely hostile toward adults, had repeatedly failed when placed in other treatment situations, and were not considered amenable to social treatment. Because of this degree of homogeneity, the measures of association would tend to be low. Despite this problem many of them are significant. Replication of this study with a different population is a most important next step. What was found to be true with a relatively homogeneous group may not be true with a more heterogeneous one. In making judgments about the data the relative homogeneity of the subjects should be kept foremost in mind.

Variety of Behaviors and the Small Number of Subjects

Variety of behavior

This section may appear as a direct contradiction to the above, where it was alleged that the homogeneity factor was depressing the levels of significance of the associational measures. Actually the variety problem came in trying to capture the richness of each subject's behavior in simple and meaningful terms in order to make comparisons between subgroups. For example, the typology developed on the basis of the profile analysis missclassified some subjects. It was not possible to predict the behavior of the Suspicious subject very well at all. This problem is one of knowing what to abstract from the range of presented behaviors so as to know how

the subject might behave in another situation at another time. This of course is a typical assessment problem, and so training was provided to the staff to improve their observing and recording skills. By obtaining a more complete record of behavior it would be possible to find the significant behavior from the total record.

Sample size

The variety problem is further increased by the small sample size of the study. With a small number of subjects it is difficult to separate them into clearly recognizable subgroups if the divisions are going to attenuate the statistical tests. For this reason some of the variety found among the subjects had to be ignored in order to have groups of sufficient size to use certain statistical manipulations. This represented a compromise which was not fully in keeping with the plea made here to develop meaningful typologies.

The variety problem is haunting in another way in that it creates pressure to increase the sample size to have "large enough units" for statistical analysis. This produces a tremendous problem of data collection and reduction in a longitudinal study. The problem is not just a question of handling all of the bits of information, but also making sure that records are completed for every situation. With three or four situations, ten different instruments, and one hundred subjects being assessed, the problems of completing the study become clear. An essential objective of the model was to provide procedures which would reduce the size of the problem yet capture a reasonable amount of variety in the subjects' behavior.

Inadequacy of the Situations Studied

Family and school situation

Family meetings and school programs should have been included, as these areas would have added important information to the assessment picture. Much needs to be learned about the boys' behavior in these rather unique settings. For one thing, the family and school situations would have provided valuable situational tests and "field" evidence to improve the validity of predictions. The way boys acted in the project school might provide rather solid evidence about how they might act in the regular public school. It would be possible, at least, to add these data into the equation in attempting to predict school behavior. Knowing how the boys related to their parents as well as the natural history of evolving changes in the relation because of the therapeutic efforts would have proved most valuable. Unfortunately, due to the incompleteness of the records (school and family meetings were suspended during the summer), these situations could not be included in this analysis.

The "free" situation

A daily log was maintained during the life of the project to capture the informal behavior of the boys. A content analysis of the diary revealed a primary focus on staff behavior to the exclusion of the boys. Since there was no way to relate this information systematically to the ongoing situation in the project, it had to be eliminated. This was an unfortunate loss of information about the

boys in a "free situation," different from the cars, as this "free" behavior might have been very revealing of change.

Inadequacy of assessment period

In order to obtain the most uniform data on all the boys, the study had to be limited to the forty-day period indicated. This was an arbitrary and unfortunate time period, as it turned out, because initial signs of change took so long to appear. For this reason it was not possible to determine a number of important things about the history of the change process; for example:

1. The length of time for change to stabilize in the freezing phase.
2. There are no data available as to what the freezing phase would look like with these subjects.
3. There are no data on the way the terminal process will affect the change picture. Would regression to the previous phase ocur once the terminal process had been initiated, or would entirely new cycles of all phases appear?
4. There was no opportunity to study the long-range view of clients who were declining throughout the life of this assessment period. More time might have indicated whether the decline in the psychograph was part of a cycle or an example of inappropriate treatment for the client.
5. It was not possible to obtain a record of boys who remained the same over an extended period of time. It is important to know if they would start to decline, improve, or remain the same indefinitely. Their hyperstability pattern may reveal a picture of inadequate treatment being applied to bring about change, even though it did not produce deterioration. In the treatment setting it is important to have some awareness of appropriate techniques even if they need to be provided at a higher level of concentration to be effective with a particular type of client.

These are just a few examples of the failings of this study because a limited time span was selected for assessment. At the point when this time unit was selected, it was considered "more than adequate" to present a workable model of the assessment strategy. With hindsight gained from this study, it is obvious that this was an unrealistic view of the task. This failure in judgment is worth noting as it will probably be a typical experience of persons conducting social assessments. There is a certain view of the world which suggests that it is possible to assess change in a very short period of time. The Murray group did one- to three-day occupational assessments, but this is very different from documenting planned change.

Generalizations and Interpretations about the Strategy of Making a Social Assessment

Comments on the Strategy of Social Assessment

Some of these comments below have been alluded to in the remarks about this model and problems encountered in this study. The importance of them to the whole assessment movement suggests that they should be outlined briefly but separately below.

Need for a typology

This has been a repeated theme throughout this thesis. It is worth repeating as it is the one finding that was most consistent here as well as in other studies in the area of social treatment. Without a typology against which the change picture can be evaluated, the resulting data will often prove to be contradictory. Many assessment projects have failed to show change not because the

techniques were inappropriate but due to the inadequacy of the evaluation techniques.

