THE BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION

John E. Oliver

The concept of individual differences can be one of the most interesting and stimulating topics in the study of human resource management. Sometimes, however, people who are studying this concept do not receive an in-depth understanding of personality traits or they are not impressed with the importance of personality differences in personnel-placement decisions, communication, motivation, and other efforts to create effective organizations. Using a personality inventory is one way to raise their interest and involvement, which in turn lead to greater understanding.

Because many personality inventories are expensive and take a great deal of time to administer, score, and interpret, a short, quickly scored, and easily explained instrument (the Behavior Description) was designed as a focus for discussing individual personality traits and related subjects.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSTRUMENT

The theory of Marston (1928), which is similar to that of Emery and Ackoff (1972) in dealing with the response of a person to environmental stimuli, was used to create this instrument. The resulting four behavioral traits may be viewed in combination to illustrate various kinds of behaviors that may affect job performance and communication. Marston labeled the traits *dominance*, *inducement*, *submissiveness*, and *compliance*. Some other authors have relabeled the traits to make them more acceptable in modern times in teaching managers, personnel professionals, sales people, and others to analyze behavior when trying to improve job performance and interpersonal relations. For example, Merrill and Reid (1981) call them *driver*, *expressive, amiable*, and *analytical*. The traits are also included among the 17,953 identified by Allport and Odbert (1936) and are similar to some of the sixteen source traits pinned down by Cattell (1973).

The Behavior Description refers to these traits as *dominance*, *extroversion*, *stability,* and *control.* Implicitly, these labels suggest four continuums as did Cattell's: dominant-submissive, extrovert-introvert, stable-unstable, and controlled-independent. This article presents the Behavior Description and its underlying theory; analyzes the reliability, validity, and meaning of scores on the Behavior Description; and discusses the use of the instrument in teaching or training settings.

THE INSTRUMENT

Format

The Behavior Description contains sixteen items. Each item is a group of three adjectives that describe behaviors associated with the four source traits. For example, the words “polished,” “diplomatic,” “enthusiastic,” and “popular” are found in items one, nine, two, and ten and represent behaviors associated with extroversion. The respondent is asked to rank the words by assigning a weight of three to the word that best describes himself or herself, a weight of one to the least descriptive word, and a weight of two to the remaining word.

Scoring

A score is computed on each of the four traits. The scores are computed by transferring the numerical rankings of the words from the instrument to the scoring sheet and totaling the numbers in each column on the scoring sheet. Thus, the *dominance* score will be the total of all the numbers assigned to the twelve words that describe dominant behavior. The three remaining scores are computed similarly. The scores are then plotted on the graph so that combinations and patterns of traits can be seen and discussed.

Composition of Normative Sample

Data gathered for analyzing the instrument were taken from 220 respondents in classrooms and work places. Included in this normative sample were undergraduate and graduate students;, members of a chapter of the American Society for Personnel Administration; accountants; teachers; social workers; engineers; salespeople; clerical workers; postal employees; nurses; technicians; therapists; investigators; analysts; chemists; architects; planners; negotiators; pilots; navigators; and managers from manufacturing, banking, military, government, hospital, police, laboratory, and sales organizations. Male and female respondents were about equal in number.

Reliability and Validity

Descriptive statistics from the samples are shown in Table 1. The internal consistency of scores as indicated by coefficient alpha averaged .59, and test-retest reliability averaged .66.

The scale intercorrelations in Table 2 indicate some relationships between scales. For instance, dominance is positively related to extroversion and negatively related to control. In other words, individuals who score high on dominance would also tend to score high on extroversion and lower on control, whereas those scoring low on dominance might be expected to score low on extroversion and higher on control.

Construct validity of the theory and the items was established by correlating each of the adjectives with the four total scores. Adjectives that were chosen to represent each behavior correlated positively (in the range of .2 to .5) with the total score that represented its related construct and correlated negatively with (or were unrelated to) the other construct scores. For example, the correlation between the word "adventurous" and the dominance score was .28, whereas its correlations with the extroversion, stability, and control scores were –.01, –.21, and –.08, respectively. External validity of the Behavior Description would require correlation between test scores and actual behaviors. Such data are not available at this time.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics (N = 220)

	Dominance	Extroversion	Stability	Control
Possible Range	12-36	12-36	12-36	12-36
Actual Range	14-34	13-33	13-35	16-34
Mean	23.7	22.8	24.8	24.6
Standard Deviation	4.1	4.0	3.7	3.6
Standard Error	.3	.3	.2	.2
Coefficient Alpha*	.63	.65	.54	.54
Test-Retest*	.73	.64	.72	.56

*Significant at p <.001; n = 41.

Table 2. Scale Intercorrelations

	Extroversion	Stability	Control
Dominance	.43	.26	−.41
Extroversion		.25	−.38
Stability			.01

Interpretation

The four interpretation sheets, which follow the scoring sheet, show the relative strengths of each adjective according to the percentage of people in the sample who assigned a maximum value to the adjective. Because appropriateness of behavior is relative to the situation in which the behavior occurs, the same behaviors that appear to be positive and successful in one situation may appear negative or inappropriate in another situation. The right-hand column on the interpretation sheets gives negative interpretations of the adjectives that are in the left-hand column.

The theory for the Behavior Description is built on the assumption that most people tend to describe themselves and to behave in relatively fixed styles. In other words, the ability to adapt one's own behavior to changing circumstances is a personality trait that is more or less normally distributed in the general population. Individuals who score

very high or very low on a given scale will probably show less flexibility in changing that behavior. Those who score about average on all four scales could be expected to show more behavioral flexibility.

ADMINISTERING THE BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION

After the respondents have completed the instrument, they should be given the theory associated with the Behavior Description, including an explanation of the four basic traits. Then they should be asked to predict their own scores. After the scoring process, the interpretation sheets should be distributed to the respondents, and the facilitator should be available to help with interpreting the scores. Scores can be posted, and the respondents should be asked to discuss both the process and the results.

The person administering the instrument could also lead a discussion on the measurement levels, normal distribution, reliability, and validity. Such a discussion would help the respondents to assess the value of the self-description provided by the instrument. Other appropriate topics for discussion are the pitfalls of using information provided by instruments that measure traits poorly and Stagner's (1958) classic article, "The Gullibility of Personnel Managers." These topics can generate a high degree of interest.

Other Discussion Topics

Combinations of the traits can be observed in the graph of the scores and may lead to stimulating discussions and insights into the behaviors of the respondents and their acquaintances or coworkers. The pattern-association sheet, which follows the interpretation sheets, lists behaviors that are associated with various patterns of scores. The greater the spread between two scores, the greater is the probability that the behavior will be exhibited and the lower is the likelihood that opposite traits will be exhibited. Respondents could be asked to judge the validity of the Behavior Description by relating "what I am" and "what I am not" (opposite traits) to behavioral incidents they can recall.

The Johari Window concept developed by Luft and Ingham (Luft, 1970) is useful in discussing how the Behavior Description can help in differentiating between self-images and perceptions by others. The Behavior Description opens one pane of the Johari Window by allowing the respondents to describe themselves as they believe they are. These self-descriptions may or may not match perceptions by others and may or may not be accurate descriptions of actual behavior.

An interesting question for discussion is whether individuals might be expected to behave at all times in a manner indicated by their Behavior Descriptions. This type of discussion might include topics such as situational variables, changing values and goals, and role theory.

If role theory is discussed, respondents might focus on the limiting effect that self-image has on the variety of roles a person can play. It is easier to play a role that requires only a slight adjustment in behavior than a role opposite from one's self-image.

Respondents may be asked how their described behavior might affect their success as managers (or some other position). They may say, for example, that as a decision maker a dominant individual would act before gathering enough information, the extrovert would choose popular alternatives, the stable person might debate too long, and the control person would avoid taking risks. Or looking at the strengths of each type, they might suggest that the dominant person would be able to overcome obstacles in reaching a decision, the extrovert would excel in interpersonal relations, a stable individual would give due consideration to a problem, and the control person would minimize the risks.

BEHAVIORAL STYLES AND ROLE STRESS

If organizations would place employees in roles that suit their natural behavioral styles, not only would the employees be more satisfied and possibly more successful, but the organization could be more effective. The stress that is created by playing roles that do not match one's self-image may exact both a physical and emotional toll. Congruence between personality and role would reduce some types of role stress and thereby reduce physical and emotional illness in the work place. However, the Behavior Description measures only the self-perception and not a person's actual behavioral style. Valid descriptions of actual behaviors would be needed to match individuals to jobs that require them to act in their most natural ways.

Knowledge of the differences in individuals' personality traits can be used to create more effective organizations by improving communication, motivation, personnel placement, assignment of problems, and the structure of the organization and groups within the organization. Nevertheless, before personality differences can be used in making assignments, they must be reliably measured and their importance must be properly weighed in the decision process. In placement decisions, for instance, differences in specific skills, knowledge, abilities, intelligence, commitment, and motivation may outweigh personality differences and may far outweigh the self-perceived traits in the Behavior Description.

CONCLUSION

Awareness of individual behavioral traits, such as those included in the Behavior Description, is helpful to managers or potential managers because it can be used to help understand people in organizations, to improve communications and motivation, and to aid in understanding placement decisions. Therefore, the Behavior Description is useful as a learning device. It was not, however, designed for use in counseling, career development, or job placement. Therefore, care should be taken not to misuse it.

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BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION

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Instructions: For each of the following groups of three terms, place a "3" by the term that describes you best, "1" by the term that least describes you, and a "2" by the remaining term.

1. a. Adventurous _____
   b. Polished _____
   c. Stable _____

2. a. Receptive _____
   b. Determined _____
   c. Enthusiastic _____

3. a. Steady _____
   b. Exacting _____
   c. Original _____

4. a. Poised _____
   b. Patient _____
   c. Orderly _____

5. a. Forceful _____
   b. Persuasive _____
   c. Settled _____

6. a. Cautious _____
   b. Bold _____
   c. Outgoing _____

7. a. Persistent _____
   b. Cooperative _____
   c. Brave _____

8. a. Attractive _____
   b. Controlled _____
   c. Correct _____

9. a. Competitive _____
   b. Diplomatic _____
   c. Accommodating _____

10. a. Careful _____
    b. Decisive _____
    c. Popular _____

11. a. Dependable _____
    b. Accurate _____
    c. Inventive _____

12. a. Convincing _____
    b. Consistent _____
    c. Open minded _____

13. a. Positive _____
    b. Cordial _____
    c. Even tempered _____

14. a. Conservative _____
    b. Eager _____
    c. Entertaining _____

15. a. Amiable _____
    b. Systematic _____
    c. Self-reliant _____

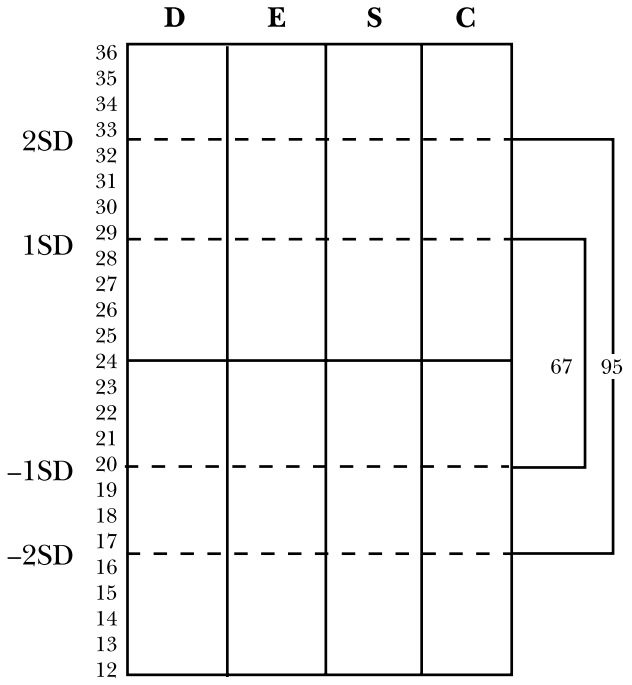
16. a. Sociable _____
    b. Unhurried _____
    c. Precise _____

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Enter your scores from the Behavior Description form in the spaces below. Then add the scores in each column and enter the total for the column in the space provided.

BEHAVIOR

Dominance	Extroversion	Stability	Control
1a _____	1b _____	1c _____	2a _____
2b _____	2c _____	3a _____	3b _____
3c _____	4a _____	4b _____	4c _____
5a _____	5b _____	5c _____	6a _____
6b _____	6c _____	7a _____	7b _____
7c _____	8a _____	8b _____	8c _____
9a _____	9b _____	9c _____	10a _____
10b _____	10c _____	11a _____	11b _____
11c _____	12a _____	12b _____	12c _____
13a _____	13b _____	13c _____	14a _____
14b _____	14c _____	15a _____	15b _____
15c _____	16a _____	16b _____	16c _____
Total _____	*Total* _____	*Total* _____	*Total* _____



Notes:

1. The horizontal line in the middle of the graph represents the means or average scores in the normative sample.
2. Sixty-seven percent of the population is expected to score between ± 1 standard deviation (SD) from the mean.
3. Ninety-five percent of the population is expected to score between ± 2 SD from the mean.
4. Scores outside ± 2 SD are rare, indicating extreme preferences.

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION INTERPRETATION SHEET NO. 1

Dominants

Positive Description	*% Selecting*	*Negative Description*[1]
Brave	19	Reckless
Inventive	19	Inflexible
Bold	21	Brash
Forceful	23	Pushy
Determined	29	Stubborn
Decisive	30	Overbearing
Eager	35	Overly eager
Adventurous	37	Too risky
Original	44	Dissatisfied
Competitive	46	Overly competitive
Positive	51	Reckless
Self-reliant	52	Too independent

Dominants do *not* describe themselves as sociable, stable, patient, accurate, systematic, receptive, steady, accommodating, or cooperative. An individual scoring extremely high in dominance may be seen by others either as a forceful, dynamic leader or as a belligerent troublemaker, depending on the circumstances.

Positive adjectives that might be applied to a person scoring relatively *low* on the dominance scale include mild-mannered, conservative, peaceful, modest, nice, and cautious. Negative adjectives would include timid, hesitant, unsure, and fearful. An individual who scores extremely low on the dominance scale might be seen by others as a cooperative team player or as weak and self-deprecating, depending on the situation.

[1] Possible negative interpretation of the behavior when it is inappropriate for the situation.

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION INTERPRETATION SHEET NO. 2

Extroverts

Positive Description	*% Selecting*	*Negative Description*[2]
Poised	15	Inattentive
Attractive	16	Flashy
Persuasive	20	Too talkative
Popular	21	Time wasting
Polished	22	Too slick
Convincing	23	Inclined to oversell
Sociable	31	Flighty
Diplomatic	31	Wordy
Outgoing	32	Superficial
Entertaining	37	Self-centered
Cordial	37	Unoriginal
Enthusiastic	41	Shallow

Extroverts do *not* describe themselves as being stable, persistent, accurate, systematic, receptive, consistent, controlled, careful, or cautious. An individual scoring extremely high in extroversion may be seen by others either as enthusiastic, popular, and influential or as superficial and nonproductive, depending on the situation.

Positive adjectives that might be applied to a person scoring relatively *low* on the extroversion scale include logical, factual, probing, thoughtful, and incisive. Negative adjectives would include cold, aloof, blunt, shy, and skeptical. An individual who scores extremely low on the extroversion scale might be seen by others as either a thoughtful, quiet, logical problem solver or a noncommunicative, blunt recluse, depending on the situation.

[2] Possible negative interpretation of the behavior when it is inappropriate for the situation.

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION INTERPRETATION SHEET NO. 3

Stables

Positive Description	*% Selecting*	*Negative Description*[3]
Unhurried	19	Slow
Accommodating	29	Noncompetitive
Consistent	32	Inflexible
Patient	34	Unmotivated
Amiable	34	Too easy going
Settled	34	Unambitious
Even tempered	38	Resentful
Steady	42	Too slow
Controlled	42	Unemotional
Stable	43	Slow starting
Persistent	47	Dogged
Dependable	51	Too predictable

Stables do *not* describe themselves as being adventurous, original, bold, inventive, exacting, decisive, eager, determined, popular, entertaining, or correct. An individual scoring extremely high in stability may be seen by others either as a patient, persistent team player or as a stubborn roadblock to progress and change, depending on the situation.

Positive adjectives that might be applied to a person scoring relatively *low* on the stability scale include alert, self-starting, flexible, and responsive. Negative adjectives include impatient, impulsive, erratic, and explosive. An individual who scores extremely low on the stability scale might be seen by others as either an alert self-starter or an impulsive decision maker, depending on the situation.

[3] Possible negative interpretation of the behavior when it is inappropriate for the situation.

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION INTERPRETATION SHEET NO. 4

Controls

Positive Description	*% Selecting*	*Negative Description*[4]
Correct	20	Too perfect
Cooperative	21	Easily swayed
Exacting	29	Inflexible
Orderly	29	Too neat
Cautious	29	Scared
Precise	31	Picky
Conservative	35	Old fashioned
Open minded	37	Wishy-washy
Systematic	40	Bound by procedure
Careful	41	Fearful
Receptive	50	Easy to convince
Accurate	61	Too detailed

Controls do *not* describe themselves as original, bold, persuasive, forceful, competitive, convincing, enthusiastic, outgoing, decisive, eager, self-reliant, popular, entertaining, or cordial. An individual scoring extremely high in control may be seen by others as a precise, systematic, cooperative worker or as an overly dependent, fearful person, depending on the situation.

Positive adjectives that might be applied to a person scoring relatively *low* on the control scale include independent, individualistic, strong, and firm. Negative adjectives include stubborn, unbending, arbitrary, and uncommunicative. An individual who scores extremely low on the control scale might be seen by others as either an independent individualist with high ideals or an obstinate, arbitrary rebel, depending on the situation.

[4] Possible negative interpretation of the behavior when it is inappropriate for the situation.

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION PATTERN-ASSOCIATION SHEET

If this score is high	And if this score is low	This trait is likely to be present	Opposite Trait
Dominance	Extroversion	Logical	Companionable
	Stability	Driving	Patient
	Control	Fighting	Giving
Extroversion	Dominance	Companionable	Logical
	Stability	Outgoing	Concentrative
	Control	Argumentative	Perfectionistic
Stability	Dominance	Patient	Driving
	Extroversion	Concentrative	Outgoing
	Control	Rigid	Empathic
Control	Dominance	Giving	Fighting
	Extroversion	Perfectionistic	Argumentative
	Stability	Empathic	Rigid

The greater the spread between the two scores, the greater the likelihood that the high-scoring trait will be exhibited and the lower the likelihood that the opposite trait will be exhibited. Greater spreads may also lead respondents to perceive that the Behavior Description is more valid than it actually is.