In devising a typology it is obviously necessary to have comprehensive categories to classify all of the subjects adequately. On the other hand, having a typological scheme should not prevent the formation of empirically derived subgroupings for processing the data. These subgroupings can be helpful in making comparative analyses of various types of subjects, but they should be based on empirically derived categories as well as a priori ones. The failure of typological schemes has been one of using phenotypically "homogeneous" groups when in fact they are extremely heterogeneous at the genotypic level.

Need to view behavior as flexible

The highly flexible behavior pattern of many subjects is contrary to the way clients are frequently conceptualized in treatment programs. It is commonly assumed that although subjects are unique they behave consistently across situations. From the experiences with subjects in this project it should be assumed that the activation of these similarities may be a function of the situation.[1] An analysis of the situational constraints and freedoms must be considered in doing any analysis of change behavior. Despite this high degree of behavioral flexibility, subjects tend to have recognizable patterns

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[1]This would appear to be one of the principal weaknesses of the Kelly and Fisk study (1951) in that they failed to categorize their subjects and were unable to do a situational analysis. They reported that it was not possible to obtain a satisfactory job analysis nor to determine the context in which most of their assessees would be functioning.

of behavior which cut across situations. These patterns represent the type of behavioral clusters which the trait psychologists were attempting to analyze and describe. The problem with their methods of approach may have been the failure to see the combinations of trait clusters as propensities which were activated in various ways within specific situations. Once the composition of the cluster is described, then greater prediction about future behavior may follow, when the situational relevance of that behavior is made clear. The detailed discussion of the Skill region in this study (Chapter V) would be an example of a type of cluster analysis.

The data revealed certain behavioral styles in the majority of subjects and typically several very different behaviors for each subject. This perseverative quality of behavior tends to restrict the range of typical responses to any given situation. In some way the situational constraints or freedoms facilitate or inhibit the responses of the subject which leads to shifts to a different cluster of behaviors. The speed at which this change takes place is used as a measure of the lability of the subjects. It is interesting to note that at times subjects played different roles during the day or week. This is another example of the possible situational context influencing the salience of a particular behavior cluster. Detailed analysis of the behavior of subjects who were of a similar type seldom revealed uniformity of behavior. The variety in behavior might have been accounted for by the saliency of a particular pressure on the individual actor in that specific situation. Despite these idiosyncratic behavioral patterns, the subjects were usually recognizable as behaving in a manner consistent with their specific ategory. This problem of high situational lability found in some subjects adds confusion to the assessment picture. In order to compensate

for this factor the lability measure of each subject should be taken before meaningful measures of change can be obtained and future behavior predicted.

Need for micro-units of personality

The typology must be built out of "micro-units" of personality rather than global ones. A serious problem in the holistic assessment approach resides in the possibility that these micro-units may not be adequately considered in developing the typology. It was a weakness of the OSS program that they did not develop a typology, but there was a keen awareness of the need for this step to be taken. Several of their forms required ratings on micro-units (e.g., egocentric motive, emotional stability, energy, etc.) which formed the basis of the overall rating. Even without job descriptions it would have been possible to make empirical groupings of subjects for purposes of data analysis and prediction. The findings reported in this study indicate that this is a necessary step to accomplish if the validity of the holistic assessment procedure is to be established. This means that there are a number of elementalistic ratings which must be accomplished before the final holistic rating of the candidates can be completed. The holistic profiles can then be evaluated against the elementalistic data collected to determine which of the two systems of rating has more relevance and accuracy in describing subjects.

Need for frequent assessment

Frequent assessment is needed in order to measure planned change. When the psychographs were inspected, by individual subject, it was difficult to spot the point when new phases appeared if

there were gaps in the data. This alone indicated the need for frequent assessments. The finding that subjects showed changes from one time period to the next, even in the same situation like the car, adds additional support for frequent assessments in every situation. The Murray group was very much aware of this need as they used the entire time of the candidates' residency for the assessment.

> . . . the adjustment of the individual to this society affected his performance in the various tests, and his performance, of course, affected his adjustment. This was as it should be. Living, doing, behaving, thinking, are not mutually exclusive. As a consequence, the evaluations of the staff combined facts learned from both formal tests and informal living. Frequently the most significant data were the uncontrolled observations of casual deportment before and after one of the carefully standardized tests [1948, p. 221].

The sequence of assessment events

The ordering of assessment events was also a factor in the thinking of the Murray group about the frequency of assessment. The consistent differences found from one time period to the next in the cars, in this project, would be strong confirmation of their intuitive thinking. As reported previously, some subjects were far more quiet in the cars during the pickup in the morning than when they were being transported home. In this case, then, frequency not only refers to every day, but also every time the boys reentered the situation. This has been a major failing of many assessment programs in that data collection has been limited to very short periods out of the total treatment time. As Cronbach (1961) cautioned in his discussion of situational testing, it is necessary to make the behavioral sample large enough to be evaluated intelligently.

When shifts in behavior occur on an irregular basis, it becomes difficult to obtain valid samples with limited assessment periods to substantiate planned change.

Possible distortion to the operation

Frequent assessment may create major distortions in the operations of the project. This was not a problem for Kelly and Fiske, and the Murray group, in that subjects knew they were being assessed. This problem was controlled in this study by having the subjects participate directly in only one rating task while the staff provided the rest of the data. The work rating was the only one in which the boys participated in the review process directly. From their point of view, the only direct assessment procedure which they were conscious of was the work rating. They were keenly aware that their behavior was being evaluated by staff, but they were not burdened with questionnaires or projective or "situational" tests. If this approach is taken, frequent readings on the participants' behavior can be obtained without the change effort being hampered by the assessment procedures.