COMMUNICATION CONGRUENCE INVENTORY (CCI)

Marshall Sashkin and Leonard D. Goodstein

Many children retain more of what they hear than what they see, and vice versa. According to Fiske (1981), some even learn best when studying within the reach of food or when working with their hands, and a number of schools have built a variety of learning options into their classrooms so that students can gain knowledge within their preferred learning systems.

Grinder and Bandler (1976) propose that people also have preferences in their language behavior for one of three basic representational systems. That is, they suggest that individuals tend to prefer to think and communicate in terms of one of the three major sensory systems: seeing, hearing, and feeling (i.e., the sense of touch). Although most people are not limited to just one of these three, Grinder and Bandler argue that generally people use speech metaphors that center on either visual experience or auditory experience or kinesthetic experience, and they developed a model of communication styles that identifies three major approaches to the use of language. This concept is part of their larger model, which they call "neurolinguistic programming" (NLP).

A review of research on NLP (McCormick, 1984) indicated that there was little, if any, real support for the basic tenets of NLP. Although young children often display a preference for and even learn better through the use of one or another of the three major sensory systems, by the time they reach adulthood they generally do not have a dominant representational system. Even Bandler and Grinder (1975) note that such a limitation would be an indicator of pathology.

There was, however, one substantial research finding relevant to representational systems and their reflection in language. Brockman (1981) and Frieden (1981) found that therapists who matched their own style to that used by the client were more effective in establishing client trust and rapport. Rath and Stoyanoff (1982) describe the importance of matching language styles in the following way:

> If two people are having trouble communicating, the problem can be diagnosed by analyzing the principal representational system being used by each person. If it is discovered that these people tend to emphasize different types of imagery, their communication can be improved by involving a third person to translate for each in terms of his or her preferred system. As a result of this process, each of the original parties hears terminology consistent with his or her preference but based on the other's representational system. When such a process takes place in a group setting, the others who are present may point out and explain what is being observed. These explanations help the two parties to understand that their inability to communicate is based not on unwillingness to do so but rather on the fact that they have different styles of communication because they use different

representational systems. Ultimately, each of the two may become sensitive to the other's style and may generalize this sensitivity so that the communications of others are more understandable and acceptable.

Such sensitivity can be a valuable asset when communicating with supervisors, clients, family members, close friends, and fellow group members. The individual who can identify another's preferred representational system can employ that system to communicate effectively with the other person. (p. 169)

These findings and observations suggest that a consultant who uses a representational system that is congruent with that used by the client is more likely to have a positive effect. In order to measure and improve on this congruence, the Communication Congruence Inventory (CCI) was developed. Although the CCI may indicate—as does "The Language System Diagnostic Instrument" (Torres, 1986)—whether or not the respondent has a particular style preference, the primary purpose of the CCI is to experientially demonstrate the concept of consultant-client communication congruence and to provide a method for improving the congruence.

ADMINISTERING THE CCI

The CCI consists of fifteen items. Each item includes one initial statement, and the respondent should select one of the four alternative restatements. One of the four alternatives is a neutral restatement and three are active-listening restatements that a human resource development or organization development consultant might make in response to the initial statement of the client. Of the fifteen client statements, five use auditory terminology; five, visual terminology; and five, kinesthetic terminology. The four alternatives include auditory, visual, kinesthetic, and neutral terminology.

This instrument is designed to provide consultants with experiential feedback on how they relate to clients in terms of clarifying specific client communications. Most consultants are familiar with the concept of active listening or listening with empathy for feelings and ideas and restating to the client those expressed feelings and ideas. Such restatements are used by the consultant to help clarify the client's own thinking as well as the client-consultant communications. The scoring system will help the respondent to explore the degree of congruence between the selected alternatives and the initial statements.

SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE CCI

A scoring form, which is already marked with the congruent responses, is provided. After the respondent has completed the instrument, his or her selections should be transferred to the scoring form by circling the corresponding letter on the scoring form for each of the fifteen items. Then the number of circles in each of the four columns should be written on the corresponding "total circles" line. Next, the number of squares that were circled in each column is written in the boxes underneath the "total circles"

lines. The total of the scores in the three boxes becomes the final score. No credit is given for selections in column IV (the neutral alternatives).

A consultant who is able to use language that is congruent with the client's style should select the alternative that matches the initial statement in each item. That is, if the initial statement contains auditory terminology, the respondent should select the alternative that contains auditory terminology, and so on. In no case should the neutral alternative be selected.

After the scoring is completed, the facilitator can lead a discussion on (a) why the alternatives represented by the letters in the squares on the scoring sheet are congruent with the initial statements and (b) how a consultant can listen for particular types of language used by the client and attempt to rephrase the statement with the same type of language. The facilitator also can help respondents to discover whether or not their selections indicate a preference for auditory, visual, or kinesthetic terminology.

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COMMUNICATION CONGRUENCE INVENTORY (CCI)

Marshall Sashkin and Leonard D. Goodstein

Instructions: In each of the following fifteen items, a statement is presented that is typical of something a client might say to a consultant. Imagine that the client is speaking to you. How would you—as a consultant—rephrase the statement in order to let the client know you understood what was meant? Four alternatives are given for rephrasing each statement, and you should select one. When you have made your selection, write an X in the appropriate blank. After you have completed the fifteen items, wait for instructions from the facilitator.

1. It happened again in my division just the other day. I cannot help but feel angry when people get ahead by pushing themselves and climbing over others who are just as—or even better—qualified.

   _____ a. It makes you angry that people get ahead in this company by clawing their way up the ladder, passing over others who deserve as much or more consideration.

   _____ b. You believe that the organization's promotion policies do not always result in the best person being selecting for the job, that self-promotion often plays a big part.

   _____ c. You get burned up over people who are promoted because they blow their own horns and are heard while those who are just as qualified, or even more so, are silent.

   _____ d. You become angry when it appears that management is blind to the real qualifications of promotion candidates, promoting instead the ones most visible.

2. Roberts has been my mentor ever since I have been on this job, and I'm grateful that I can see things through the eyes of someone like that, someone who has seen it all and yet still has a real vision of the future.

   _____ a. You are thankful for a mentor who sees the situation and the future so clearly.

   _____ b. You feel grateful toward your mentor, who has helped you feel out your courses of action and move on the basis of experience and hands-on planning.

   _____ c. You are thankful for your mentor's words of wisdom; by listening to and heeding Roberts' advice and stories of the future, you have benefited greatly.

_____ d. You are grateful to Roberts for giving you the benefit of both experience and good ideas of what is to come.

3. I often feel frustrated when I'm trying to build an effective team; it's like trying to conduct a symphony when each member of the orchestra wants to play his or her own tune—loudly!

   _____ a. It's frustrating to try to lead and develop a team when everyone seems to be looking at a different map or seeing a different goal.

   _____ b. You believe it is often difficult to develop a cohesive group when each member tries to be independent.

   _____ c. You become distressed when you are trying to develop a team, because instead of listening to you, each member is shouting for attention.

   _____ d. It frustrates you as a team leader when you feel the pressure of all the members straining to go their own ways.

4. It was bad enough that the error hurt the project; but when Adams made the error and tried to hide it with that transparent lie, I really saw red!

   _____ a. You felt angry enough to tear into Adams, ripping apart the attempt to paper over the truth.

   _____ b. You were so angry at hearing Adams speak a lie to hide the mistake that you wanted to literally shout out the truth.

   _____ c. It was wrong for Adams to make such a mistake and then lie to you about it.

   _____ d. It was easy to see through Adams' lie, and the attempt to cover up the mistake that way made you very angry.

5. When I received those figures, I felt so good I jumped for joy.

   _____ a. You were delighted to hear the good news.

   _____ b. You thought the results were excellent.

   _____ c. You felt great and received a real boost from the impact of those figures.

   _____ d. Seeing those great results made you feel wonderful.

6. The constant rumors that were flying around, the mudslinging, and the personal abuse on top of all that really got me down.

   _____ a. The rumors and accusations seemed unending.

   _____ b. It was depressing to know that people would listen to the rumors and talk about the vicious personal gossip.

_____ c. You were depressed that people could look at the rumors and accusations seriously and that you had to watch the lies about you spread around.

_____ d. The tales that were making the rounds and the impact of the accusations being hurled at you made you feel depressed.

7. I'm satisfied with this project, because it allows people to listen to information they are entitled to hear and that is beneficial to them.

   _____ a. You feel glad that this project hands over to people information that really hits home.

   _____ b. You believe that this project will provide people with beneficial information.

   _____ c. You are satisfied because this project will let people hear what they need to hear and that your voices will not have been in vain.

   _____ d. It's satisfying that when people see what you have done, they will have a clear picture of how the information can be usefully applied.

8. Anyone could see that Barnes was the best candidate. I was embarrassed because I had to go through the charade of interviewing him, look carefully at everyone, and then pick the person that the chief wanted.

   _____ a. You felt embarrassed because you were forced to rubber-stamp the person the chief had already picked.

   _____ b. You believed that there was no alternative but to accept the chief's choice.

   _____ c. It was obvious to anyone with eyes to see that the chief had pointed out the decision in advance, and it was embarrassing to see the best choice was not made.

   _____ d. You were ashamed that after hearing all the candidates, the only voice that counted was that of the chief.

9. I was worried about taking on this job after hearing all the horror stories about it, but I guess you can't always believe everything you are told. I'm really pleased with the way things have worked out.

   _____ a. You believed that this job might have too many problems, but your concerns turned out to be unnecessary.

   _____ b. Your initial fears about the job, based on what others had told you, were unfounded; now you're glad you didn't listen to them.

_____ c. You were initially concerned, but you soon saw that things were not as you feared, that none of the supposed problems were appearing on the horizon.

_____ d. Your hesitancy about taking the job was unfounded; moving ahead turned out to be the right action, and you're pleased that you turned down the advice of those who told you to back out.

10. When I saw that boot go under the press, I thought that Terry would come out looking like a sheet of paper. I can't tell you how relieved I was when I saw the automatic safety disengage.

_____ a. You were really upset when you thought of Terry smashed to a pulp under the tons of pressure, but you felt the tension ebb when the safety mechanism kicked in.

_____ b. It was frightening to see the accident happen right in front of your eyes, especially when you could do nothing but watch. You were very relieved when you saw that Terry was safe.

_____ c. You were certain Terry was about to die, but the safety release came on, saving Terry's life.

_____ d. You were distressed when you heard Terry cry out, expecting next to hear the sound of the press. The hiss of the safety mechanism disengaging was like music to your ears.

11. At first it sounded confusing, but I kept listening to the explanation and the instructions and I finally realized why the new system sounded so great.

_____ a. Your initial uncertainty was resolved by your attention to what they were trying to tell you; the more you heard the better it sounded.

_____ b. Although you couldn't see it at first, you persisted until the confusion was cleared up, and it became apparent why the new system worked so well.

_____ c. You couldn't grasp it at first; but you grappled with the instructions until you finally mastered them.

_____ d. You were uncertain at first, but eventually you understood the way the new system worked and its advantages.

12. I've struggled to become a better coach to my employees, so when Carson came to me for help without being pushed, I felt really great.

_____ a. Hearing about the problem directly from Carson made you realize that the hours you spent talking and listening were really worthwhile.

_____ b. It felt great when Carson actively sought your help. You realized your struggles to become a good coach had made an impact.

_____ c. When Carson came to you for help, you realized your coaching skills had a positive result.

_____ d. You saw the fruit of your efforts to put coaching in a positive light when Carson came to see you, and you felt great about that.

13. In a sense, I felt sorry for them. The concept they were trying to deliver has its good points. But the presentation was so poor and came across so badly that I thought I'd laugh so hard I'd fall out of my chair.

_____ a. Although sympathetic, you were amused when it was clear that the picture they were painting looked so ridiculous.

_____ b. Although you felt sorry for them, their performance was so poor that you almost fell over with laughter.

_____ c. You considered their presentation an amusing failure.

_____ d. The longer you listened to their presentation, the more your sympathy was replaced by amusement. Finally, it was so bad that you thought you would laugh out loud.

14. I wasn't sure that I should do it at first, but I showed my boss where to look for the flaws in the proposal and outlined my viewpoint. When my boss saw that what had been pictured was not really possible and that my view was correct, I felt vindicated.

_____ a. You believe you did the right thing by reviewing the flaws of the proposal with your boss, who agreed with your critique.

_____ b. Although you were uncertain, your boss listened closely to your analysis, hearing out your assessment of the proposal's problems and leaving you feeling pretty good.

_____ c. You are glad you overcame your hesitancy and extended yourself to make the presentation, because once you laid out all the facts and problems, your boss agreed with you.

_____ d. You feel great that you showed your boss the problems with that proposal, giving a more realistic view and a chance to review the options.

15. I was shocked by top management's announcement of the reorganization. I heard the words, but it took a while for me to hear all the implications.

_____ a. You were so surprised when they told you about the planned changes in the organization that you really did not comprehend what you had heard.

_____ b. You were taken aback by the news, because you hadn't seen it coming. When management suddenly unveiled the plan, you did not even understand it.

_____ c. You were knocked off your feet when they dumped the news of the reorganization on you. At first you could not even pick up what they were trying to get across.

_____ d. You were puzzled by the reorganization plan, because it was a complete surprise to you.

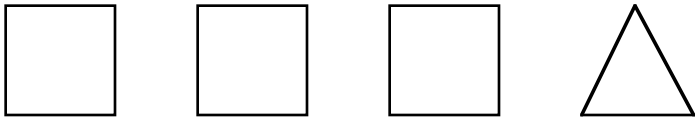
CCI SCORING SHEET

Instructions: After you have completed the Communication Congruence Inventory, transfer your answers to the scoring form in the following manner:

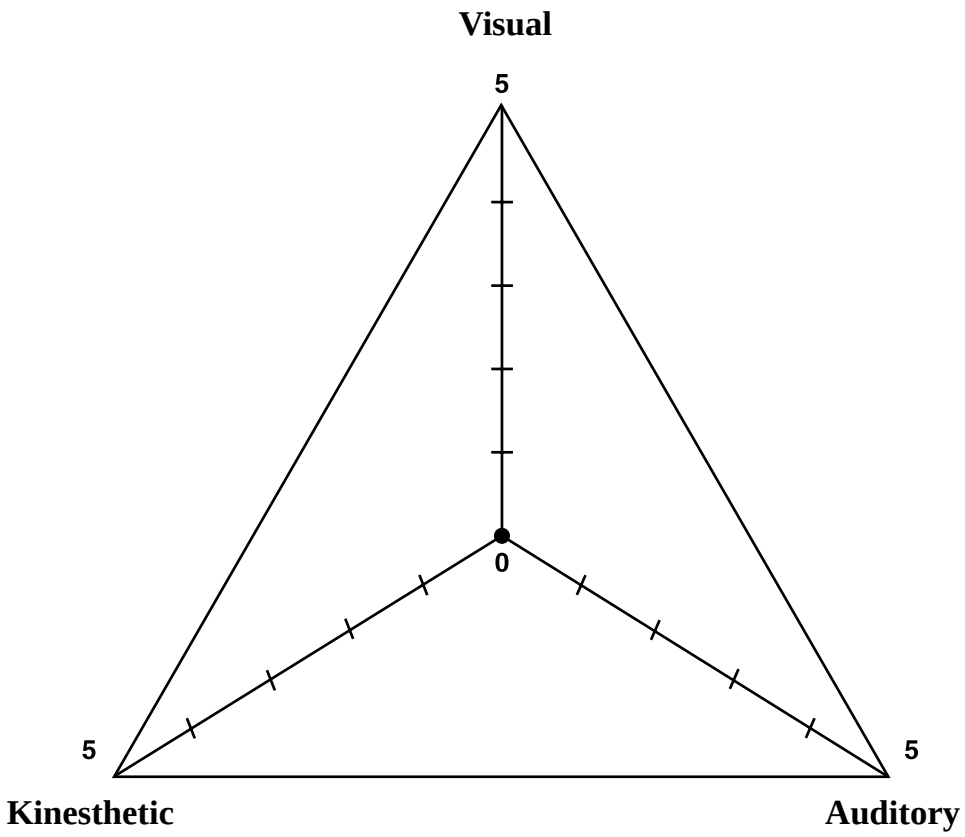
1. Circle the letter on the scoring form that corresponds to the response you selected for each of the fifteen items. You will notice that the letters on the scoring form are not in alphabetical order, so be sure to circle the letter that preceded the response you selected on the CCI.
2. Count the number of circles in Column I and write the total on the "Total Circles" line under Column I. Repeat this process for Columns II, III, and IV.
3. Count the number of squares that you circled in Column I and write the total in the box that appears above the word "Visual." Repeat this process for Column II and write the total in the box that appears above the word "Auditory." Repeat the process for Column III and write the total in the box above the word "Kinesthetic." (No squares appear in Column IV.)
4. Add the figures that appear in the three boxes and write the total in the triangle. This is your total score.
5. For a visual interpretation, transfer the scores from the boxes to the large triangle that precedes the interpretation sheet. The dot in the center of the triangle is zero. Each score should be plotted on the line in the direction of the corresponding corner of the triangle. When all three points have been plotted, connect each of them to the other two points with a line.

CCI SCORING FORM

Item	Column I	Column II	Column III	Column IV
1	d	c	[a]	b
2	[a]	c	b	d
3	a	[c]	d	b
4	[d]	b	a	c
5	d	a	[c]	b
6	c	b	[d]	a
7	d	[c]	a	b
8	[c]	d	a	b
9	c	[b]	d	a
10	[b]	d	a	c
11	b	[a]	c	d
12	d	a	[b]	c
13	a	d	[b]	c
14	[d]	b	c	a
15	b	[a]	c	d
Total Circles	_____	_____	_____	_____



Visual + Auditory + Kinesthetic = TOTAL


Visual
5
0
5
5
Kinesthetic
Auditory

CCI INTERPRETATION SHEET

The Communication Congruence Inventory (CCI) is based on Bandler and Grinder's concept of predicate matching, which is derived from their theory of human communication. Bandler and Grinder argue that individuals generally prefer to think and communicate in one of the three major ways of representing thought and language: vision, hearing, and physical sensation (or kinesthetics). The CCI was developed because there is some research evidence that consultants are more effective when they match their linguistic modes to those used by their clients. Thus, when responding to a client who has just used visual terminology, the consultant would be more effective if he or she also used visual terminology. The same would be true about auditory and kinesthetic terminology. The CCI indicates how well you, as a consultant, are able to match your terminology to that of a client.

Each of the fifteen initial statements on the CCI is followed by four restatements, which represent auditory, visual, kinesthetic, and neutral terminology. The neutral statements play down or omit affective components, thus making them poor active-listening responses. A consultant who is attuned to the representational system used by the client will select the matching restatement for each of the fifteen items. That is, an auditory restatement would be selected for an auditory initial statement; a visual restatement, for a visual statement; and a kinesthetic restatement, for a kinesthetic statement. In no case should the neutral restatement be selected.

If the restatements are perfectly matched to the initial statements, the resulting score will be fifteen. The higher the score, the more effective the respondent is likely to be in building sound consultant-client communication relationships.

When you examine your scoring form, you can determine whether or not you have a bias toward a particular mode. Column I represents the visual mode; Column II, the auditory mode; Column III, the kinesthetic mode; and Column IV, the neutral mode. If you have circled more than five letters in any one of the first three columns, you may have a tendency to use that mode. Scores of ten or above for one of those columns suggest a strong bias for that mode. Scores above three for Column IV suggest that the respondent lacks active-listening skills.

Neither biases nor ineffective listening skills should be thought of as permanent problems. They can be improved through attention and practice.

CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT STYLE SURVEY

Marc Robert

Because people's rational responses are usually short-circuited by the stress of the moment, behavior in complex interpersonal and intergroup confrontations is difficult—if not impossible—to predict. Self-help formulas that promise to make people more assertive or effective in dealing with conflict in their lives will not work if they do not fit the "style" of the person using them. Accepting suggestions for handling conflict before increasing personal awareness and self-knowledge is like buying mail-order clothes. The more one learns about how he or she might react, the greater chance of selecting an appropriate course of action.

Each person must know his or her own strengths, weaknesses, natural inclinations, and preferences, because in conflict these positions tend to become even more rigid and fixed and to inhibit a satisfactory resolution. Unfortunately, such self-knowledge does not come easily. True self-knowledge can only be gained by actively seeking out information about oneself and then acting on it in the next situation, asking for feedback, and then trying again. Self-awareness can be achieved through one or more of the following methods:

Intrapersonal Awareness. Listening to our internal dialogue, being aware of our true feelings, and checking out our physical reactions at the time of conflict can be eye opening.

Observation of Others' Reactions. Being aware of subtle verbal and physical cues that others give in reaction to our behavior can lead to new insights.

Direct Feedback from Others. Asking others for their reactions to what we say or do is the most psychologically threatening route to self-knowledge, but it may be worth the pain to discover areas that need work.

Behavioral Science Measurement. Taking self-rating questionnaires is a less demanding way to learn personal behavioral characteristics.

The *Conflict-Management Style Survey* was designed to help people assess their responses to everyday situations that involve conflict.[1] The respondent's frame of reference must be clear and answers must be consistent with the type of conflict situations he or she wishes to work on.

The real value of taking this instrument is in the interpretation and discussion of results. The survey is meant to heighten awareness and to provide an incentive to change

[1] Some other helpful instruments for measuring style of managing conflict include the *Strength Deployment Inventory* (Porter, 1973) and the *Conflict Mode Instrument* (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974).

unproductive behavior. Participants can compare scores and discuss differences, similarities, and possible trouble spots in relating to one another. The instrument also can be given to friends or coworkers to be completed as the person thinks the participants would complete it. This yields insight for the participant about how he or she is seen to handle conflict.

REFERENCES

Porter, E.H. (1973). *Strength Deployment Inventory*. Pacific Palisades, CA: Personal Strengths Assessment Service.

Robert, M. (1982). *Managing conflict from the inside out.* San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer & Company.

Thomas, K.W., & Kilmann, R.H. (1974). *Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument.* Sterling Forest, Tuxedo, NY: Xicom.

CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT STYLE SURVEY

Marc Robert

Name _____

Date _____

Instructions: Choose a single frame of reference for answering all fifteen items (e.g., work-related conflicts, family conflicts, or social conflicts) and keep that frame of reference in mind when answering the items.

Allocate ten points among the four possible answers given for each of the fifteen items below.

Example: When the people I supervise become involved in a personal conflict, I usually:

Intervene to settle the dispute.	Call a meeting to talk over the problem.	Offer to help if I can.	Ignore the problem.
3	***6***	***1***	***0***
_____	_____	_____	_____

Be certain that your answers add up to 10.

1. When someone *I care about* is actively hostile toward me, i.e., yelling, threatening, abusive, etc., I tend to:

Respond in a hostile manner.	Try to persuade the person to give up his/her actively hostile behavior.	Stay and listen as long as possible.	Walk away.
_____	_____	_____	_____

2. When someone *who is relatively unimportant to me* is actively hostile toward me, i.e., yelling, threatening, abusive, etc., I tend to:

Respond in a hostile manner.	Try to persuade the person to give up his/her actively hostile behavior.	Stay and listen as long as possible.	Walk away.
_____	_____	_____	_____

3. When I observe people in conflicts in which anger, threats, hostility, and strong opinions are present, I tend to:

Become involved and take a position.	Attempt to mediate.	Observe to what happens.	Leave as quickly as possible.
_____	_____	_____	_____

4. When I perceive another person as meeting his/her needs at my expense, I am apt to:

Work to do anything I can to change that person.	Rely on persuasion and "facts" when attempting to have that person change.	Work hard at changing how I relate to that person.	Accept the situation as it is.
_____	_____	_____	_____

5. When involved in an interpersonal dispute, my general pattern is to:

Draw the other person into seeing the problem as I do.	Examine the issues between us as logically as possible.	Look hard for a workable compromise.	Let time take its course and let the problem work itself out.
_____	_____	_____	_____

6. The quality that I value the most in dealing with conflict would be:

Emotional strength and security	Intelligence.	Love and openness.	Patience.
_____	_____	_____	_____

7. Following a serious altercation with someone I care for deeply, I:

Strongly desire to go back and settle things my way.	Want to go back and work it out—whatever give-and-take is necessary.	Worry about it a lot but not plan to initiate further contact.	Let it lie and not plan to initiate further contact.
_____	_____	_____	_____

8. When I see a serious conflict developing between two people *I care about,* I tend to:

Express my disappointment that this had to happen.	Attempt to persuade them to resolve their differences.	Watch to see what develops.	Leave the scene.
_____	_____	_____	_____

9. When I see a serious conflict developing between two people who are *relatively unimportant to me,* I tend to:

Express my disappointment that this had to to happen.	Attempt to persuade them to resolve their differences.	Watch to see what develops.	Leave the scene.
_____	_____	_____	_____

10. The feedback that I receive from most people about how I behave when faced with conflict and opposition indicates that I:

Try hard to get my way.	Try to work out differences cooperatively.	Am easygoing and take a soft or conciliatory position.	Usually avoid the conflict.
_____	_____	_____	_____

11. When communicating with someone with whom I am having a serious conflict, I:

Try to over-power the other person with my speech.	Talk a little bit more than I listen.	Am an active listener (feeding back words and feelings).	Am a passive listener (agreeing and apologizing).
_____	_____	_____	_____

12. When involved in an unpleasant conflict, I:

Use humor with the other party.	Make an occasional quip or joke about the situation or the relationship.	Relate humor only to myself.	Suppress all attempts at humor.
_____	_____	_____	_____

13. When someone does something that irritates me (e.g., smokes in a nonsmoking area or crowds in line in front of me), my tendency in communicating with the offending person is to:

Insist that the person look me in the eye.	Look the person directly in the eye and maintain eye contact.	Maintain intermittent eye contact.	Avoid looking directly at the person.
_____	_____	_____	_____

14. Stand close and make physical contact. | Use my hands and body to illustrate my points. | Stand close to the person without touching him or her. | Stand back and keep my hands to myself.

_____ _____ _____ _____

15. Use strong direct language and tell the person to stop. | Try to persuade the person to stop. | Talk gently and tell the person what my feelings are. | Say and do nothing.

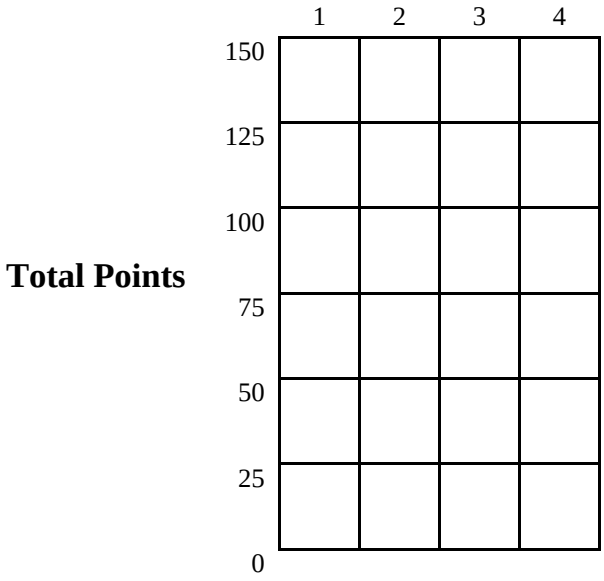
_____ _____ _____ _____

CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT STYLE SURVEY
SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: When you have completed all fifteen items, add your scores vertically, resulting in four column totals. Put these in the blanks below.

Totals: _____ _____ _____ _____
Column 1 Column 2 Column 3 Column 4

Using your total scores in each column, fill in the bar graph below.



Column 1. Aggressive/Confrontive. High scores indicate a tendency toward "taking the bull by the horns" and a strong need to control situations and/or people. Those who use this style are often directive and judgmental.

Column 2. Assertive/Persuasive. High scores indicate a tendency to stand up for oneself without being pushy, a proactive approach to conflict, and a willingness to collaborate. People who use this style depend heavily on their verbal skills.

Column 3. Observant/Introspective. High scores indicate a tendency to observe others and examine oneself analytically in response to conflict situations as well as a need to adopt counseling and listening modes of behavior. Those who use this style are likely to be cooperative, even conciliatory.

Column 4. Avoiding/Reactive. High scores indicate a tendency toward passivity or withdrawal in conflict situations and a need to avoid confrontation. Those who use this style are usually accepting and patient, often suppressing their strong feelings.

Now total your scores for Columns l and 2 and Columns 3 and 4.

	Score		**Score**
Column 1 + Column 2 =	_____ **A**	Column 3 + Column 4 =	_____ **B**

If Score A is significantly higher than Score B (25 points or more), it may indicate a tendency toward aggressive/assertive conflict management. A significantly higher B score signals a more conciliatory approach.

DIAGNOSING ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT CLIMATES

Bob Crosby and John J. Scherer

There are factors in the "climate" of any organization that can help or hinder third-party efforts to address and manage conflict. Although these climate conditions do not themselves create or resolve conflict, they can be powerful variables in determining how effective an intervention will be. When these factors are favorable, even a moderately skilled third-party consultant, working with moderately skilled participants, can be effective. When they are not favorable, even a highly skilled consultant, working with highly skilled individual participants, is likely to be frustrated.

USES OF THE INSTRUMENT

Because these climate conditions are so critical, it may be impossible to help a given organization unless the climate conditions are first adjusted. For this reason, it is imperative that these factors be identified and analyzed in terms of the organization in question before a commitment is made to a method of third-party intervention. The Conflict-Management Climate Index presented here is useful in the following initial steps of the consulting process:

1. *Deciding Whether To Accept the Conflict-Management Assignment.* By collecting a sampling of opinion (using the instrument presented here) from organizational members regarding these climate factors, the consultant can generate very useful data to be used in establishing expectations with the client. Whether or not the consultant decides to accept the job, in sharing the instrument data with the client, he or she can provide a great deal of useful information to the organization. This information frequently will indicate a need for deeper, long-term organization development work, beyond the particular crisis intervention.

2. *Sensing Interviews.* The instrument can be used in the sensing-interview stage to collect and organize attitudes of organizational members prior to the introduction of any conflict-management intervention and is an excellent method of gathering data in a new or "cold" group.

3. *Diagnosis of Needs.* Once the data have been collected, the categories themselves become self-explanatory diagnostic guides, thus enabling the third-party consultant to focus on factors that need attention during initial discussions with key members of the client system.

4. *Training Intervention.* The instrument also can be used as a teaching device to introduce the concept of conflict-management climate to members of an organization in such a way that they can learn something about conflict management at the same time that they are diagnosing the organization. This is a very powerful combination of input and output and increases the value of both.

5. *OD Program.* Obviously, the particular crisis for which the third-party consultation is needed can be a symptom of larger, more profound issues in the organization. It is possible for the consultant to use the data generated by the instrument to explain to decision makers why these crises may continue unless something is done about the climate to make it more supportive of effective conflict management.

Thus, when asked to "come and do something on conflict management" for an organization, the consultant can use the instrument to elicit data that will help to determine the significant issues that need to be addressed and the best interventions by which to address them.

A FEW NOTES ON SCORING

The lower the score on this instrument, the less likely conflict-management efforts will be to succeed, unless some climate-changing activities are first carried out. It generally would not be advisable to engage in conflict-resolution projects in organizations in which average scores on this instrument were lower than thirty, without clear and strong commitment on the part of top management to attempt to understand and change the climate factors operating within the organization.

Many of the items on the instrument are derived from Richard Walton's work in the field (Walton & Dutton, 1969), and the authors recommend his book as a companion piece to the use of this measurement device.

REFERENCE

Walton, R.L., & Dutton. J.M. (1969). The management of interdepartmental conflict: A model and review. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *14,* 73-84.

CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT CLIMATE INDEX

Bob Crosby and John J. Scherer

Your Name _____

Organizational Unit Assessed_____

Instructions: The purpose of this index is to permit you to assess your organization with regard to its conflict-management climate. On each of the following rating scales, indicate how you see your organization as it actually is right now, not how you think it should be or how you believe others would see it. Circle the number that indicates your sense of where the organization is on each dimension of the Conflict-Management Climate Index.

1. **Balance of Power**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Power is massed either at the top or at the bottom of the organization.					Power is distributed evenly and appropriately throughout the organization.

2. **Expression of Feelings**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Expressing strong feelings is costly and not accepted.					Expressing strong feelings is valued and easy to do.

3. **Conflict-Management Procedures**

1	2	3	4	5	6
There are no clear conflict-resolution procedures that many people use.					Everyone knows about, and many people use, a conflict-resolution procedure.

4. **Attitudes Toward Open Disagreement**

1	2	3	4	5	6
People here do not openly disagree very much. "Going along to get along" is the motto.					People feel free to disagree openly on important issues without fear of consequences.

5. **Use of Third Parties**

1	2	3	4	5	6
No one here uses third parties to help resolve conflicts.					Third parties are used frequently to help resolve conflicts.

6. **Power of Third Parties**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Third parties are usually superiors in the organization.					Third parties are always people of equal or lower rank.

7. **Neutrality of Third Parties**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Third parties are never neutral, but serve as advocates for a certain outcome.					Third parties are always neutral as to substantive issues and conflict-resolution methods used.

8. **Your Leader's Conflict-Resolution Style**

1	2	3	4	5	6
The leader does not deal openly with conflict but works behind the scenes to resolve it.					The leader confronts conflicts directly and works openly with those involved to resolve them.

9. **How Your Leader Receives Negative Feedback**

1	2	3	4	5	6
The leader is defensive and/or closed and seeks vengeance on those who criticize him/her.					The leader receives criticism easily and even seeks it as an opportunity to grow and learn.

10. **Follow-Up**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Agreements always fall through the cracks; the same problems must be solved again and again.					Accountability is built into every conflict-resolution agreement.

11. **Feedback Procedures**

1	2	3	4	5	6
No effort is made to solicit and understand reactions to decisions.					Feedback channels for soliciting reactions to all major decisions are known and used.

12. **Communication Skills**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Few, if any, people possess basic communication skills or at least do not practice them.					Everyone in the organization possesses and uses good communication skills.

13. **Track Record**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very few, if any, successful conflict-resolution experiences have occurred in the recent past.					Many stories are available of successful conflict-resolution experiences in the recent past.

CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT CLIMATE INDEX SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: To arrive at your overall Conflict-Management Climate Index, total the ratings that you assigned to the thirteen separate scales. The highest possible score is 78 and the lowest is 13.

Then compare your score with the following conflict-resolution readiness index range.

Index Range	Indication
60-78	Ready to work on conflict with little or no work on climate.
31-59	Possible with some commitment to work on climate.
13-30	Very risky without unanimous commitment to work on climate issues.

Find your lowest ratings and study the following descriptions or interpretations of the thirteen separate dimensions. As you read the descriptions, think about what specifically might be done (or changed) in other activities described, in order to increase your organization's readiness to manage conflict more effectively.

CLIMATE FACTORS AFFECTING CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN ORGANIZATIONS

1. *Balance of Power.* Simply stated, is power spread appropriately and realistically throughout the organization, or is it massed at either the top or bottom levels? The ideal is not for everyone to have equal power, but for a general feeling among most members of the organization that they have sufficient influence over the most significant aspects of their work lives. This may include the power to obtain a fair hearing and a realistic response from someone in authority.

This factor is important because it reflects the extent to which communication is likely to be distorted. Research evidence (Mulder, 1960; Solomon, 1960) seems to indicate that when two people perceive their levels of power to be different, they are likely to mistrust any communication that takes place between them. People who perceive themselves as being less powerful than the other party tend to perceive communication from that person as being manipulative or condescending. Those who see themselves as being more powerful experience communication from the less powerful as being devious or manipulative. Ironically, these more powerful persons also perceive collaborative behavior as an indication of weakness on the part of those whom they see as less powerful. These perceptions can make effective conflict resolution all but impossible.

In organizations in which power is massed at the top, it is extremely difficult for the third-party consultant to achieve the neutrality necessary to be effective without

appearing to "take sides" with someone at the less powerful end of the organization. In organizations in which power is massed at the bottom, there is frequently so much disrespect for—or even disgust with—top management that it is difficult for the third-party consultant to encourage the more powerful workers to respect or even attend to any collaborative actions that top management may take.

Because an appropriate balance of power within an organization is relatively rare, the third party and the participants involved in the conflict will need to collaboratively seek ways to create a balance of power within the limits of the conflict-resolution episode. The two persons or parties in conflict must understand that the more powerful member is to lend some skills or status to the weaker member for the duration of the intervention and also that the more powerful member may not use that power to punish the subordinate, regardless of the outcome of the conflict-resolution process.

The purpose of this balancing of power between the two parties in conflict is to facilitate the process of discussion and mediation, not to create institutional equals. When the consultation process is finished, the parties involved will return to their usual roles (e.g., the boss will still be the boss and the subordinate will still be the subordinate), and it is essential that everyone involved understand this.