The importance of annotated comments

It was necessary to examine the annotated comments daily to spot characteristic styles of behavior and to detect phase changes. In many cases the shift in behavior signaling the entrance of subjects into new phases was detectable by a written comment on a particular day. Typically the subject would display new behavior on a specific day. If the subject were being assessed once a week, or even every two weeks, then it would be difficult to determine when this pattern first appeared. The need to know when the

behavior first appeared would help make possible a situational analysis which might give more understanding to the behavior. This is just another example of the need for frequent assessment.

Need for a variety of assessment techniques

A variety of assessment devices are needed to spot subtle changes in behavior pattern that signal the occurrence of change. Again it will be remembered that each one of the situations provided data. It was sometimes important to select data from a variety of methods of reporting on the same behavior (e.g., annotated comments and rating scales) in order to understand the behavior. When the two were compared, there were times when the ratings did not agree. In typical assessment programs the "more stable" ratings would be chosen and the other ignored. This would have been an unfortunate mistake in that both ratings were necessary to describe adequately the behavior of the subjects in the situation. Often the psychographs indicated change in the subjects' behavior, but it was not clear just what the change was. For example, a subject could be rated more positively on the graph, but this does fail to tell whether it was "leadership" or "supportive" behavior that was displayed. In this example, the subject could have been rated higher for doing more problem-solving while at the same time ignoring the group's needs. The method of obtaining this rating, either through "leadership" or "supportive" effort, would be an important diagnostic measure. This example can be looked at in another way and still be instructive. If the subject were rated consistently high in problem-solving behavior, even though he change his role in the group, just reading the graph would indicate no change. If, however, the annotated comments were checked, they might reveal that a major change in role had occurred.

The subject had moved from being supportive of group process on the one hand to taking an active part in shaping the direction of the group's work on the other. If just the graphs had been used "no change" would be demonstrated, but with the comments it would be possible to reveal rather dramatic "change."

Need for a variety of raters

Variety in raters helps give different points of view to the picture that than just compounding the reliability problem.

Rater disagreement

The variations in raters' reports have plagued assessment programs for years. Efforts directed at obtaining the smallest amount of variance in ratings have frequently obscured the value of the unique perceptions of the different rater to "pick up" information missed by another. Differences in ratings which have proved so troublesome may actually reflect real shifts in the subject's behavior from situation to situation. This type of variance should not be overlooked because many subjects actually responded differently with different people in this project. When the graphs were studied, there were very few with the same pattern. The raters did not rate subjects the same because the intensity spread was high on most graphs, but they often were able to agree on the behavior style of the subjects.

Variety of interpersonal experiences

One of the critical factors to be assessed is the ability of the subject to cope with a variety of conditions and people. Having a variety of staff interacting with him in different situations is

important from a therapeutic point of view. It is important to establish the flexibility of the new behavioral style if it is to be functional to the subject. Flexibility is necessary but it is also possible that the new behavioral style may be "too elastic." If new behavior does not persist it may be due to this elastic nature, and then it is important to know when the subject is pushed beyond his limits to cope with a certain type of person (e.g., teachers) and under what conditions (in class). Having this type of knowledge of the flexibility of the behavior can facilitate the prediction of success or failure upon leaving the project.

Limitations of typology

Despite the usefulness of typologies, they can be self-defeating. When the individual patterns of subjects from the same categories are studied, it is clear that even they do not behave exactly the same. One withdrawn subject may vary considerably in the degree of congruence which he displays in his behavior from work to discussion groups. Developing categories should only be seen as a start in the analysis problem. It is sometimes necessary, as with the analysis of skill, to refine the categories even more precisely to arrive at more homogeneous groups in order to interpret the data. This type of discrimination helps to sharpen the precision of the statements that can be made about each subject in terms of predicting his future behavior. From the data presented previously, subclassification of specific categories is an extremely useful approach to making sense out of the data and when attempting comparisons between subjects.

Need to re-examine retrogressive behavior

Retrogressive movement may be an important sign of deep personal involvement in problem-solving behavior. It has been suggested that many concepts of change focus on a linear model. Seldom is recognition given to the fact that the clients may become very upset and hostile toward the change agent when certain aspects of themselves are revealed. Frequently these emotional outbursts are seen as regression and are categorized as "not changing." It can be argued, however, that subjects are coming to grips with issues which have great personal meaning. In Lewin's terms, they are involved in intrapersonal regions that are central to their life space. Data revealed in this study bear on this point. As subjects began to face controversial or upsetting issues, their behavior was rated as more disruptive while simultaneously showing more problem-solving. The saliency of an issue may be judged by the amount of defensive behavior demonstrated to avoid it, such as changing the topic or blocking exploration by others. These findings lend support to the statement that behavior change must include regressive as well as progressive acts as subjects come to grips with important issues.

There are baffling problems in seeing retrogressive movement as an inherent component of change. The complications that arise from this view are several. The outbursts of hostile or disruptive behavior may be due to the inadequacy of the treatment being offered. It is also possible that the treatment may be incorrect and so the subject is being induced into acting out because of what is being done to him. It is a difficult task to distinguish between these two conditions and the real possibility that the acting out

is a part of meaningful change. Because of real disagreements as to which of the three is happening, confidence in staff judgments is often lessened when the "objective" research data indicate the presence of a clear deterioration in subjects' behavior. Seldom is systematic effort undertaken to try to untangle these three questions. If the research conducted along with the change program is not carefully reviewed, the finding that the subject is deteriorating may incorrectly arise from the data. It is imperative to attempt to understand the types of disruptive behavior possible when determining the efficacy of a particular treatment regimen.