2. *Expression of Feelings.* Conflict management is much easier to achieve in a climate in which open expression of members' feelings—especially when those feelings are strongly negative—is valued. In many organizations, a person will find the expression of strong emotions a costly experience and may be either subtly or openly ostracized or reprimanded for such conduct.

It is easy to see why conflict management is more likely to be successful in a climate in which feelings are valued. In the first phases of any conflict resolution, the expression of feelings on the part of the parties in conflict is extremely important; in fact, the success of the next two steps in the conflict-resolution process, differentiation and integration, is directly related to whether complete and honest communication of emotions has occurred.

3. *Conflict-Management Procedures.* In organizations in which there are clearly defined procedures or channels for conflict resolution, the work of a third-party consultant—whether internal or external to the organization—is obviously much easier. In a system in which there are no clearly defined ways to resolve conflict and in which people do not know what to expect or what to do when conflict arises, the work of the third party is made extremely difficult. When people feel safe in using conflict-resolution procedures, they are more likely to have confidence in the outcome. Conversely, if people in conflict feel that they are fumbling through it, they are not likely to put much faith in either the acceptability or the reliability of the procedure they have chosen to use. If top management seriously wants to support effective conflict management, then specific procedures must be made known to and accepted by members at all levels of the organization.

4. *Attitudes Toward Open Disagreements.* This factor reflects the attitudes of members of the organization about open disagreement over proposals or issues. Janis' book, *Victims of Groupthink* (1972), vividly describes decision making at the national level and shows how unexpressed reservations can lead to apparently consensual policy decisions with which few of the decision makers are in actual agreement.

In a system in which open disagreement about issues is viewed as disloyalty or insubordination, effective third-party conflict mediation is almost impossible. In such organizations, participants may pretend to agree or to work out differences of opinion without actually allowing themselves to find out how very far apart their views or positions are. Where differentiation is insufficient, integration or long-term conflict resolution is simply not possible.

Organizations that require creativity, such as advertising firms and think tanks, solicit and encourage differences of opinion because the discussions that result make possible insights and solutions that might never be thought of in a climate in which everyone agreed with the first idea suggested.

5. *Use of Third Parties.* A healthy conflict-management climate will encourage people to ask others in the system to act as third-party consultants when conflicts arise. Most organizations have, at least tacitly, established the norm that conflict must be kept "in the family" and not "aired in public." This makes the work of the person who is called in to help extremely difficult. One of the first concerns, then, is to confront the reservations and resistances that people have about working with a third party. In particular, it should be made clear that the use of a third party is not a sign of weakness on the part of the persons in conflict. This can be reinforced merely by using third parties effectively.

6. *Power of Third Parties.* As Walton (1969) points out, it is difficult for someone with hierarchical power to be an effective third party. When subordinates feel that anything they say may later be used against them, it is highly likely that crucial information will not be shared during the confrontation episode. However, these data frequently are the keys to unlocking conflict situations. In a healthy conflict-management climate, a supervisor would encourage subordinates to seek third-party help from someone on their level or even lower in the organization. It is hard for most managers to do this, because they want to be seen as helpful and caring and also because they want to have some control over potentially explosive situations.

7. *Neutrality of Third Parties.* Third parties from within the organization must remain neutral about substantive outcomes, or at least suppress their biases sufficiently to be effective. When third parties are unskilled and biased about what the outcome of the conflict-resolution process should be, one of the people in conflict is likely to feel "ganged up on," and the person who wins may feel a little bit guilty. Such a "conflict-resolution" process may result in a defusing of the issue but also is likely to cause the significant feelings of the people involved to be submerged, to increase mistrust of

management, and to make participants feel a lack of ownership of a solution that they may feel was imposed on them.

In addition, past experience with a biased third party makes it difficult for members of the organization to trust the process in the future. Therefore, the third-party consultant may need to spend a great deal of time and energy in establishing his or her neutrality and credibility with the persons involved.

8. *Your Leader's Conflict-Resolution Style.* The senior people in any organization greatly influence the climate. Walton and Dutton (1969) showed that it is possible to characterize a general style of conflict management in an organization and that the people at the top of the organization set that style by their own behavior. In their "contingency theory" of organization, Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) found that not only could they characterize the way people generally approached conflict but also showed that one particular approach, "confrontation," worked best and was associated with organizational effectiveness. In other words, these researcher/consultants found that the way people approach conflict is not a contingency factor but that there was a "best way": confrontation. It means that conflict is openly recognized when it occurs and the people involved proceed to deal directly with the conflict problem. It means *not* running away, *not* trying to "smooth over" real and important differences, *not* immediately trying to "split the difference," and *not* fighting a win-lose battle. Confrontation implies creative problem solving. When superiors confront conflicts, they are seen as strong and their behavior encourages others to deal directly with problems of conflict.

The model set by those in positions of power has effects on all sorts of subordinate behavior but especially influences how subordinates relate to one another when dealing with conflicts. Even when the supervisor's nonconfrontational style is successfully applied to solve a particular problem, it still weakens the organization's problem-solving and conflict-resolution capacity.

9. *How Your Leader Receives Negative Feedback.* In a conflict situation, there is always great potential for the expression of negative feelings. It is rare, even when conflict is dealt with very effectively, for no negative comments to have been expressed. Such comments may concern the content of the conflict ("I think your approach is unlikely to increase sales as much as mine would") or may relate to how the parties feel on an emotional level ("Your attempts to dominate our ad campaigns are signs of your inflated ego"). Grossly ineffective handling of conflict is associated with an inability to deal with either of these types of negative feedback. Even worse is when the leader or person in authority acts against the other party at a later date, thus gaining "vengeance." This kind of behavior is associated with other nonfunctional ways of handling conflict, such as not letting the other party know one's true feelings, never letting disagreements get out in the open, and trying to deal with conflict "behind the scenes." The type of persons using these strategies avoid showing anger or any expression at all. Their motto might be "Don't get mad, get even."

No healthy person actually enjoys negative feedback, on either the content or interpersonal level, but effective leaders are able to ignore or fail to respond in kind to

personal attacks—while often openly recognizing the feelings expressed by the other party—and are likely to look at content criticism more objectively, to determine whether there really is a sound point to the critique. At our best, we may relatively quickly transfer the kernel of truth in a negative item into positive corrective action. A conflict, for example, over the leader's daily "checkup" on a delegated project might lead this leader to examine and correct the tendency to avoid really "letting go" of an important project.

10. *Follow-Up.* Follow-up procedures and methods of accountability should be built into all conflict-resolution decisions. It is possible to have a highly successful confrontation dialogue between two people, to have them reach intelligent resolutions, and then to have those resolutions disappear between the "cracks" in the relationship or in the organization's busy work schedule. It is extremely important that the last step in the conflict-resolution process specifies:

1. What has been decided?
2. What will be done next and by whom?
3. What checks are there on how and whether it is carried out?
4. What are the expected consequences?
5. How, when, and by whom will the effectiveness of these decisions be evaluated?

When people are used to making sure that planned outcomes are implemented, the work of a third party is made much easier. In places in which problems historically must be solved over and over again, it is necessary for the third-party consultant to train people in follow-up procedures before beginning the conflict dialogue.

11. *Feedback Procedures.* When communication channels exist that can be used to surface disagreements and conflicts, it is obvious that more conflict resolution is possible. This does not guarantee that conflicts are generally resolved effectively, but it is a prerequisite if such effective action is to take place at all. There are many ways by which members of an organization can be given access to and encouraged to use channels for feedback. When upper levels or those in power are responsive to feedback that indicates conflict problems, then even relatively simple "mechanistic" feedback approaches, such as the old-fashioned suggestion box, can work well. Some years ago, New England Bell Telephone Company instituted an "open lines" program whereby people at lower levels could raise problems by telephoning an anonymous executive ombudsman, with their own anonymity guaranteed. Certainly a situation in which the parties feel free to directly approach one another is the most preferable, but when the overall climate cannot support this, a mechanistic approach, if used responsively, can be a useful and productive step toward changing the conflict-management climate.

One commonly touted action that may not work is the so-called "open-door policy." When lower-level or less powerful individuals actually try to use the open door, they

find that the policy exists in name but not in fact—that it is not so easy to get through the door at all, and that, when it is done, the response is overtly or covertly a turn off or "cooling out" process. Furthermore, one is observed in the process and the person using the open door may be labeled as a telltale, a spy, someone who cannot handle his or her own problems, etc. All of these negative factors are characteristic of organizations with poor conflict-management climates, and would not, of course, apply to organizations with good climates, open expression of feelings and disagreements, clear procedures for dealing with conflict, effective use of third parties, etc. As it happens, it is the former type of organization in which a so-called open-door policy is likely to succeed, while such a policy would be laughably unnecessary in the latter type of organization.

12. *Communication Skills.* If people in an organization are accustomed to blaming, criticizing, projecting their own issues onto other people, and scapegoating; if they do not know how to make "I" statements (Gordon, 1970) that clearly communicate how to listen to their own positions; or if they cannot listen empathically (Milnes & Bertcher, 1980; Rogers & Farson, 1977) without forming opinions, then it probably will be necessary to prepare them for confrontation dialogues by training them in communicating and listening in high-stress situations. Of course, it is easier to do conflict-management work in an organization in which the members have received training in communication skills. In that case, the role of the third party is to help the participants to stay "on track" and to coach them in maintaining open communication.

13. *Track Record.* How successful were past attempts to resolve conflict equitably? If there is a history of people being reprimanded or fired for initiating an attempt to resolve a conflict, the third-party consultation may be perceived as "window dressing." On the other hand, nothing succeeds like success, and nothing helps the conflict-management consultant more than an organization with a history of useful and lasting involvement in dealing with conflict.

CONCLUSION

The conflict-management climate in organizations functions a great deal like the weather. When the weather is good, you can do many more things more enjoyably than when the weather is bad. In the middle of a storm, you can still do many of the things you could do when the weather was good, but it requires much more energy, and the risks of failure are increased. We believe that one of the major skill focuses of consultants to organizations trying to learn to manage conflict is in collaborating with top management in seeking innovative ways to change the weather in the organizations along the dimensions charted in the Conflict-Management Climate Index.

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EXPLORING SUPPORTIVE AND DEFENSIVE COMMUNICATION CLIMATES: THE COMMUNICATION CLIMATE INVENTORY

James I. Costigan and Martha A. Schmeidler

The communication climate in any organization is a key determinant of its effectiveness. Organizations with supportive environments encourage worker participation, free and open exchange of information, and constructive conflict resolution. In organizations with defensive climates, employees keep things to themselves, make only guarded statements, and suffer from reduced morale.

Gibb (1961) identified six characteristics of a "supportive environment" and six characteristics of a "defensive one." Gibb affirmed that employees are influenced by the communication climate in the organization. He characterized a supportive climate as one having description, problem orientation, spontaneity, empathy, equality, and provisionalism and a defensive climate as having evaluation, control, strategy, neutrality, superiority, and certainty. These items are paired opposites. Capsule definitions of the terms follow:

EXPLORING

Characteristics of a Defensive Climate

Evaluation—The supervisor is critical and judgmental and will not accept explanations from subordinates.

Control—The supervisor consistently directs in an authoritarian manner and attempts to change other people.

Strategy—The supervisor manipulates subordinates and often misinterprets or twists and distorts what is said.

Neutrality—The supervisor offers minimal personal support for and remains aloof from employees' personal problems and conflicts.

Superiority—The supervisor reminds employees who is in charge, closely oversees the work, and makes employees feel inadequate.

Certainty—The supervisor is dogmatic and unwilling to admit mistakes.

Characteristics of a Supportive Climate

Descriptive—The supervisor's communications are clear, describe situations fairly, and present his or her perceptions without implying the need for change.

Problem Orientation—The supervisor defines problems rather than giving solutions, is open to discussion about mutual problems, and does not insist on employee agreement.

Spontaneity—The supervisor's communications are free of hidden motives and honest. Ideas can be expressed freely.

Empathy—The supervisor attempts to understand and listen to employee problems and respects employee feelings and values.

Equality—The supervisor does not try to make employees feel inferior, does not use status to control situations, and respects the positions of others.

Provisionalism—The supervisor allows flexibility, experimentation, and creativity.

DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUMENT

The Communication Climate Inventory uses the twelve factors described above as a means of assessing the communication climate within work groups in an organization. Thirty-six questions are presented in a Likert response format. The odd-numbered questions describe a defensive atmosphere, and the even-numbered questions describe a supportive environment. The following chart shows which questions are linked to which characteristic.

Defensive Climate	**Supportive Climate**
Questions 1, 3, 5 — Evaluation	Questions 2, 4, 6 — Provisionalism
Questions 7, 9, 11 — Control	Questions 8, 10, 12 — Empathy
Questions 13, 15, 17 — Strategy	Questions 14, 16, 18 — Equality
Questions 19, 21, 23 — Neutrality	Questions 20, 22, 24 — Spontaneity
Questions 25, 27, 29 — Superiority	Questions 26, 28, 30 — Problem Orientation
Questions 31, 33, 35 — Certainty	Questions 32, 34, 36 — Description

GUIDELINES FOR INTERPRETATION

The *Communication Climate Inventory* is designed so that the lower the score, the greater the extent to which either climate exists in an organization. However, low defensive scores will probably be an indication that supportive scores are high and vice versa, simply because both climates would not exist together in an organization, although scores will vary according to the supervisor being evaluated.

If the communication climate of an organization appears to be supportive and nondefensive, then probably no changes need to be made. However, if the communication climate is defensive and nonsupportive, an intervention is called for to improve the climate. Structured experiences that develop interpersonal communication skills are useful for this purpose. Overall ratings can be gleaned by having each department plot its scores on the scale at the bottom of the scoring sheet and then looking at any trouble spots.

Scoring the Instrument

If a person agrees or strongly agrees (a score of 1 or 2) with the statements measuring a specific characteristic, that factor is important in the person's work environment. If the person scores the statement as a 4 or 5 (disagree or strongly disagree), it indicates that the characteristic being measured is not part of the person's work environment. A score of 3 indicates uncertainty or that the characteristic occurs infrequently in the environment.

The total of the scores from the odd-numbered questions indicates the degree to which the work environment is defensive, and the total of the scores from the even-numbered questions indicates the degree to which the work environment is supportive. For each individual characteristic, then, a total score of 3 to 6 indicates agreement or strong agreement on either the defensive or supportive scales, a total of 12 to 15 indicates disagreement or strong disagreement, and a total of 7 to 11 indicates a neutral or uncertain attitude.

The lowest possible overall climate score is 18 on either the defensive or supportive scales, which means that the respondent strongly agreed with all questions. The highest possible overall score is 90, which means that the respondent strongly disagreed with all questions. Both extremes are highly improbable.

If more than one person fills out the questionnaire, obtaining the mean score for each item is the most convenient method of scoring the inventory. Summing the means for the questions in each category provides the overall score for the type of climate (defensive or supportive), and comparing those two scores provides a rough estimate of the general organizational climate. The following scales can be used to provide a way of checking the communication climate.

Defensive Scale	**Supportive Scale**
Defensive, 18-40	Supportive, 18-40
Defensive to Neutral, 41-55	Supportive to Neutral, 41-55
Neutral to Supportive, 56-69	Neutral to Defensive, 56-69
Supportive, 70-90	Defensive, 70-90

In administering the inventory, it is important to be specific about which communication climate (which supervisor's communication) is being surveyed.

USES OF THE INSTRUMENT

The Communication Climate Inventory can be used to measure the organization's total communication environment or the climate of individual work areas. The scores from this inventory can be used to plan needed changes in the communication environment or to indicate which practices should be encouraged.

Organizational consultants can use the inventory to determine whether the communication environment is causing problems. Educators can use it to help students understand the characteristics of supportive and defensive climates. Supervisors can use it to assess how their subordinates feel about their handling of communications in the work environments.

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COMMUNICATION CLIMATE INVENTORY

James I. Costigan and Martha A. Schmeidler

Instructions: The statements below relate to how your supervisor and you communicate on the job. There are no right or wrong answers. Respond honestly to the statements, using the following scale:

1 - Strongly Agree
2 - Agree
3 - Uncertain
4 - Disagree
5 - Strongly Disagree

_____ 1. My supervisor criticizes my work without allowing me to explain.
_____ 2. My supervisor allows me as much creativity as possible in my job.
_____ 3. My supervisor always judges the actions of his or her subordinates.
_____ 4. My supervisor allows flexibility on the job.
_____ 5. My supervisor criticizes my work in the presence of others.
_____ 6. My supervisor is willing to try new ideas and to accept other points of view.
_____ 7. My supervisor believes that he or she must control how I do my work.
_____ 8. My supervisor understands the problems that I encounter in my job.
_____ 9. My supervisor is always trying to change other people's attitudes and behaviors to suit his or her own.
_____ 10. My supervisor respects my feelings and values.
_____ 11. My supervisor always needs to be in charge of the situation.
_____ 12. My supervisor listens to my problems with interest.
_____ 13. My supervisor tries to manipulate subordinates to get what he or she wants or to make himself or herself look good.
_____ 14. My supervisor does not try to make me feel inferior.
_____ 15. I have to be careful when talking to my supervisor so that I will not be misinterpreted.
_____ 16. My supervisor participates in meetings with employees without projecting his or her higher status or power.
_____ 17. I seldom say what really is on my mind, because it might be twisted and distorted by my supervisor.
_____ 18. My supervisor treats me with respect.

1 - Strongly Agree
2 - Agree
3 - Uncertain
4 - Disagree
5 - Strongly Disagree

_____ 19. My supervisor seldom becomes involved in employee conflicts.
_____ 20. My supervisor does not have hidden motives in dealing with me.
_____ 21. My supervisor is not interested in employee problems.
_____ 22. I feel that I can be honest and straightforward with my supervisor.
_____ 23. My supervisor rarely offers moral support during a personal crisis.
_____ 24. I feel that I can express my opinions and ideas honestly to my supervisor.
_____ 25. My supervisor tries to make me feel inadequate.
_____ 26. My supervisor defines problems so that they can be understood but does not insist that his or her subordinates agree.
_____ 27. My supervisor makes it clear that he or she is in charge.
_____ 28. I feel free to talk to my supervisor.
_____ 29. My supervisor believes that if a job is to be done right, he or she must oversee it or do it.
_____ 30. My supervisor defines problems and makes his or her subordinates aware of them.
_____ 31. My supervisor cannot admit that he or she makes mistakes.
_____ 32. My supervisor tries to describe situations fairly without labeling them as good or bad.
_____ 33. My supervisor is dogmatic; it is useless for me to voice an opposing point of view.
_____ 34. My supervisor presents his or her feelings and perceptions without implying that a similar response is expected from me.
_____ 35. My supervisor thinks that he or she is always right.
_____ 36. My supervisor attempts to explain situations clearly and without personal bias.