Need for prognosis in treatment

There are certain assumptions made about the appropriateness and outcomes of a specific treatment technique when it is being applied to a particular group of clients--the prognosis. The nature and validity of these assumptions have much to do with the results. Medical science has long since recognized the fact that a diagnosis and prognosis was necessary before effective treatment could be applied. This is a clearly understood principle in medical treatment but is less generally applied in social treatment. The tendency is to place subjects with a descriptibe label (e.g., schizophrenic, alcoholic, delinquent) into one group. The group is then viewed as though it were homogeneous and therefore subject to the same general type of treatment and the same outcomes. The disappointing results from this approach to social treatment are obvious.

It might be argued that similar treatment was in fact applied to each subject in this project. Actually very different techniques were applied to different types of subjects in the same situation. A withdrawn subject was drawn out in discussion groups, whereas

the hyperactive subject was quieted down. Both were located in the same social space but the pattern of interaction with each one was tempered by what was known about him.

The same principles of accurate diagnoses for the treatment regimen are equally applicable to making predictions about the clients. It was found that subjects who were highly congruent in behavior were less difficult to predict than subjects who were incongruent from situation to situation.

Need to measure subjects against themselves

The small degree of measurable change made by subjects involved in a planned change program may be due to the lack of an appropriate typology rather than improper techniques. When careful assessment of the degree of change has been completed, frequently the results are considered insignificant. Typically the subjects were measured against each other by totaling scores to determine average movement, resulting in little sign of change. If each subject is measured against himself, rather than his group, change can frequently be detected. For example, the patterns of the withdrawn subjects were not expected to be congruent in different situations, nor was the degree of similarity among subjects expected to be high. If all withdrawn subjects were compared to each other, the differences between them might cancel each other out, indicating little or no total change. Developing a typology and a predictive profile as to how subjects will be expected to range in their behavior within the category can help untangle this problem.

Need to specify spectrum of treatment technique

The specificity of intervention techniques is not given but is treated as though they were broad spectrum in effect. This is one of the most serious assumptions frequently made about social treatment techniques. From the data revealed in this work it is clear that subjects were behaving very differently when placed within the same social situation. One of the implications to be drawn is that in order to cope with the variety of behavioral outputs different approaches should have been used to deal appropriately with the behavior. This statement may fly in the face of what is "fair." Unfortunately, equal treatment is often accorded subjects in an attempt to be "fair" rather than making an effort to meet specific therapeutic needs. This is a common mistake which comes about because the clients are seen as "being the same." Once again, a typology would help pull the treatment efforts out of this senseless trap.

Frequently variations in treatment techniques are applied to different subjects, but this is often done not because the type of subjects involved is known and the spectrum of the technique is understood. Typically, the variation is an idiosyncratic one based on chance rather than a systematic response to the client's particular needs. For this reason all-encompassing terms like "group therapy" are not helpful because they do not specify the duration, nature of the activity, nor the type of appropriate subjects to be dealt with by the technique. As long as these details are unknown, the appropriateness of the treatment likewise remains unknown.

Even when the degree of specificity of the technique is given, there needs to be much more work done to determine how long it

takes for specific approaches to be maximally effective. Subjects' responses to the project differed widely, with the majority not showing change in their behavior until the fourth week. The range was from two to five weeks. When the range of the response is so wide, difficulties arise in measuring the effectiveness of the technique.

Summary of Significant Findings

The following list of findings, previously discussed, are included at this point to integrate this study. It is hoped that the reader will find it useful in coming to understand the possible contributions of social assessment.

1. Some subjects tended to respond to situations by being consistent across situations (congruent), whereas others were very inconsistent (labile), and a third group could not be so characterized and were called mixed.

2. Rating scales and anecdotal comments were both important in recording the subjects' behavior. The annotated comments were often helpful in explaining the rating.

3. Subjects should be rated in each situation and for every period in the day. Shifts were found in the subjects' behavior from situation to situation as well as through time (e.g., in the cars).

4. Subjects who had high interpersonal skills were not active in the discussion groups. In fact, they seem to have held back from taking a major role in the group.

5. When a carefully worked out expected change behavior pattern was applied to the observed behavior of the subject, much more sense could be derived from the records.

6. The expected change behavior pattern had to be based on micro-units of behavior derived from a target region analysis.

7. It was possible to derive impressions of the phases of change from the records of the subjects if both the graphs and annotated comments were studied.

8. Detailed examinations of the graphs revealed some of the ways subjects changed when situational similarity, intensity spread, vacillation, pattern stability, and the like were sought.

9. The conditions which facilitated change in subjects are not necessarily the place where the greatest amount of change effort is supposed to take place. A relatively large number of subjects first showed change in the cars as opposed to the discussion groups or work situation which were designed to promote behavior change.

10. A long time period needs to be established to detect change in highly resistant subjects, and the data must be collected daily in order to be able to spot some of the changes taking place.

11. Each subject must be compared agains his own base line in attempting to validate change, rather than against other subjects who may or may not be like him.

12. Differences in rating may reflect the variety of behavior being displayed by the subjects rather than rater error.

In conclusion, this study has pointed to a number of important issues in the field of assessment for further investigation. The need for active work on typologies, specification of treatment techniques, and the need for longitudinal study are clear. We certainly hope that these findings will be a stimulus to continue the work of social assessment outlined above.