COMMUNICATION CLIMATE INVENTORY
SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: Place the numbers that you assigned to each statement in the appropriate blanks. Now add them together to determine a subtotal for each climate description. Place the subtotals in the proper blanks and add your scores. Place an X on the graph to indicate what your perception is of your organization or department's communication climate. Some descriptions of the terms follow. You may wish to discuss with others their own perceptions and interpretations.

Part I: Defensive Scores

Evaluation

Question 1 _____
Question 3 _____
Question 5 _____
Subtotal _____

Neutrality

Question 19 _____
Question 21 _____
Question 23 _____
Subtotal _____

Control

Question 7 _____
Question 9 _____
Question 11 _____
Subtotal _____

Superiority

Question 25 _____
Question 27 _____
Question 29 _____
Subtotal _____

Strategy

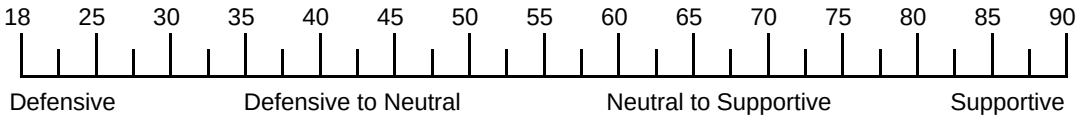
Question 13 _____
Question 15 _____
Question 17 _____
Subtotal _____

Certainty

Question 31 _____
Question 33 _____
Question 35 _____
Subtotal _____

Subtotals for Defensive Scores

Evaluation _____
Control _____
Strategy _____
Neutrality _____
Superiority _____
Certainty _____
Total _____



Part II: Supportive Scores

Provisionalism

Question 2 _____
Question 4 _____
Question 6 _____
Subtotal _____

Spontaneity

Question 20 _____
Question 22 _____
Question 24 _____
Subtotal _____

Empathy

Question 8 _____
Question 10 _____
Question 12 _____
Subtotal _____

Problem Orientation

Question 26 _____
Question 28 _____
Question 30 _____
Subtotal _____

Equality

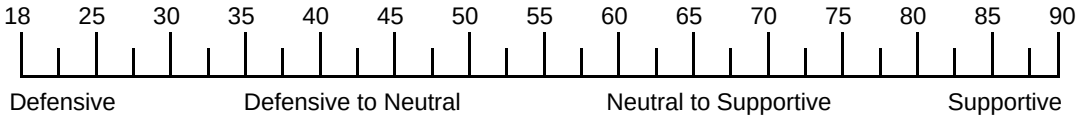
Question 14 _____
Question 16 _____
Question 18 _____
Subtotal _____

Description

Question 32 _____
Question 34 _____
Question 36 _____
Subtotal _____

Subtotals for Supportive Scores

Provisionalism _____
Empathy _____
Equality _____
Spontaneity _____
Problem Orientation _____
Description _____
Total _____



HELPING RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY

John E. Jones

Interest in studying the characteristics of helping relationships has been strong for many years. The Helping Relationship Inventory was adapted from an earlier instrument designed for use in training counselors and can be employed in a variety of training ventures. It has been found to be an effective training aid in counseling, interviewing, and exploring interpersonal relations.

DEVELOPMENT

Twenty-five items were selected from the "Aptness of Response" section of the Counseling Procedures Pretest (Porter, 1950) and submitted to three judges for keying. Items were revised and rekeyed by the same judges. The adaptation, entitled Helping Relationship Inventory (HRI), yields five subscores, each corresponding to a counseling response mode. These subscales are Understanding, Probing, Interpretive, Supportive, and Evaluative. In each item, the subject is presented a client statement, which is followed by five possible responses, keyed according to Porter's subscale descriptions. The subject ranks the responses in the order of his or her preference, from "most apt" to "least apt." As the preferred response is ranked 1 and the "least apt" is ranked 5, low scores indicate preference for given verbal response modes.

The HRI was administered to enrollees in the NDEA Counseling and Guidance Training Institute conducted at the University of Alabama during the 196465 academic year and to members of an undergraduate class in educational psychology at Alabama for the purpose of estimating reliability. The mean estimated reliability of the five scales, as computed by the split-half method, was .86 and ranged from .96 (Understanding) to .71 (Interpretive).

The HRI was administered to members of various occupational groups to explore the question, "Do counselors as a group exhibit the same helping-relationship response tendencies as members of other occupational groups?" (Jones, 1967.) Data were gathered on 370 persons in several occupations: guidance-institute enrollees, counseling-practicum enrollees, on-the-job school counselors in two states, ministers, nursing instructors, firemen, housewives, secretaries, undergraduate students, and lawyers. Many differences were found. Counselors were characterized by a preference for understanding responses and a tendency to reject the evaluative response mode; members of the other groups showed the reverse preference.

ADMINISTERING, SCORING, AND REPORTING

The HRI is self-administering. To score the inventory, the item responses must be transferred from the answer sheet to the scoring sheet, which is also a key. Care should be taken to note that the answer sheet and the scoring sheet are organized differently from usual; they are numbered *across* rather than *down* the page. Odd-numbered items are in the left column, and even-numbered items are in the right column. (This organization was intended to facilitate computing odd-even reliability estimates for various groups.) Scoring is accomplished by adding the numbers in each column on the scoring sheet. This will produce one profile based on odd-numbered items, one based on even-numbered items, and a total profile. The order of the scores is UPISE—Understanding, Probing, Interpretive, Supportive, and Evaluative. For example, the *e* response to item 1 is Understanding, the *a* response is Probing, the *d* response is Interpretive, etc.

Respondents' scores are reported on a profile sheet that allows comparison with a normative sample of counselors. It should be stressed that there are no good or bad scores and that *low* scores represent preferred ways of responding in helping relationships.

It is helpful to have participants fill out the HRI in advance of the training session. It takes from thirty to forty-five minutes to complete, on the average. Scoring is most efficiently done by clerical assistants, but participants can be directed to score their own instruments with a minimum of difficulty.

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HELPING RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY

Instructions: This is not a test in the sense that your answers can be right or wrong. It is a survey of your feelings concerning the relationship between two persons when one is attempting to help the other. Imagine yourself as a person to whom another person has come for personal assistance. Each of the items represents possible interchanges between you and your "client," who seeks your help. The "client" begins the conversation by talking about an aspect of the situation he or she faces. No further information is available on the case. You will not know at what point in the conversation the interchange takes place. In short, you are presented with an isolated statement. This is followed by five possible responses that you may make. Using the separate answer sheet, *mark these responses in the order of your preference,* using the following code:

1	for the response you would be most apt to favor
2	for the response next most desirable to you
3	for the next
4	for the next, and
5	for the response that least represents your preference.

Example:

1. Woman, Age 26

"I'm planning the menu now. What kinds of foods do you like?"

2	a. Pizza and other Italian foods.
3	b. Steaks and hamburgers.
5	c. Salads and vegetables.
1	d. Desserts.
4	e. Spanish cooking.

The person who responded to this item showed the highest preference for desserts and the least preference for salads and vegetables.

The wording used may not strike you as being the best, but disregard this factor as long as the response is the same *type* you would favor. You may think of responses that would be more preferable from your point of view. It is necessary, however, that you make your selection from the alternatives presented and that you arrange all five in the order of their desirability.[1]

[1] The Helping Relationship Inventory was adapted by permission by John E. Jones from the Counseling Procedures PreTest (1950), by E.H. Porter, *An Introduction to Therapeutic Counseling.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

1. Woman, age 47. Quite tense.

"I really don't know what to do. Ah, I really don't know whether to go back to teaching school. It gets on my nerves so, I can't hardly stand it. I've got a good salary. Or else make a clean break and really do the thing I'm interested in. (Slight pause.) But that would mean starting in at the bottom with a very small salary, and I wouldn't know whether I could do that or not."

a. Could you tell me a little more about your new field of interest? It is quite important that we think about this clearly.
b. Well, before you jump into something new, you should be very sure that it is really worthwhile and will provide at least the security and feeling of contribution that teaching brings you.
c. Well, now, possibly I can help you with that decision. Probably you could take some tests that will furnish you with some idea as to whether you might expect to be successful in the line of your new interests. And maybe we could explore some of the things that cause you dissatisfaction in your teaching work.
d. This indecision of yours is an understandable thing and stems from the conflict between your uncertainty over the new line of interest and your mixed feelings of dissatisfaction with the teaching job, yet hesitance to leave the security that it affords.
e. It's really a tough decision, isn't it? Whether to take the risks of starting out in a new field or to stick by the security of the irritating teaching job.

2. Girl, age 19.

"I tell you I hate my father. I hate him! I hate him! I hate him! And there's no reason for it. He is a minister—a good and righteous man. He has never laid a hand on me, but I have this terrific feeling against him. And it makes me feel so terrible because there's no reason for it. It's a sin to hate your father, especially if you don't have any reason for it. I . . . it worries me."

a. Of course you feel guilty about hating him so, especially since you can't put your finger on what he has done to make you hate him. And then, too, even though you see only your hatred of him, you'll find that underneath it all you have some love for him, and this plays a part in your feelings of guilt.
b. I guess everyone at some time or another goes through a period when they hate one or both of their parents. It's really not at all uncommon. Most people find that they can work out some way of getting along until things settle down.
c. This is certainly something that you will want to get cleared up. Happy relationships with parents are too constructive a thing to a person, not only now at your age but in the future as well; you won't want to jeopardize what it can mean to you.
d. It worries you that you should hate your father without reason and yet feel sinful for hating him.

e. I think we ought to get to the root of that worry. Tell me about your father—all about him. You say he's never laid a hand on you, but maybe he has not let you do a number of things *you* wanted to do. Can you think of anything along that line?

3. Man, age 30.

"I have the queerest feeling. Whenever anything good happens to me, I just can't believe it. I act as though it never happened. And it worries me. I wanted a date with Myrtle and I stood around for weeks before I got up enough courage to ask her for a date, and she said yes, and I couldn't believe it! I couldn't believe it so much that I didn't keep the date!"

a. You've got to grow up, fellow, and get a little more realistic about women. They're human, too, you know, and want dates just as much as you do.
b. It just doesn't seem real when something good happens.
c. You have probably denied to yourself so strongly that anything good could happen to you that when it does it seems unreal.
d. I am wondering whether or not these feelings of unreality are associated with any particular area of your life. Would you like to tell me more about what you mean when you said, "Whenever *anything good* happens to me?"
e. Well, I'm not too sure that you should be so worried about it. It doesn't mean anything in itself, really. I think we'll be able to get to the bottom of it all right.

4. Man, age 59.

"I couldn't let my son help me now that I'm down and out. I've got that shred of pride left. Because you see I remember when he was a kid, I didn't turn my hand to help him. I traipsed around the country. His mother died when the kid was born, and I let the relatives push him around and stuck him in foster homes, and now . . . . It certainly was like a knife stuck in me when we met the other day and he said, 'We can make a go of it together, Dad, I've got a little money saved up.' No, no, I won't let him do it. I will clear out of here. It'll be hard, but . . . . I haven't done *one* thing for him—or anyone else, for that matter."

a. Have you investigated the possibility of an old age pension? Possibly something could be worked out there that wouldn't make it necessary for you to impose on your son or accept help from him.
b. What was your married life like? Had you and your wife planned for a child?
c. Your behavior in the past makes you unworthy of the help your son wants to give you now; is that what you mean?
d. Have you thought about what it will mean to your son if you don't let him do this thing that he wants to do for you?

e. I see what you mean. You feel that you don't deserve the help he wants to give because in the past you did nothing to earn it. And your statement that you never have done anything for anyone else makes it look as if it might be a real problem to you to accept responsibility *for* helping others and to accept help *from* others.

5. Man, age 35.

"I'm determined to get ahead. I am not afraid of hard work. I am not afraid to take a few hard knocks if I can see my goal out there in front. And I don't mind climbing over a few people who get in my way, because this means a lot to me. I can't be satisfied with just a mediocre job. No, I want to be somebody."

a. You see yourself as a deeply ambitious person; is that it?
b. This driving ambition may stem from a need to attack other people.
c. What do you suppose is behind this strong determination of yours to get ahead?
d. It is possible with your drive that you could be successful in a number of fields.
e. Strong ambition can be a real asset to any man. You say you don't mind climbing over those who get in your way? Couldn't that turn out to do you more harm than good?

6. Man, age 21.

"Shall I marry her? Or shall I think of my future? If a guy is going to think of his future—if he's got ambition and drive to get ahead—he's got to be hard and forget all about sentiment. But I do love Marie. I really do. And she's been my inspiration. If we broke off, I don't know what I'd do. I don't know whether I would be able to do a thing, I don't know. On the other hand, I can't afford advanced study and marriage, too. And Marie says if we can't get married now she isn't willing to wait. I don't know what to do. I love her, but if she loved me, would she say, 'Now or never?' That's the thing I can't answer."

a. That is, you can't decide whether to marry and risk your future or whether to plan for your future and risk losing out on the marriage. They seem so dependent on each other.
b. It is not really so much of a problem of indecision between marriage and vocational plans as it is the deeper problem of whether you should be dependent on your own self-approval or dependent on her approval of what you do.
c. I am wondering if you can't have both the career and marriage. Have you two discussed ways and means of increasing your income by extra work or by her working? Most universities or schools would cooperate with you. And besides, there just isn't time for expensive entertainment among married students working their own way. There would not be the demand for social activities that you might expect to find out in a community.

d. I think you have got to take into account how Marie will feel if you go ahead and decide to follow your studies and not get married now. What will it do to her? The decision you make ought to take into account what is best for both of you.
e. I think you may have hit on something significant there: how much she loves you. Could you tell me a little more about that? How she acts toward you and your ideas?

7. Woman, age 29.

"I'm afraid to be alone. I really am. I'm afraid I'll kill myself and I don't want to but I get so depressed. I get caught in a terrific clutch of fear. It's unreal but it's there. And I get so worked up I could scream. I want to get outside and I'm afraid to go out in case I run in front of a car. And I'm afraid to stay in. I'm afraid of myself. I'm afraid to go to the doctor and get an examination. I'm afraid he'll tell me it's cancer. My mother had it. My grandmother, my aunt . . . . I've lived with it all my life, and it's hell. And when this first came up . . . see, I break out in a sweat just talking about it. Is there any help?"

a. Aside from your fear, have you experienced any symptoms that lead you to think you really might have cancer?
b. This terrible fear just never lets you alone.
c. If you have any reason at all to think that you might have cancer, you really should try to control your fear enough to have a medical examination.
d. Would you like to try this: whenever you experience one of these fears, call me on the telephone, either here at the office or at home, and talk it over with me? Talking it over often helps a person to get a grip on herself.
e. My guess is that if we trace these fears a bit we'll find that they are not as real as you feel them to be. I think you are punishing yourself for something about which you feel pretty guilty.

8. Woman, age 30.

"I've lived in this town for ten years now, and in the same apartment for seven years, but I don't know anybody. At the office, I just can't seem to make friends. I just freeze up. I try to be nice to the other workers, but I feel all stiff and uncomfortable inside. And then I tell myself that I don't care. People aren't dependable. Everyone is out for himself. I don't want any friends. And sometimes I think I really mean that."

a. Well, I'll tell you what you can do. You can join a small social group at the "Y." Quite a few people go there who have difficulty in making friends. Most want to start out by taking ceramics, leather tooling, or some other handicraft. This gives them something to do as a basis and permits them to make friends slowly and at their own pace. How does that sound to you?
b. Possibly, if you could tell me a little more about how you go about trying to make friends, we could get a clearer idea of what is involved.

c. It's gone on so long, it almost has you convinced; is that what you mean?
d. Maybe your not wanting friends is just to protect you from something else.
e. There are a number of things that you might do to learn how to make friends, and the sooner you start the better.

9. Man, age 42.

"But can't you tell me what to do? Can't you make a few suggestions? I'm willing to do anything, but I just don't know which way to turn. I'll work *hard* to help myself, if you'll just tell me whether you think it will help me or not. And whether you think I can get over this personality problem. If you'll just tell me what to do, I'll be so grateful to you."

a. Maybe one of the important parts of your situation is that you don't have real confidence in yourself. Do you see?
b. Really, it's not so important what you do so long as what you do is a product of your own self-dependence. You've got to learn to do the things that are good and right because you feel they are, not me.
c. I gather you just don't feel capable of working this out yourself?
d. Before it would be possible to answer any of your questions satisfactorily, I'd have to have quite a bit of information about you, about your family, your childhood, your work, your relationship with your wife, and so forth.
e. Well, you've really asked for a lot there, all right. I think I can best answer you in this way: We'll work together talking over these things that bother you. You'll think of some things, and I'll think of some things that maybe you've missed. And maybe between the two of us, we'll get to the bottom of all this and figure out a path for you to follow that will solve most if not all the problem. I wouldn't worry too much about it. I think we can be fairly sure of making headway.

10. Man, age 35.

"I expect that if I took this job, with the understanding that I'd be given the opportunity to prove my value to the firm—and had a chance for promotions—yes, I believe that's the soundest way to go about it. It's not as spectacular as I would like to have it. No, I don't really want a spectacular job anymore, just a good, solid job with a future. Yes. I'll take this job and discuss my plans with the boss quite frankly and honestly. Then my wife and I can get some feeling of permanence and we can buy a home and really think about the future here in this city. The kids need an anchor, too. They haven't had that, but from now on we are all going to have our feet down on solid earth."

a. That's fine. The long way around can be the short way home. I think you've really got your feet on the ground now for sure. The kind of thinking you're doing is certainly the most constructive.

b. That sounds good to me. I hope you can sell the boss on it.
c. I'm wondering if you've investigated the promotional policy of the company to see if the path you want to follow is the one most likely to lead to promotion?
d. Of course! As you get older you react more to the pressure for security.
e. It may not be spectacular, but I gather the soundness of it is what really appeals to you.

11. Man, age 30. Veteran.

"What's the use of anything? No one plays fair and square with anybody. The guys who stayed home got all the plums. They all took advantage of us while we sweated it out at the front. I hate their guts—every one of them. They are all double-crossers. And my wife . . . ."

a. You started to say something about your wife?
b. You feel that they took advantage of you and it really makes you boil.
c. You get angry when you see people trying to take advantage of you.
d. I understand how you feel about that, but it's going to block you from getting ahead if you don't try to get away from it.
e. You've got lots of company with your anger. It's justifiable in so many cases.

12. Man, age 33.

"I tell you I am in one hell of a fix! I'm in love with the best girl on the face of the earth, and she loves me. I'm sure of that. But I'm not worthy of her. I can't ask her to marry me. I've got a criminal record. She doesn't know about that. But I know it'll come out some day. No, I couldn't marry and have children. I've got a record that proves to the world that I'm a first class s.o.b."

a. Well, it would certainly be unfair to her to marry you and to discover about your past later. Don't you almost have to tell her about it now?
b. You feel afraid to face her with your record because she might turn you down, and you just couldn't stand that.
c. Could you tell me a little about why you're so sure that she wouldn't be able to accept you if she knew about your past?
d. Possibly if you were to have her come in to see me I could talk with her and lead her to see that your past is your past and does not necessarily mean that you couldn't have a happy future together.
e. You see yourself as unworthy of her beyond all shadow of a doubt.

13. Man, age 27.

"I've come to the conclusion that if I'm not happy in the work I'm doing, then I'll get another job. And that's what it adds up to. I've hung on because I spent four years in college getting ready to do it. Now I think I'd be a lot happier if I chucked the whole thing and entered this other field, even if it does mean starting at the bottom and working my way up."

a. You feel that you'd be a lot happier if you could just escape your work and start out in a field where you are more adequate; is that it?
b. Whether this is the field in which you'll end up no one can say, but it seems to me quite sound that you are counting more on yourself.
c. Have you thought of the possibility of working out a combination line? It seems a shame to just toss out all you've lined up so far.
d. You've decided that you'd do better to change.
e. How much study have you given this new field?

14. Woman, age 23. Physical handicap.

"I can't do any of the things my sister does. I can't dance or go riding, or date men. I'm a . . . I look at Charlene, and I wish I was her. You can't know the feeling I get deep inside me. I want to be able to have pretty clothes like hers and to go out and have a good time. It makes me sick inside me. But she can't help it. She was born that way. And I can't help it because I was born this way. And I get this feeling. I love my sister, really I do, but I just cried and cried until I was sick. I want the things other girls have. I can't help it. I'm only human. I know it's a sin to feel as I do. But she has *everything* and I have nothing."

a. Since you aren't going to be able to engage in physical activities as your sister does, I'm wondering if there aren't some other sources of activities that might be satisfying to you.
b. I can appreciate why you'd envy her so, but since you can't compete with her, it's not much use in using up your energies with envy. You've got to buckle down and build a world that satisfies you.
c. In other words, you feel envious of your sister because you can't compete with her and you feel guilty about your envy because you love your sister, too.
d. I'd like to get a better idea of just how you react to her directly and how she reacts to you in some of these situations.
e. You say in one breath that you envy your sister. You say next that you love her. Now couldn't your feelings of guilt be due to these conflicting feelings?

15. Man, age 27.

"I got out of the Navy last month and I thought, 'Now what?' I looked for a job and right there I ran into a snag. I couldn't make up my mind what to do. I thought I ought to go back to school and finish up, and I thought I'd be happier if I signed up for more Navy, and then I looked for a job and nothing stood out as a clear choice. Everything looked good and everything looked bad, and I felt . . . . Well, what the hell? Am I going nuts? Am I always going to be so messed up inside of me that I won't be able to move in *any* direction?"

a. You're wondering just what's at the bottom of it all.
b. Let's go ahead and discuss some of the things—why you don't want them and why do you want them—maybe we can find a clue that will point out the answer.
c. I think your criticism of yourself is a little harsh. Thousands of G.I.'s have felt the way you do.
d. No, I don't think you need to remain messed up or really that you're messed up now. You're confused, yes, but if you set your mind to it, you'll overcome your confusion and move ahead in a more natural manner.
e. You're confused and alarmed by your confusion. This is to be expected when you suddenly find yourself facing the necessity for making decisions after a long period of having even minor decisions made for you.

16. Man, age 35.

"I know I could make a success of that business. All a person needs is a little overall vision, some common sense, and the courage to try it. I've got that. So, if I could just get a hold of the cash, I'd sure take the plunge."

a. If you'd think it wise, I could give you the name of an investment counselor who'd be glad to go over the proposition with you and possibly give you some good leads on how to seek financial support.
b. That's fine! One must feel sure of himself if he expects to make a go of something. To go into something hesitantly can really make it get all mixed up. You're on the right track, and I wish you success.
c. If you could get the cash to start, you feel sure you could make a go of it.
d. You feel sure you could be successful because you now see what is involved in making the thing go. When you see things clearly, assurance follows.
e. Have you figured out what the risks are as yet?

17. Girl, age 18.

"Oh, I couldn't work through my problem without help. You ask me questions and tell me. Because I wouldn't be able to, honestly, I haven't got any idea how to go about it. I don't want to. It's like down at the office, I can't go ahead on my own. I just can't.

I want to be told. Then it's not my fault if things go wrong—and they could go wrong—because I don't know how things should be done. I feel so helpless."

a. You say it's not your fault if things go wrong even after you've been told what to do. Can you tell me what you mean there?
b. You feel that you just aren't capable of doing things unaided.
c. We'll need to work on building up your self-confidence.
d. Well, I could suggest some of the things you might talk about here in our interview and some of the things you might think about between interviews. I might also suggest some things for you to do about your office work that ought to make it a little easier for you.
e. You feel dependent on someone else for nearly everything you do, don't you? And it probably makes you panicky when people throw you on your own, too. But when people tell you what to do, you don't have to assume the real responsibility, and it's not your fault if things go wrong. They just didn't tell you enough.

18. Man, age 46.

"Well, this new man came into the company. He's a big shot. Has all the answers. Thinks he's going places. But, by God, he doesn't know George P. Quipenque! I'll get ahead of him if I have a stroke trying!"

a. You feel that you must be out in front, that it is really important to you to be the better man.
b. It's a fine thing to try to get ahead, but do you think that by starting out with such an attitude toward him you're going at it right?
c. And that will probably take a lot of careful planning and thinking. You'll want to go carefully.
d. You feel like this man is trying to get ahead of you.
e. Why is it so important to you to want to get ahead of this man?

19. Woman, age 30.

"It's not that I don't want to do something about it, I just—well—I know what I ought to do but for some reason or other, I just can't do a thing."

a. Maybe if we talked over what you've thought of doing, we could figure out what is best to do. It's possible that the answer is something new.
b. Let's try to get at what's behind this blocking. Tell me more about it.
c. Behind this blocked feeling you're experiencing is a conflict in your desires: you want to and you don't want to.
d. You're blocked by something and you don't know what it is, is that what you're saying?

e. Are you sure you know what you ought to do? It seems to me that if you really had a clear idea of what you ought to do, you'd be able to go ahead.

20. Man, age 60.

"I've got it all figured out. There's nothing for me to live for any more. My wife's dead. My kids don't need me. I'm too old to get a job. Just the fifth wheel on a wagon. And I'm tired of it all. I'm going to end it all, put a bullet through my brain and rest in peace."

a. You feel there's nothing left in life for you.
b. When things add up for a person like they've added up for you, it really does make it tough to face. And sometimes there doesn't seem to be a way out. Yet, I think that we may be able to find a way out.
c. How long have you felt this way, may I ask?
d. Escaping is one way, all right. But have you thought of what it would mean to your children to have you commit suicide?
e. It seems to me that you are looking for a way to escape an otherwise intolerable situation.

21. Woman, age 43.

"I've decided that this is not going to help me. All it does is make me realize what I have to do, and I'm sick of taking responsibility. I don't think I'll come back any more."

a. Of course, it has to be your decision. I can't force you to come. But you certainly aren't going to settle anything by backing away from it.
b. This has been too painful to you and now you want to escape the situation that produces the pain.
c. It just doesn't seem to fill the bill for you.
d. I'd like to know what your thinking has been in coming to this decision.
e. Sometimes taking responsibility can be a pretty demanding thing. Possibly if you decided to continue coming, we could reach a point where you enjoyed responsibility.

22. Man, age 41.

"I've been married four times and each time I've thought, 'Boy, this is the real thing!' But none of them has ever been like this woman. She's the most beautiful woman you ever saw. And dance! And she dresses like a million dollars. She's out of this world!"

a. You're really enthusiastic about her.
b. How does she compare with your other wives? How did you feel about them before you married?

c. If she's anything like you seem to feel she is, she must be quite a catch. Maybe this time you'll stick.
d. You may be making the same mistake again.
e. You're looking for some sort of ideal woman and the only way you can identify her is through her physical appearance.

23. Man, age 29.

"I keep remembering how I walked out on Mary and the two kids. Five years ago . . . . The law never caught up with me. I thought I was pretty smart. But now, God, was I a jerk! I don't see how I could do it. And I'm so ashamed I can't look people in the eye. Now I can't find her—not a trace. Her relatives won't tell me where she is. I tell you, I'll *never* have any self-respect. Never! And I, I don't know what to do or how I can even *try* to rectify my big mistake. I don't know!"

a. There are a number of things you might do to try to find her. You could list her as a missing person and get police help. You could get a private detective agency to handle it for you. You might even be able to get a court order that would force the relatives to give you her address.
b. When did you decide that you wanted her back? Tell me about the circumstances.
c. The hopelessness there seems pretty clearly connected with the feeling of guilt.
d. Are you at all sure that you should try to go back to her? If you left her once, maybe you'd do it again. Possibly you just didn't get along at all well and you were forced to leave her.
e. As you see it, then, your behavior is just plain unforgivable.

24. Man, age 39.

"There is no other way to handle this than to destroy them completely. Remember this man was supposed to be my best friend and he took my wife away from me. And after the divorce he married her. And then he pushed me out of the business. But I've got the evidence to ruin him. I could clean him out and put him behind bars for the rest of his life. (Laughs bitterly.) Wouldn't that be something? My ex-wife married to something kept behind bars and not a dime left to live on?"

a. Your desire to destroy them seems to me to be largely a desire for revenge. It may have grown out of the rejection and denial you experienced from both of them.
b. Wanting to get even is understandable, but don't you think that is going pretty far? I certainly wouldn't do anything I'd regret later.
c. You want them to suffer at your hand just as they made you suffer at theirs.
d. After all that, I can see where it would be really satisfying to see them suffer.
e. Has anyone else ever crossed you like that: in business, among your friends, when you were a kid in school?

25. Woman, age 28.

"I just looked at her. She isn't as attractive as I am. She isn't smart and she has no style. And I asked myself, 'How does she fool so many people?' Why can't they see through that sticky sweetness? She can always do a job in a hurry. Everyone is always admiring the way she does things, and I can't stand it. It just makes me sick. She has everything I want. She got my job. She got Bill—took him right away from me and then denied it. When I put it to her, I just told her what I thought and she said, 'I'm sorry.' But, well, I'll show her!"

a. Is she pretty much like the other girls with whom you've been thrown in contact?
b. You feel that she always gets what you really should have.
c. It sounds to me as if you're taking a pretty strong attitude against her. We all have prejudices against people but they seldom, if ever, do us any good.
d. You've got a case of plain, old-fashioned jealousy brought on by being thrown into contact with someone possibly a little more capable and slicker than yourself.
e. It sounds like you've had some rough treatment from her. She might see it differently, though.

HELPING RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY
ANSWER SHEET

Name _____

Group _____ Date _____

1.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	2.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
3.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	4.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
5.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	6.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
7.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	8.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
9.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	10.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
11.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	12.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
13.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	14.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
15.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	16.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
17.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	18.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
19.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	20.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
21.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	22.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
23.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e	24.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e
25.	____ a	____ b	____ c	____ d	____ e						

HELPING A RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY
SCORING SHEET

Name _____

Instructions: Transfer your responses from the answer sheet to this form, being careful to note that the *response options are in a different order on the scoring sheet.* Next, add the five columns on the left to get your scores on the odd-numbered items. Do the same for the even-numbered items. Copy the score for the "odds" under the scores for the "evens" and add them together to get your five total scores on the HRI.

1.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	e	a	d	c	b
3.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	b	d	c	e	a
5.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	a	c	b	d	e
7.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	b	a	e	d	c
9.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	c	d	a	e	b
11.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	b	a	c	e	d
13.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	d	e	a	b	c
15.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	a	b	e	d	c
17.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	b	a	e	d	c
19.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	d	b	c	a	e
21.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	c	d	b	e	a
23.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	e	b	c	a	d
25.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	b	a	d	e	c

Odd _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Check: The total of these five scores should equal 195.

2.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	d	e	a	b	c
4.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	c	b	e	a	d
6.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	a	e	b	c	d
8.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	c	b	d	a	e
10.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	e	c	d	b	a
12.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	e	c	b	d	a
14.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	c	d	e	a	b
16.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	c	e	d	b	a
18.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	d	e	a	c	b
20.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	a	c	e	b	d
22.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	a	b	e	c	d
24.	____	____	_____	____	_____
	c	e	a	b	d

Even _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Check: These five scores should add up to 180.

Odd _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Total _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

U P I S E

Check: The sum of these total scores should be 375.

HELPING RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY
PROFILE SHEET

Percentile	Understanding	Probing	Interpretive	Supportive	Evaluative
99	25	34	53	62	55
95	26	45	61	73	66
90	27	50	65	76	72
85	29	53	68	80	77
80	30	55	69	82	80
75	31	58	71	84	84
70	33	60	72	86	87
65	34	61	73	88	89
60	36	63	75	89	92
55	39	64	76	90	93
50	41	66	77	91	94
45	45	68	78	92	95
40	48	69	80	93	97
35	52	71	81	95	98
30	56	73	82	96	99
25	60	74	84	97	101
20	64	77	86	98	102
15	72	80	88	100	103
10	77	83	91	101	106
5	91	88	94	103	109
1	103	94	99	108	112

Your Scores _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Your Helping Relationship Inventory Scores

Your profile of scores on the Profile Sheet allows you to compare yourself to the responses of 290 counselors. The solid horizontal line represents the scores of the hypothetical "average" counselor, and the dotted lines contain the middle fifty percent of counselors.

A *low* score indicates a *preference* for a given way of responding to someone you are trying to help, and a high score shows a lack of preference for a given response mode. The average counselor reports his or her preference in the order appearing on the graph, that is: Understanding, Probing, Interpretive, Supportive, and Evaluative.

A general description of each of the response modes appears below:

U—*Understanding.* A response tendency that indicates that the counselor's intent is to respond in a manner that asks the client whether the counselor understands what the client is "saying," how the client "feels" about it, how it "strikes" the client, or how the client "sees" it. This is the Rogerian reflection-of-feeling approach.

P—*Probing.* A response tendency that indicates that the counselor's intent is to gather further information, provoke further discussion along a certain line—to query. He or she in some way implies that the client ought to or might profitably develop or discuss a point further.

I—*Interpretive.* A response tendency that indicates that the counselor's intent is to teach, to impart meaning to the client, to show him or her. The counselor in some way implies what the client might or ought to think, however grossly or subtly.

S—*Supportive.* A response tendency that indicates that the counselor's intent is to reassure, to reduce the client's intensity of feeling, to pacify. The counselor in some way implies that the client need not feel the way he or she does.

E—*Evaluative*. A response tendency that indicates that the counselor has made a judgment of relative goodness, appropriateness, effectiveness, or rightness. The counselor in some way implies what the client might or ought to do, however grossly or subtly.

Scores above the 75th percentile indicate that you show *more* preference than the average counselor for those ways of responding to clients. Scores below the 25th percentile show that you expressed *less* preference for those response styles.

It is important to bear in mind that these are similarity comparisons, and they do not suggest whether you might be effective in your helping relationships.

INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST (ICL)

Rolfe LaForge

The Interpersonal Checklist (ICL) is a 134-item list of words or phrases that may be used to obtain self-descriptions of others with respect to an interpersonal domain of personality. It is appropriate for use in studying small-group phenomena and the family and for research on assessment and diagnosis.

The ICL should be regarded as a structured channel for communication rather than as an instrument for "measuring" personality or social phenomena. The list may be modified to meet specific requirements and purposes.

The ICL is in nontechnical language immediately comprehensible to decision makers with no training in psychology or social science. Its theoretical interpretation as a communication *about* a real or imaginary person, *from* an individual *to* another person *in* a specified situation, is readily understood by the user.

The checklist is a convenient technique for objectively obtaining and quantifying much of the information about interpersonal relationships commonly obtained in a first interview. The interpersonal categories belong to our common linguistic heritage; their understanding does not require specialized knowledge, such as psychoanalytic theory or psychiatric nosology.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ICL

The ICL was developed by LaForge and Suczek (1955) as part of a larger effort to conceptualize interpersonal processes in small groups (Freedman et al., 1951). Through empirical studies, these researchers arrived at a set of sixteen interpersonal categories arrayed in a circular pattern around the two axes of Dominance-Submission and Love-Hate. Modifications and alternative circular systems of interpersonal variables have been developed over a period of two decades; many of these are reviewed by Wiggins (1973, pp. 475-488).

RATIONALE

Implicitly, social desirability was balanced in the construction of the ICL to the extent that social desirability is correlated with endorsement frequency. ICL items were chosen so that every *intensity* classification was equally represented in every *interpersonal* classification. That is, each of the sixteen interpersonal categories is represented in the ICL by eight words or phrases: one of these items is an "Intensity One" item; three are "Intensity Two" items; three are "Intensity Three"; and one is "Intensity Four." In this sense, the *intensity* classification is orthogonal to the interpersonal classification.

Because the summary variables have relatively low intercorrelations (with the exception of that between NIC and AIN) and because their interpretations are clearer than those possible with empirically derived factors, it would seem that DOM, LOV, AIN, and NIC best summarize the information carried by the ICL. If the intensity scores are not relevant to the purposes of an investigation, the three variables DOM, LOV, and NIC suffice.

INTERPRETATION CAUTIONS

The wide variety of uses to which the ICL may be put (e.g., as a multivariate sociometric technique, a self-acceptance inventory, a family or small-group interpersonal perception instrument) leads to some specific effects and cautions. Most of these can be derived by considering the ICL simply as a communication from the subject to the examiner concerning the former's assessment of a "figure" (a real or imaginary person or interpersonal role). Considered in this light, the ICL responses are clearly subject to all the forces affecting and distorting any interpersonal communication. The basic approach that the ICL represents is not the "measurement" of personality traits existing "in" the subject. Scores derived from interpersonal communications of this type are clearly "measurements" of ephemeral phenomena and can probably more satisfactorily be regarded as counts of how many elements of specified classes occur under specified conditions.