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APPENDIX

	(6)	(6)
	(7)	(7)
	(5)	(6)
	(8)	(9)
	(11)	(12)

Contacted parent(s)? Yes____ No____ Initiator____ Contacted____

Behaviors targeted:

Which level of cpy was:

Hostile toward others____	Initiated to adults more often to peers____
Withdrawn____	Generating hostility in others____
Crying____	Destructive or aggressive____
Picked on by others____	Rule enforcers____
Ignored by others____	Mediators____
Attempting to avoid adults____	Reprimanded by adults or driver____

Other info:

BY:

Transportation Rating Sheet-by Subject Form #2

Time: _____ Destination: _____ Coder __ Case #__

		1 1 1 1 1 5 6 7 8 9	2 2 2 2 2 2 3 4 5 6	2 3 0 0 0 9 0 1 2 3	0 0 0 0 1 6 7 8 9 0	1 1 1 1 1 3 4 5 6 7	2 2 2 2 2 0 1 2 3 4	2 2 2 3 3 7 8 9 0 1	0 0 0 0 0 3 4 5 6 7
Date									
Number of clients in car		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Interaction									
None		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
S. Maj		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
SNI		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
SIU		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
All		---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------
Attitude and Behavior									
Hos	0	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Wid	1	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
OEx	2	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Pic	3	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Sup	4	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Pro	5	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
OrA	6	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
HosA	7	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
D/A	8	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
RuE	9	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Rpd	-	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Med	X	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------
Contagion									
None		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
SInt		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
S Cont.		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Cont S		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Cont NAS		---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------
Conversation									
None		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
S Ment		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
S Not Ment		---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------
Driver (*if others in car)		- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -

DATE OF MEETING: _____ GROUP: _____

DATE OF RATING: _____ RATER: _____

Group Process Summary Sheet:

In the following lines jot down phrases summarizing and describing the nature of the major content of the total group interaction during the meeting. Try to be as faithful to actual sequence as possible. Number each theme.

Major Content Themes

In the following lines write in opposite each theme, topic, or major interaction sequence brief phrases which summarize your interpretation of the process significance, i.e., the latent process theme for each content theme. Avoid interpretations for specific individuals. Connect each set of phrases to the appropriate content theme by using the same numbering system.

Process significance, latent process themes

Leader Intervention Summary Sheet:

In the following lines jot down phrases summarizing the content of your contributions to the meeting: Topics introduced by you (as opposed to those initiated by the members), nature and content of your responses to member content, and your interventions in process. Again, list chronologically and number.

Intervention Content Themes

In the following lines jot down opposite each intervention theme phrases summarizing the basis for your intervention decisions: Your assessments of gains to be made from your intervention, the goal you were attempting to reach, and any evaluation of success, outcome, resultant process. Connect each decision summary to the appropriate content theme by using the same number.

Process Intervention Decisions--basis, goal, outcome, evaluation.

Group Membership

Fill in names of group members next to numbers. Use these numbers to refer to these individuals in the following ratings.

0. Group leader: _____ X. Group leader: _____

1. _____ 4. _____ 7. _____

2. _____ 5. _____ 8. _____

3. _____ 6. _____ 9. _____

1. Using definitions of problem solving work and problem avoiding effort given, rank order each group member on the following scale. No ties are permitted. Place numbers of group members on appropriate lines. Rank each member once only.

Zone 1	most _____ _____ _____ _____ least _____ _____		Behavior during meeting showed predominance of problem solving work
Zone 2	most _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ least _____		Behavior during meeting indicated more problem solving work than problem avoiding effort
Zone 3	least _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ most _____		Behavior during meeting indicated more problem avoidance than problem solving work
Zone 4	least _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ most _____		Behavior during meeting showed predominance of problem avoiding effort

2. In this scale list each member's number next to the level of problem solving work he or she accomplished in the meeting. Judgments should be based on the most characteristic or significant of the member's total activity.

Group Member Number	Level of accomplishment
_____	a) No problem solving work attempted.
_____	b) No problem solving work accomplished, member escaped, withdrew after attempt, did not follow through himself.
_____	c) No problem solving work accomplished, member attempt cut off, ignored, rejected by other members; withdrew.
_____	d) Continued attempts at work made, no significant work accomplished by group process because of blockage (in self or others) to successful progress to next level.
_____	e) Information about problem presented or collected--significant admission of problem but failure to move to clarification or problem definition.
_____	f) Definition of problem searched for, clarified; interpretations, meanings explored.
_____	g) Alternative problem resolutions collected, presented. Significant recognition of existance of alternatives but failure to evaluate same, to explore implications, meanings, etc.
_____	h) Evaluation of alternatives; implications, meanings, explored; clarification of action implications.
_____	i) Affect expression re. resolution alternatives; signs of internal, emotional acceptance or rejection of alternatives and implications (including current symptom); must follow evaluation. This is not affect expression about information about problem.
_____	j) Problem resolution; insight, action commitment to "better" behavioral, perceptual or affectual coping with problem.

3. Using definitions of problem solving support given to others and problem solving work disruption rank order each group member on the following scale. No ties are permitted. Place numbers of group members on appropriate lines. Rank each member only once.

	_____	
	most _____	
Zone 1	_____	Behavior showed predominance of problem solving support given to others
	_____	
	least _____	
	_____	

	_____	
	most _____	
Zone 2	_____	Behavior indicated more problem solving support than problem solving work disruption
	_____	
	least	
	_____	
	_____	

	_____	
	least _____	
Zone 3	_____	Behavior indicated more problem solving work disruption than problem solving support
	_____	
	most _____	
	_____	

	_____	
	least _____	
Zone 4	_____	Behavior showed predominance of problem solving work disruption
	_____	
	most _____	
	_____	

---

4. For each member, summarize briefly the nature of his interactions and describe his behavior in the meeting.

Member Number	Interaction and behavior
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	
9.	