According to this approach, responses to *any* personality questionnaire (such as a person's ICL description of another figure) are interpreted as communications from that person to those he or she believes may see his or her responses, with due regard for the test situation and the context of his or her larger life situation. Content focuses his or her communication. The choice of items and the scoring, which operationally define the questionnaire, impose arbitrary limits and a structure on his or her attempts to communicate. The person's temporary and enduring motivations, perceptions, and values also affect the communication. Because these effects "are differentially reflected . . . the ICL is an effective and flexible observational device for personality research" (LaForge & Suczek, 1955, p. 111).

Attempts to view any personality "test" as something more than a structured communication frequently have led to artifact, misinterpretation, and confusion. Because the ICL was designed to give "scores reflecting as closely as possible the behavior and experience of the individual patient" (LaForge & Suczek, 1955, p. 8) as he or she would manifest these in an interview-like situation, the ICL is perhaps less likely to suffer from distortion due to the investigator's interpretive bias than are tests whose variables have definitions more remote from the test situation and hence more remote from the investigator's own experience and understanding.

ADMINISTRATION

Ten to fifteen minutes should be allowed for a respondent to complete a checklist description of a single figure. In general, it is not advisable to ask a subject to describe more than five figures at one sitting.

For the purposes of giving feedback to subjects about their responses, interpreting the results to individuals not familiar with the interpersonal system, or writing descriptive personality sketches of representative individuals or groups, the use of circular graphical summaries is most convenient. The circular graph has been broken into four quadrants to meet CD-ROM allowances; the quadrants should be rejoined to present an overall picture for scoring.

REFERENCES

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LaForge, R. (1973). *Using the ICL*. Unpublished technical report.

LaForge, R., & Suczek, R.F. (1955). The interpersonal dimension of personality: III: An interpersonal check list. *Journal of Personality, 24,* 94-112.

Wiggins, J.S. (1973). *Personality and prediction: Principles of personality assessment.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST (ICL)

Rolfe LaForge and Robert F. Suczek

Name _____

Person Described _____

Instructions: Choose either yourself or some other person to describe in this checklist. Circle the number of each of the following words or phrases that would usually describe you or that other person.

1. Able to give orders
2. Appreciate
3. Apologetic
4. Able to take care of self
5. Accepts advice readily
6. Able to doubt others
7. Affectionate and understanding
8. Acts important
9. Able to criticize self
10. Admires and imitates others
11. Agrees with everyone
12. Always ashamed of self
13. Very anxious to be approved of
14. Always giving advice
15. Bitter
16. Big-hearted and unselfish
17. Boastful
18. Businesslike
19. Bossy
20. Can be frank and honest
21. Clinging vine
22. Can be strict if necessary
23. Considerate
24. Cold and unfeeling
25. Can complain if necessary
26. Cooperative
27. Complaining
28. Can be indifferent to others
29. Critical of others
30. Can be obedient
31. Cruel and unkind
32. Dependent
33. Dictatorial
34. Distrusts everybody
35. Dominating
36. Easily embarrassed
37. Eager to get along with others
38. Easily fooled
39. Egotistical and conceited
40. Easily led
41. Encourages others
42. Enjoys taking care of others
43. Expects everyone to admire him/her
44. Faithful follower
45. Frequently disappointed
46. Firm but just
47. Fond of everyone
48. Forceful
49. Friendly
50. Forgives anything
51. Frequently angry
52. Friendly all the time
53. Generous to a fault
54. Gives freely of self
55. Good leader
56. Grateful

57. Hard-boiled when necessary
58. Helpful
59. Hard hearted
60. Hard to convince
61. Hot tempered
62. Hard to impress
63. Impatient with others' mistakes
64. Independent
65. Irritable
66. Jealous
67. Kind and reassuring
68. Likes responsibility
69. Lacks self-confidence
70. Likes to compete with others
71. Lets others make decisions
72. Likes everybody
73. Likes to be taken care of
74. Loves everybody
75. Makes a good impression
76. Manages others
77. Meek
78. Modest
79. Hardly ever talks back
80. Often admired
81. Obeys too willingly
82. Often gloomy
83. Outspoken
84. Overprotective
85. Often unfriendly
86. Oversympathetic
87. Often helped by others
88. Passive and unaggressive
89. Proud and self-satisfied
90. Always pleasant and agreeable
91. Resentful
92. Self-reliant and assertive
93. Rebels against everything
94. Resents being bossed
95. Self-reliant and assertive
96. Sarcastic
97. Self-punishing
98. Self-confident
99. Self-seeking
100. Shrewd and calculating
101. Self-respecting
102. Shy
103. Sincere and devoted to friends
104. Selfish
105. Skeptical
106. Sociable and neighborly
107. Slow to forgive a wrong
108. Somewhat snobbish
109. Spineless
110. Stern but fair
111. Spoils people with kindness
112. Straightforward and direct
113. Stubborn
114. Suspicious
115. Too easily influenced by friends
116. Thinks only of self
117. Tender and soft hearted
118. Timid
119. Too lenient with others
120. Touchy and easily hurt
121. Too willing to give to others
122. Tries to be too successful
123. Trusting and eager to please
124. Tries to comfort everyone
125. Usually gives in
126. Very respectful of authority
127. Wants everyone's love
128. Well-thought of
129. Wants to be led
130. Will confide in anyone
131. Warm
132. Wants everyone to like him/her
133. Will believe anyone
134. Well-behaved

INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST SCORE SHEET

Instructions:

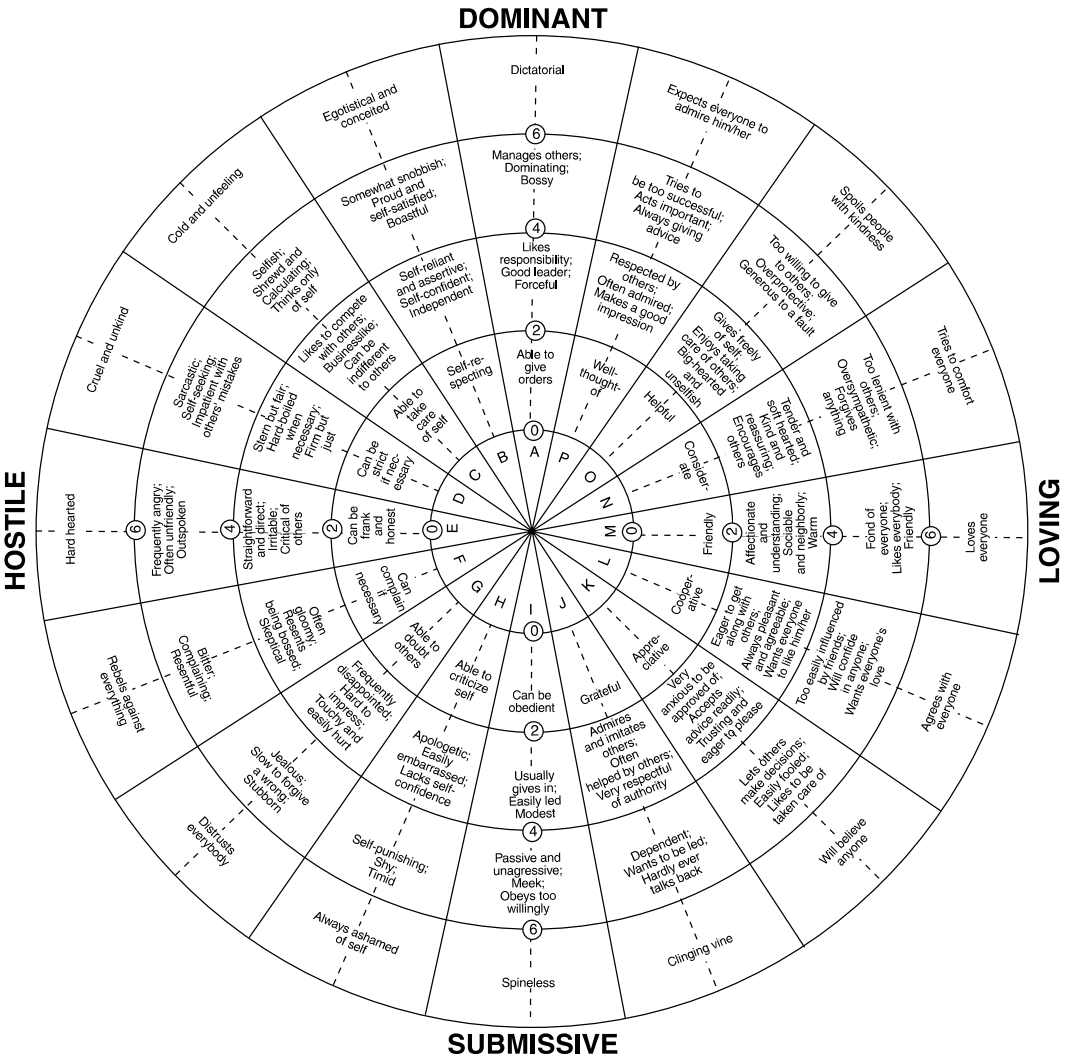
1. In each column below, circle the items that you marked. Count the number of circled items in each column and in each row. Then add the column counts and the row counts; these sums should be equal to each other; they indicate the total number of items circled (NIC).
2. Multiply the number of items circled in each row by the number indicated at the right and sum these four products. Then divide by NIC to obtain the average intensity of the items circled (AIN).

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Number of Items Circled	
1	101	4	22	20	25	6	9	30	56	2	26	49	23	58	128		× 1 =
48	64	18	46	29	82	45	3	78	10	5	37	7	41	16	75		
55	95	28	57	65	94	62	36	40	87	13	90	106	67	42	80		
68	98	70	110	112	105	120	69	125	126	123	132	131	117	54	92		× 2 =
19	17	104	63	51	15	66	97	81	32	38	115	47	50	53	8		
35	89	100	96	85	27	107	102	77	79	71	127	52	86	84	14		
76	108	116	99	83	91	113	118	88	129	73	130	72	119	121	122		× 3 =
33	39	24	31	59	93	34	12	109	21	133	11	74	124	111	43		× 4 =
																	Sum of Products
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	TOTAL NIC	÷ NIC
																	= AIN

3. Place the number of items circled in each column in the corresponding lettered box at the bottom of this Score Sheet and do the indicated arithmetic computations.

								A		– I		=			
B		+ P		– H		– J		=		× .924		=			
C		+ O		– G		– K		=		× .707		=			
D		+ N		– F		– L		=		× .383		=			
											Total			DOM	
												=			
								M		– E		=			
N		+ L		– D		– F		=		× .924		=			
O		+ K		– C		– G		=		× .707		=			
P		+ J		– B		– H		=		× .383	Total			LOV	

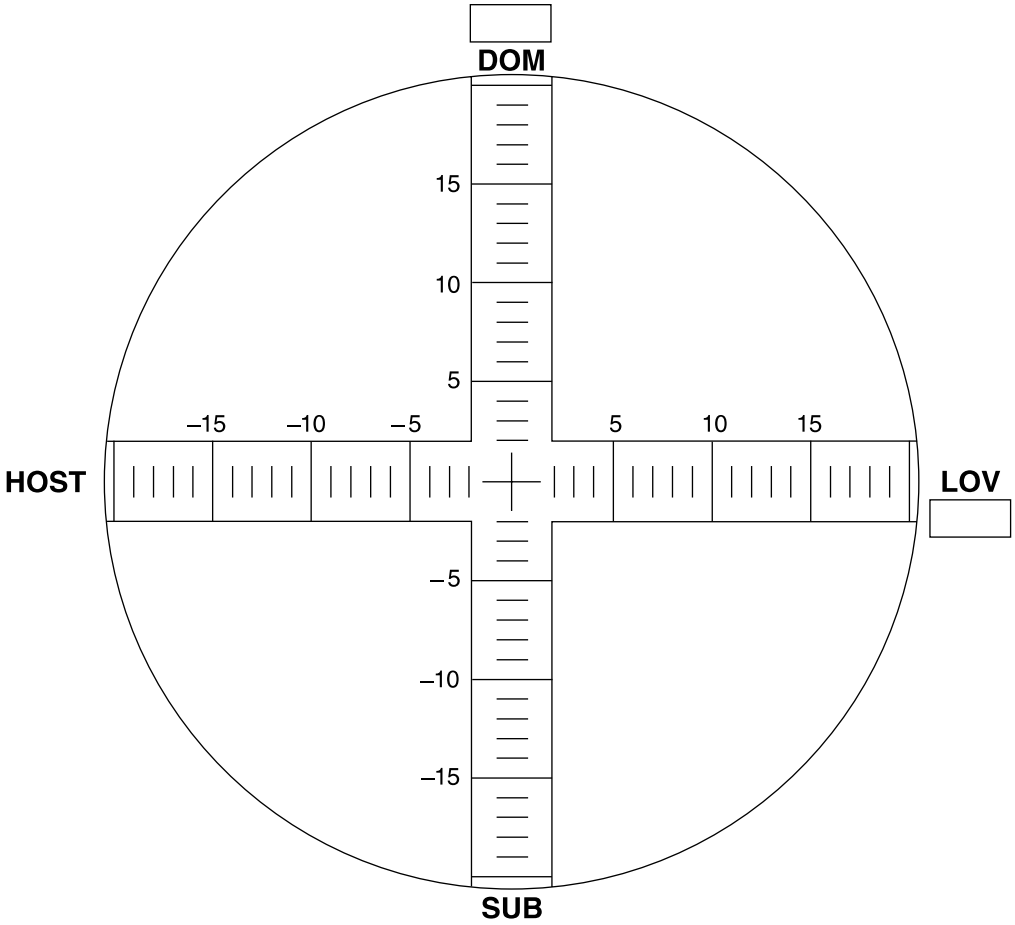
INTERPERSONAL CHECKLIST PROFILE SHEET



The Sixteenths

Instructions: Print out and combine the four quadrants to form a circle, with "Dominant" at the top, "Submissive" at the bottom, "Loving" on the right, and "Hostile" on the left. In each of the areas marked "A" through "P" at the center of the circle, copy your sixteen scores. (These are found on the bottom row of the chart at the top of the Score Sheet.) Then place an "X" that represents each score on the dotted line in the center of each segment and connect these points with a solid line to produce a graphic profile.

Interpretation: High scores (toward the perimeter) indicate more negative self-descriptions, and low scores (toward the center) suggest relatively positive self-evaluations. The scales in the *right* hemisphere of the circle indicate the extent to which you described yourself as *loving;* the scores in the *left,* as *hostile.* Scales in the *top* hemisphere of the circle depict the degree to which you described yourself as *dominant;* the scores in the *bottom*, as *submissive.*

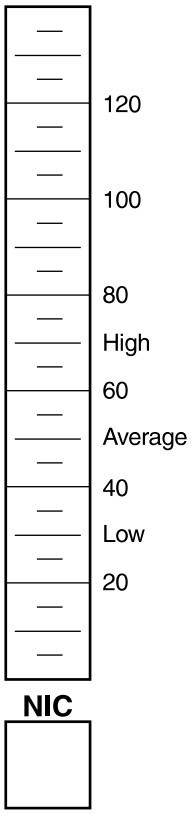


Dominant / Loving

Instructions: Copy your DOM and LOV scores in the two boxes outside the circle. Then locate each on the two axes of the circle. Shade in the bar from the center of the circle to each of the scores, forming an "L-shaped" profile.

Interpretation: These two scores contain the major information concerning how you described yourself. They represent two essentially independent aspects of your personality—the extent to which you described yourself as dominant vs. submissive and as loving vs. hostile.

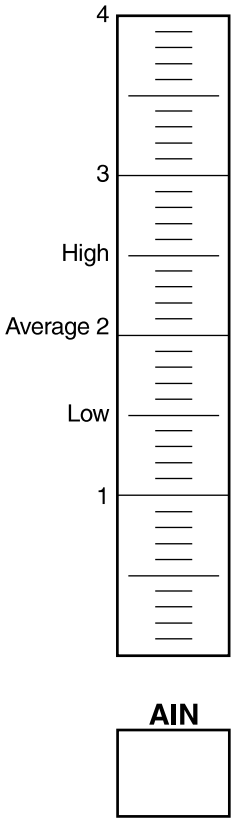
Scale	Score	Self-Description
DOM	High +	I take charge, lead, persuade, control, manage, and dominate others for my own purposes.
	High –	I follow, give in, put myself down, accommodate, obey, and submit to others in a dependent way.
LOV	High +	I love, comfort, spoil, protect, agree with, forgive, and sympathize with others to get their affection.
	High –	I distrust, rebel against, complain about, resent, and feel anger toward others in a self-centered way.



Number of Items Checked

Instructions: Next to the graph below, copy your NIC score from the lower right-hand corner of the chart at the top of the Score Sheet. Shade the bar up to the score on the graph.

Interpretation: Because the ICL can be considered a communication channel, the number of items that you checked might be interpreted as an index of the degree to which you are willing to disclose yourself to whomever will see your scores. Analyzed this way, then, a low score might suggest a hesitancy to reveal yourself to the other(s), and a high score might suggest openness. (The high, average, and low designations are based on the scores of beginning university psychology students [LaForge, 1973].) However, checking more items also usually implies checking more self-critical items (see the following discussion of Average Intensity).



Average Intensity

Instructions: Next to the graph below, copy your AIN score, which you computed on the Score Sheet. Shade the bar up to the score on the graph.

Interpretation: Because the adjectives included in each of the sixteen ICL scales are arranged according to their intensity, this index indicates the average level of intensity endorsed in your checkmarks. In scale A, for example, item 1 (“Able to give orders”) is less intense than item 33 (“Dictatorial”). A high score indicates self-criticism, as it results from negative self-descriptions. (High, average, and low scores on the graph are from LaForge [1973].)

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION INVENTORY

Millard J. Bienvenu, Sr.

The ability to be an effective communicator seems to be based on five interpersonal components:

1. An adequate self-concept, the single most important factor affecting people's communication with others;
2. The ability to be a good listener, a skill that has received little attention until recently;
3. The skill of expressing one's thoughts and ideas clearly, which many people find difficult to do;
4. Being able to cope with one's emotions—particularly angry feelings—and expressing them in a constructive way; and
5. The willingness to disclose oneself to others truthfully and freely. Such self-disclosure is necessary for satisfactory interpersonal relationships.

In the early 1970s, several research techniques and devices were developed to study interpersonal communication in several areas: marriage counseling, parent-child counseling, group therapy, and small-group communication.

The Interpersonal Communication Inventory (ICI) is applicable generally to social interaction in a wide variety of situations. It is an attempt to measure general tendencies in interpersonal communication and it may be used as a counseling tool, as a teaching device, as a supplement to an interview, by management, or for further research.

A fifty-four-item scale measures the process of communication as an element of social interaction; it is not intended to measure content but to identify patterns, characteristics, and styles of communication.