Centrality:

5. Considering the total activity, verbal and non-verbal of each member during the meeting, place a 1 in the category most characteristic of the member in this meeting, a 2 in the category next most typical and a 3 in the 3rd most typical category. If all of a member's behavior can be described by one category, use only a 1 rating. If two categories are sufficient, use only 1 & 2 ratings. Process here is considered to be any ongoing activity of the group at a particular moment in time.

Ordering of each member's total acts at various levels of centrality:

Centrality Levels

Leaders — Members

X	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
											a) Central to ongoing process; without his(her) action, attention, etc. process direction would have been quite different.
											b) Major interactor; carried process along. withdrawal or attempt by him(her) to change direction could have affected process.
											c) Minor contributor; withdrawal or change attempt by him(her) probably would not have affected process.
											d) Non-contributor, withdrawn; change attempts rejected, ignored; passive non-actor in process.
											e) Counter contributor; actions directed toward pulling group out of ongoing process in another direction (positive or negative).

6. Attraction to group: Considering total activity of each member during the meeting, distribute the behavior of each into the following categories. Use the same ordering system as in question 5.

Ordering of total acts of each member at various levels of attraction											Levels of attraction
Leaders		Members									
X	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
											a) High attraction; displayed behavior indicating strong positive relation to other member(s); to group process; or to benefits to be derived from being in meeting at that point in time.
											b) Moderate attraction; behavior indicating some positive relation to other member(s), process, or benefits.
											c) Weak attraction; behavior indicating positive gains from being in meeting at that time only slightly outweighed negative aspects.
											d) Weak rejection; behavior indicating negative aspects of being in meeting--relations to other member(s), on going process; lack of benefit or presence of discomforture--slightly outweighed positive aspects.
											e) Moderate rejection; behavior indicating some negative relation to other member(s), process, or benefits; moderate attempts to escape from field.
											f) Strong rejection; behavior indicating strong negative relation to other group member(s), process, or disadvantages, distress, etc. derived from being in meeting at that point; major escape from field attempts.

7. Acceptance by the Group

Considering total activity of each member, distribute his (her) activity into the following categories. Use same ordering system as in Question 5.

Percentage of each member's activity falling in each level of acceptance by others.

Level of acceptance by group

Members

Leaders

X	O	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
											a) High acceptance; member's attempts to change process accepted and followed up by others; contributions to on going process supported, carried on; behavior contaged to others.
											b) Moderate acceptance; contributions attended to, partially supported or carried on; recognition of change attempts, some follow up; minor contagion.
											c) Minor acceptance; contributions accepted but not followed up, minimal support; minimal recognition of change attempts, minimal response; not contaged from.
											d) Minor rejection; contributions ignored but not cut off; process change attempts ignored, not responded to.
											e) Moderate rejection; contributions cut off; process change attempts rejected but not with hostility.
											f) High rejection; contributions produced negative feedback; process change attempts rejected, hostility present; behavior criticized, laughed at (not with), taunted, picked on, etc.

8. Relation to leader role: Considering total range of behavior, distributes each member's behavior during the meeting into the following categories. Please note that we are not concerned here with liking for the leader as an individual; we are concerned with how members related to leader role during the meeting. Use same ordering system as in Question 5.

Ordering of total acts of each member at various levels of relationship.

Members

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Levels of Relationship
									a) Behaviors exhibiting over dependence on leader as authority figure or expert; unquestioning acceptance of influence, interpretation, direction of process; dependence on leader to set limits, define tasks, to take responsibility for control of the members' behavior in meetings; acting out or up when not controlled by adult; or, complete failure to work when not forced by leader.
									b) Behavior exhibiting trust of leader's motives, assessments, concern; acceptance of legitimate expertese but search for own relevance to self; ability to relate to authority positively but to control own behavior; create own insight.
									c) Behavior exhibiting testing of leader's motives, concern, legitimacy; ambivalence toward insight, interpretations; ambivalent relation to authority both in seeking and rejecting of control, help, etc.
									d) Behaviors exhibiting hostility to and distrust of leader, classification of "one of them," rejection of "good Joe" and "authority" or "expertize" role; rejection of control, interpretation, insight; denial of need, help offered, etc: barely veiled aggression toward leader.
									e) Behavior indicating withdrawal from any relationship; neither negative nor positive; accepts nor rejects; refusal to confront or respond to leader directly, either as expert, authority, controller or helper.
									f) Behaviors exhibiting acceptance of "good Joe" role only; rejection of legitimate expertness, authority, control; seeking acceptance for free reign of impulses, self-gratification.

Daily Person/Group Ratings Form #1

Dis. Group #___

Date	1 1 1 1 1 5 6 7 8 9	2 2 2 2 2 2 3 4 5 6	2 3 0 0 0 9 0 1 2 3	0 0 0 0 1 6 7 8 9 0	1 1 1 1 1 3 4 5 6 7	2 2 2 2 2 0 1 2 3 4	2 2 2 2 3 7 8 9 0 1
	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Low Date	1 1 1 1 1 5 6 7 8 9	2 2 2 2 2 2 3 4 5 6	2 3 0 0 0 9 0 1 2 3	0 0 0 0 1 6 7 8 9 0	1 1 1 1 1 3 4 5 6 7	2 2 2 2 2 0 1 2 3 4	2 2 2 2 3 7 8 9 0 1
Number of Cliert on Chart	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -

Alert=Alt	Avoidance=Avo	Flat Affect=Fla	Manipulative=Man	Supportive=Sup
Anxious=Anx	Appropriate=App	Hostile=Hos	Nervous/Tense= N/T	Uncomfortable=Unc
Aggitate=Agt	Clowning=Clo	Hyperactive=Hyp	Provoking=Pro	Withdrawn=Wid
Aggressive=Agg	Cooperative=Coo	Impulsive=Imp	Quiet=Qui	
Attentive=Att	Disruptive=Dis	Leader Role=LRo	Rejecting=Rej	

Discussion Group Work Group Discussion Group Movement Work Group Movement

NAME: CASE NO:

DATE: SITUATION:

BY:

SKILLS:

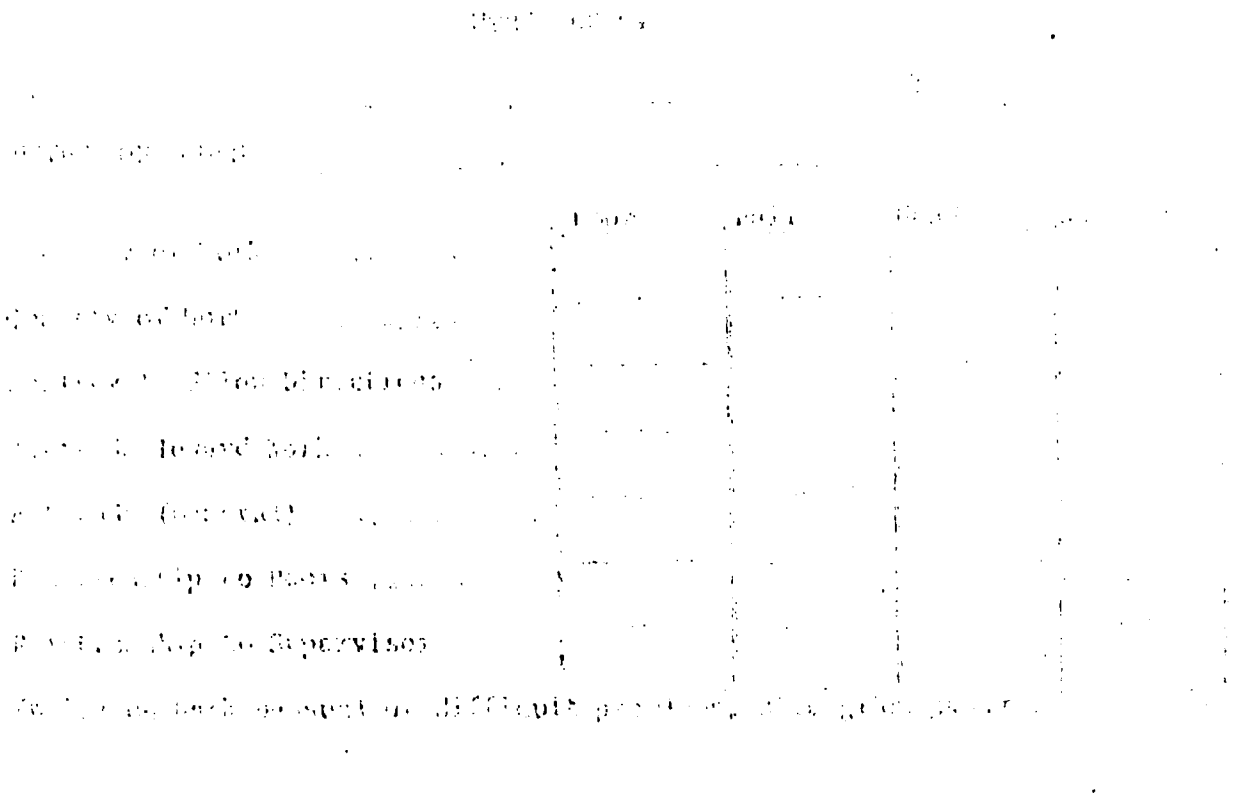
LOVE:

AFFECT:

HOSTILITY:

CONTROL:

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:



WORK REPORT

GROUP K

Group A

SUPERVISOR:	M. R.
PRESENT:	G, S, M, W, T, Mc
ABSENT:	J (sick)
WORK SITE:	F Park
*TYPE OF WORK:	Moving picnic tables and thoroughly cleaning same.
WEATHER:	23°, clear, no wind.
*Noted:	The tables were difficult to clean because of caked ice and mud frozen on the legs. They put forth a good effort.
QUANTITY:	Sufficient by Comparison.
QUALITY:	Good

INDIVIDUALS:

G	Worked better today showing more interest in his work representative duties. His affect was high and he responded to all that was asked of him.
S	Worked well but was very hostile toward Mc. Richard felt he should be docked for goofing off. Mc told S to "kiss his ass" and Richard became very sarcastic. If supervisor would not have stepped in they would have slugged it out.
M	Worked well. His affect was better today and I would say the depression has lifted somewhat but I still see tones of it. He was communicative.
W	A bit belligerent, today. He did work but it was mediocre. Affect was low. He made a comment that his mother might lose her leg due to infection. He said it was if he were losing a penny.
T	I have noticed a remarkable transition in this boy. He smiles, he is not quick to judge, nor does he fly off the handle. His surliness is gone. He seems completely accepted by the group as a whole. His work has been consistent when asked to work.
Mc	There is something very heavy on Norman's thoughts. He said he was sick but he did work. At first it was because he didn't want to work. S's outburst was a real decider about if he would work. He did in silence. No affect whatsoever. His work was also negative and he talked to no one.

WEEK ENDING: _____ AGENT _____ RATER _____

	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
High					
Low					
Absence					

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____

Group Rating by Subject Form 3a

Dis. Group #___ Coder __ Case #___

Date	11151	11162	11173	11184	11195	12026	12037	12048	12059	12060	23091	30012	00023	00064	00075	00086	00097	00108	11139	11140	11151	11162	11173	22010	22021	22032	22043	22054	22077	22088	23099	23010	23021	00033	00044	00055	00066	00077
Level of Accomplishment																																						
None Attempted	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
None Accomplished	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
None acc. cut off	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Continued Efforts	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Information	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
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Alternatives	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Evaluation	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
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Problem Solving Support/Disruption																																						
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Centrality Level																																						
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Major Int	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
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Date	11151	11162	11173	11184	11195	12026	12037	12048	12059	12060	23091	30012	00023	00064	00075	00086	00097	00108	11139	11140	11151	11162	11173	22010	22021	22032	22043	22054	22077	22088	23099	23010	23021	00033	00044	00055	00066	00077
Clients number on form	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
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Group Rating by Subject Form 3b

Dis. Group #_____ Coder__ Case #____

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Level of Attraction to Group								
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Mod A	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - =
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High R	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------
Level of Acceptance by Group								
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High R	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------	---------
Levels of Relationship to leader (role)								
Over Dep	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Trust	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Testing	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
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Date	5 6 7 8 9	2 3 4 5 6	9 0 1 2 3	6 7 8 9 0	3 4 5 6 7	0 1 2 3 4	7 8 9 0 1	3 4 5 6 7
Subject number on form.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
(*omitted rating)	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -

Key to Symbols + = predominant ∮ = secondary = = Equal

Chart I

Phase of Change for Personality Types

Expected Change Pattern

Presenting: Behavior	Readiness	Unfreezing	Movement	Freezing	Characteristics of Group	Group Number
Indifferent	Superficial niceness	Decreased niceness Increased affective expression	Balanced nice/bad	More situationally oriented toward nice/bad behavior	High situational similarity, low intensity, congruent, labile	1
Frozen	Cold and hostile	Increased hostility	Decreased hostility Increased affective expression	Situationally balanced relatively low affect (placid)	Low situational similarity, medium high intensity, incongruent, labile	2
Rejecting	Very limited acceptance	Increased acceptance	Balanced acceptancy rejection	More situationally oriented as to behavior displayed	High situational similarity, low intensity, congruent, labile	3
Defiant	Erratically defiant	Increased erratic shifts-limited cooperation	Modified erratic shifts-more cooperation	Fluctuating easily wants to resist things when 1st suggested-gives in	Low situational similarity, medium high intensity, incongruent, labile	4
Withdrawn	Very limited interaction	Increased interaction spontaneously	Increased affective expression with interaction increase	Affective expression remains low interaction becomes moderate	Medium situational similarity, medium high intensity, mixed incongruent, labile	5
Hyperactive	Hyperactive	Hyperactive or may swing into markedly Hypoactive P	Normal or Hyperactive	Hyperactive, facile affective expression but more controlled and appropriate to situation	Low situational similarity, low intensity, congruent, labile	6

Chart I
(continued)

Presenting:

Behavior	Readiness	Unfreezing	Movement	Freezing	Characteristics of Group	Group Number
Suspicious	Hostile feelings will start to come out directly towards adults. Negative in his behavior. Wants to know why about everything.	Hostility will be revealed more quickly. Likely to see treatment of him as different. Questions the why of things. Expresses his fears.	Will put self checks on his behavior. Will ask why and then answer his own questions. Still feels he is being treated differently.	Reluctant to get involved in things until the direction and purpose are clear. Openly checks his own suspicious inquiry into the cause of things. Will be inquiring but without paranoidal flavor.	High situational similarity, medium high intensity, incongruent, labile.	7
Testing	Testing situation. Tentative opening up. Orienting moves.	Pronounced testing, provoking. Has paranoidal flavor.	More introspective. Testing present and accepting of limits. Sees self in the situation.	Projection present but can be really introspective about own behavior. Tests in new situations. Sees own behavior clearly.	High situational similarity, low intensity, congruent, stable.	8
Lazy	Indifferent to being asked to do things. Does not see why he has to. Very poor performance when he does. It is clear that he can do better but just does not. Great deal of hostility hidden by indifference.	Will slowly become involved in the task. Does a poor job because he does not follow through on what he does. It is clear that he understands but does not think the effort is worth it. Puts forth some occassionally.	Last one to get started but then will attempt to finish things. The work not often good but improvement substantial. He will point to improvement rather than absolute standard of what others have done as proof of effort on his part.	Noticeable increase in his work skills. He is starting to get positive feedback from his efforts which makes a difference to him. Points out his work in comparison to others. More open and willing to interact, yet still rather low in output.	Low situational similarity, medium high intensity, incongruent, labile.	9

Chart I
(continued)

Presenting: Behavior	Readiness	Unfreezing	Movement	Freezing	Characteristics of Group	Group Number
Too Open	Active seeking out peer and adult support. Can be supportive of others. High dependency on others High anxiety about his role	Slavish following of group mood swings. Reveals hostility in clowning and group pleasing behavior. High dependency on others for support. High anxiety about role in group.	Clarity about real place in group. Independence from group. Variety in roles played in group. Anxiety about role persists.	More autonomous from group but uses group as a clear referent for behavior. Lessened anxiety about role. More revelations of self. Role repertoire expanded.	Low situational similarity, medium high intensity, incongruent, stable.	10