The items included were drawn from a review of the literature in the field and from the author's counseling experience and his work on related communication scales.

The instrument is probably best suited for individuals of high school age or older. It can be adapted to either sex and any marital status.

Items in the ICI are designed to sample the dimensions of self-concept, listening, clarity of expression, difficulties in coping with angry feelings, and self-disclosure.

This instrument is closely linked to Dr. Myron R. Chartier's article, "Five Components Contributing to Effective Interpersonal Communications," which appears in the Lecturettes section of *The 1974 Annual*. The lecturette discusses and develops aspects of the "Interpersonal Communication Inventory."

Engaged in ongoing research, the author would like to collaborate with others using the ICI. He has also developed a guide to the ICI which may be obtained from him on request.

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Bienvenu, M.J., Sr. (1970b). Parent-adolescent communication and self-esteem. *Journal of Home Economics, 62,* 344-345.

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INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION INVENTORY

Millard J. Bienvenu, Sr.

This inventory[1] offers you an opportunity to make an objective study of the degree and patterns of communication in your interpersonal relationships. It will enable you to better understand how you present and use yourself in communicating with persons in your daily contacts and activities. You will find it both interesting and helpful to make this study.

Instructions

- The questions refer to persons other than your family members or relatives.
- Please answer each question as quickly as you can according to the way you feel *at the moment* (not the way you usually feel or felt last week).
- Please do not consult anyone while completing this inventory. You may discuss it with someone after you have completed it. Remember that the value of this form will be lost if you change *any* answer during or after this discussion.
- Honest answers are very necessary. Please be as frank as possible, since your answers are confidential.
- Use the following examples for practice. Put a check (✓) in *one* of the three blanks on the right to show how the question applies to your situation.

	Yes (usually)	**No** (seldom)	**Some-times**
Is it easy for you to express your views to others?	_____	_____	_____
Do others listen to your point of view?	_____	_____	_____

- The **Yes** column is to be used when the question can be answered as happening *most of the time or usually.* The **No** column is to be used when the question can be answered as *seldom or never.*
- The **Sometimes** column should be marked when you definitely cannot answer **Yes** or **No**. *Use this column as little as possible.*
- Read each question carefully. If you cannot give the exact answer to a question, answer the best you can but be sure to answer each one. There are no right or wrong answers. Answer according to the way *you* feel *at the present time.* Remember, do not refer to family members in answering the questions.

	Yes (usually)	**No** (seldom)	**Some-times**
1. Do your words come out the way you would like them to in conversation?			
2. When you are asked a question that is not clear, do you ask the person to explain what he or she means?			
3. When you are trying to explain something, do other persons have a tendency to put words into your mouth?			
4. Do you merely assume that the other person knows what you are trying to say without your explaining what you really mean?			
5. Do you ever ask the other person to tell you how he or she feels about the point you may be trying to make?			
6. Is it difficult for you to talk with other people?			
7. In conversation, do you talk about things that are of interest to both you and the other person?			
8. Do you find it difficult to express your ideas when they differ from the ideas of those around you?			
9. In conversation, do you try to put yourself in the other person's shoes?			
10. In conversation, do you have a tendency to do more talking than the other person?			
11. Are you aware of how your tone of voice may affect others?			
12. Do you refrain from saying something that you know will only hurt others or make matters worse?			
13. Is it difficult for you to accept constructive criticism from others?			
14. When someone has hurt your feelings, do you discuss this with him or her?			

	Yes (usually)	**No** (seldom)	**Some-times**
15. Do you later apologize to someone whose feelings you may have hurt?			
16. Does it upset you a great deal when someone disagrees with you?			
17. Do you find it difficult to think clearly when you are angry with someone?			
18. Do you fail to disagree with others because you are afraid they will get angry?			
19. When a problem arises between you and another person, can you discuss it without getting angry?			
20. Are you satisfied with the way you settle your differences with others?			
21. Do you pout and sulk for a long time when someone upsets you?			
22. Do you become very uneasy when someone pays you a compliment?			
23. Generally, are you able to trust other individuals?			
24. Do you find it difficult to compliment and praise others?			
25. Do you deliberately try to conceal your faults from others?			
26. Do you help others to understand you by saying how you think, feel, and believe?			
27. Is it difficult for you to confide in people?			
28. Do you have a tendency to change the subject when your feelings enter into a discussion?			
29. In conversation, do you let the other person finish talking before reacting to what he or she says?			
30. Do you find yourself not paying attention while in conversation with others?			

	Yes (usually)	**No** (seldom)	**Some-times**
31. Do you ever try to listen for meaning when someone is talking?	_____	_____	_____
32. Do others seem to be listening when you are talking?	_____	_____	_____
33. In a discussion, is it difficult for you to see things from the other person's point of view?	_____	_____	_____
34. Do you pretend that you are listening to others when actually you are not?	_____	_____	_____
35. In conversation, can you tell the difference between what a person is saying and what he or she may be feeling?	_____	_____	_____
36. While speaking, are you aware of how others are reacting to what you are saying?	_____	_____	_____
37. Do you feel that other people wish you were a different kind of person?	_____	_____	_____
38. Do other people understand your feelings?	_____	_____	_____
39. Do others remark that you always seem to think you are right?	_____	_____	_____
40. Do you admit that you are wrong when you know that you are wrong about something?	_____	_____	_____

Total Score [ ]

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION INVENTORY
SCORING KEY AND NORMS

Instructions: Look at how you responded to each item in the ICI. In front of the item write the appropriate weight from the table on this page. For example, if you answered "Yes" to item 1, you would find below that you get three points; write the number 3 in front of item 1 in the inventory and proceed to score item 2. When you have finished scoring each of the forty items, add up your total score. You may wish to compare your score with the norms listed below.

	Yes	*No*	*Sometimes*		*Yes*	*No*	*Sometimes*
1.	3	0	2	21.	0	3	1
2.	3	0	2	22.	0	3	1
3.	0	3	1	23.	3	0	2
4.	0	3	1	24.	0	3	1
5.	3	0	2	25.	0	3	1
6.	0	3	1	26.	3	0	2
7.	3	0	2	27.	0	3	1
8.	0	3	1	28.	0	3	1
9.	3	0	2	29.	3	0	2
10.	0	3	1	30.	0	3	1
11.	3	0	2	31.	3	0	2
12.	3	0	2	32.	3	0	2
13.	0	3	1	33.	0	3	1
14.	3	0	2	34.	0	3	1
15.	3	0	2	35.	3	0	2
16.	0	3	1	36.	3	0	2
17.	0	3	1	37.	0	3	1
18.	0	3	1	38.	3	0	2
19.	3	0	2	39.	0	3	1
20.	3	0	2	40.	3	0	2

Means and Standard Deviations for the ICI

Age Groups		*Males*			*Females*
17-21	*Mean*	81.79		*Mean*	81.48
	S.D.	21.56		*S.D.*	20.06
	N.	53		*N.*	80
22-25	*Mean*	86.03		*Mean*	94.46
	S.D.	14.74		*S.D.*	11.58
	N.	38		*N.*	26
26 and up	*Mean*	90.73		*Mean*	86.93
	S.D.	19.50		*S.D.*	15.94
	N.	56		*N.*	45
All Age Groups by Sex	*Mean*	86.39		*Mean*	85.34
	S.D.	19.46		*S.D.*	18.22
	N.	147		*N.*	151
All Age Groups Males and Females Combined			*Mean*	85.93	
			S.D.	19.05	
			N.	298	

INTERPERSONAL STYLES: THE SPIRO INSTRUMENT

Udai Pareek

A person influences (or at least attempts to influence) other persons with whom he or she interacts. In some roles, e.g., managerial and helping roles, influence is a central function. One of the main functions of a manager is to influence others for the achievement of work objectives. Another managerial function is to help one's subordinates to develop. Even more directly involved in influencing others are teachers, trainers, consultants, and counselors. The process of helping someone to learn and change is essentially the process of influencing the individual's ideas, values, attitudes, and behavior.

Those in influencing roles not only solve problems and help others but they also have an impact on others' ability to solve future problems. They can develop others or they can make them dependent, limiting their autonomy. Their habitual ways of interacting with their employees, participants, trainees, or clients can be called their interpersonal styles.

THE FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING STYLES

A useful conceptual framework to describe an individual's style is transactional analysis (TA). Transactional analysis concepts are quite popular, and two basic concepts can be used to understand influence styles: the ego states and the existential positions.

Each person involved in transactions with others has three ego states:

1. *The Parent* regulates behavior (through prescriptions and sanctions) and nurtures (by providing support).
2. *The Adult* collects information and processes it.
3. *The Child* has several functions primarily concerned with (a) creativity, curiosity, and fun; (b) reactions to others (including rebellion); and (c) adjusting to others' demands or sulking.

Each ego state is important. However, the functional or dysfunctional roles of these ego states depend on the general existential or life position a person takes. Harris (1969) has conceptualized four primary existential or life positions: I'm OK, you're OK; I'm not OK, you're OK; I'm OK, you're not OK; and I'm not OK, you're not OK.

James (1975) has suggested that, in general, the concepts of OK and not OK can be used to understand how bosses behave. Avary (1980) has similarly proposed OK and not-OK dimensions of the six ego states. Savorgnan (1979) has discussed the OK and not-OK dimensions of the two Parent ego states. Figure l shows the four life positions in terms of interaction styles.

The four general interaction styles can be elaborated by combining them with the ego states. Two dimensions of the Parent ego state (critical or regulating and nurturing), three of the Child ego state (adaptive, reactive, and free or creative), and the Adult ego state are used. All three ego states and the subego states are important and perform distinct functions. Each ego state meets a basic need. Avary (1980) has proposed that six basic needs are met by the six ego states, which can be OK or not OK. These are:

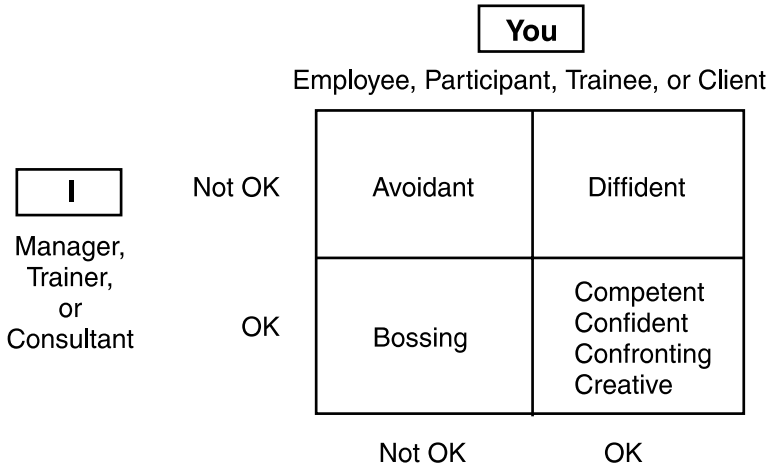

Figure 1. General Interaction Styles in Four Life Positions

1. The need to express love and care, manifesting as Nurturing Parent (OK) Or Rescuing Parent (not OK);
2. The need for power, faith, and self-confidence as Firm Parent (OK) or Critical Parent (not OK);
3. The need to think and evaluate information as an Adult (OK) or any not-OK ego state;
4. The biological needs and the need to feel and experience stimulation as a Natural Child (OK) or a Persona (not OK);
5. The need to be creative or intuitive as a “Little Professor” (OK) or a Rebellious or Defensive Child (not OK);
6. The need for approval and safety as an OK-Adapted Child (OK) or a Helpless Child (not OK).

The interpersonal style of an individual depends on the person’s combination of the six ego states with the life positions. Combining the six ego states with the four life positions, we obtain twenty-four influence styles, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Elaborated Interpersonal Styles

Ego States		Basic Need	Life Positions			
			I'm Not OK, You're Not OK	*I'm OK, You're Not OK*	*I'm OK, You're OK*	*I'm Not OK, You're OK*
Parent	Regulating	Love, Care	Traditional	Prescriptive	Normative	Indifferent
	Nurturing	Power	Over-indulgent	Rescuing	Supportive	Ingratiating
Adult		Rationality	Cynical	Task Obsessive	Problem Solving	Overwhelming
Child	Adaptive	Approval, Safety	Sulking	Complaining	Resilient	Dependent
	Reactive	Aggression	Withdrawn	Aggressive	Confronting	Intropunitive
	Creative	Creativity	Humorous	Bohemian	Innovative	Satirical

STYLES PROFILE

The twenty-four styles shown in Table 1 may be too extensive for some situations. As James (1975) and Avary (1980) have suggested, two dimensions (OK and not OK) can be combined with the various life positions. Combining the six ego states (two Parent, one Adult, and three Child) with the two life positions (OK and not OK), we obtain twelve styles. These are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Twelve Influence Styles

Ego States	Styles in Two Life Positions	
	Not OK	*OK*
Nurturing Parent	Rescuing	Supportive
Regulating Parent	Prescriptive	Normative
Adult	Task Obsessive	Problem Solving
Creative Child	Bohemian	Innovative
Reactive Child	Aggressive	Confronting
Adaptive Child	Sulking	Resilient

Rescuing Style: Such a style indicates a dependency relationship in which the manager, trainer, or consultant perceives his or her main role as that of rescuing the subordinate, participant, trainee, or client, who is seen as being incapable of taking care of himself or herself. Another characteristic of this style is that support is provided conditionally, contingent on deference to the provider. The general attitude is one of superiority; the person's support constantly reminds others of their dependence. Obviously, this style does not help other people to become independent and to act by themselves.

Supportive Style: In this style, support is provided when needed. James (1975) uses the term "supportive coaches" for managers with this style. They encourage their subordinates and provide the necessary conditions for continuous improvement. Consultants in this style show patience in learning about the problems of their clients and have empathy with them.

Prescriptive Style: People with this style are critical of the behavior of others and develop rules and regulations and impose them on others. Managers using this style make quick judgments and insist that certain norms be followed by all their subordinates. A consultant may give advice and prescribe solutions for clients rather than helping the clients to work out alternative solutions for their problems.

Normative Style: These managers are interested in developing proper norms of behavior for their subordinates but also in helping the subordinates to understand why some norms are more important than others. A consultant with this style not only helps clients to solve a specific problem but also helps them to develop ways of approaching a problem and raises questions about relevant values. Such a consultant emphasizes the development of a general approach to the problem. Trainers with this style influence the participants through modeling behavior. They also raise questions about the appropriateness of some aspects of behavior and work.

Task-Obsessive Style: People with this style are most concerned with the task. Matters not directly related to the task are ignored. They are not concerned with feelings and, in fact, fail to recognize them, as they do not perceive them as related to the task. They attempt to function like computers. A task-obsessive trainer is insensitive to the emotional needs, personal problems, and apprehensions of the participants.

Problem-Solving Style: In this style, a manager is concerned with solving problems but does not see the problems as being merely confined to the task. For such persons, the problems have various dimensions. The focus of the manager, consultant, or trainer is on dealing with and finding out solutions to problems. In this process they solicit the help of and involve subordinates, clients, trainees, and participants.

Bohemian Style: The creative child is active in this style. The person has lots of ideas and is impatient with current practices. The person is less concerned with how the new ideas work than with the ideas themselves. Such people are nonconformists and enjoy experimenting with new approaches, primarily for fun. They rarely allow one idea or practice to stabilize before going on to another.

Innovative Style: People with this style have enthusiasm about new ideas and new approaches and take others along with them. However, they pay enough attention to nurturing an idea so that it results in concrete action and becomes internalized in the system. Such people are innovators.

Aggressive Style: People with this style are fighters. They show their aggression toward others. They may fight for their subordinates, clients, or participants, or for their

ideas and suggestions, hoping that this will help them to achieve their desired results. Their aggressiveness, however, makes people avoid them and not take them seriously.

Confronting Style: In this style, the person is concerned with the exploration of a problem. Perseverance is a main characteristic. They confront the organization to get things done for their subordinates or clients. They are more concerned with confronting problems than with confronting other persons for the sake of confrontation. A consultant with this style may also confront the client in order to help the client to openly explore various dimensions. Such people are frank and open but are equally perceptive and sensitive. They respect the feelings of others.

Sulking Style: People with this style keep their negative feelings to themselves, find it difficult to share them, and avoid meeting people if they have not been able to fulfill their part of the contract. Instead of confronting problems, a person in this style avoids them and feels bad about the situation but does not express these feelings openly.

Resilient Style: In this style, persons show creative adaptability-learning from others, accepting others' ideas, and changing their approaches when change is needed.

Persons in influence roles (managers, consultants, counselors, or trainers) may show several of the behaviors described in this article. Each person, however, uses one style more frequently than others.

THE SPIRO INSTRUMENT

A manager, trainer, or consultant develops a consistent way of interacting with people and situations—a style. There are several dimensions of human and situational interactions, thus, a range of interactional dimensions or styles. The Styles Profile of Interaction Roles in Organizations (SPIRO) has been designed to obtain a profile of managerial (or trainer or consultant) styles—low or high frequency or intensity along specific dimensions.

The SPIRO instrument is based on the use of six transactional analysis ego states (two Parent states, one Adult state, and three Child states) along two dimensions (OK and Not OK). These produce twelve total dimensions or styles.

The SPIRO Instrument contains thirty-six statements for self-rating on a five-point scale.

Administration

Although the instrument is self-administered, the trainer should read the instructions with the participants to make certain that they have no questions. The scoring sheet should not be distributed to the respondents until after the instrument is completed. People can score their own instruments, or the trainer can collect the materials and score the items for them. Individual scores should be plotted on the summary and profile sheets, and a group profile should be constructed by averaging the group scores on each of the scales.

For best use of the SPIRO, the trainer should use the following procedure:

1. Administer the instrument;
2. Present the underlying theory to the group;
3. Help participants to understand the instrument and to predict their scores;
4. Score the instrument;
5. Discuss the results;
6. Post the results, openly or anonymously; and
7. Interpret the results and discuss the implications of these results.

Scoring

The responses to the questionnaire are transcribed onto the scoring sheet, and the rows are totaled as indicated. The remaining portions of the scoring sheet are then completed. Underdeveloped OK ego states are those that are two or more standard deviation units below the mean of the standardization sample. According to the available norms, any score lower than those that follow for the various styles would qualify as underdeveloped OK ego states. Underdeveloped OK ego states are then checked in the appropriate boxes on the scoring sheet. These indicate that the respondent should consider working on increasing these behaviors.

Style	**Cutoff points for underdeveloped ego state**
Supportive	9
Normative	8
Problem Solving	8
Innovative	5
Confronting	6
Resilient	9

The operating effectiveness index shows how effectively the OK dimension of a particular ego state is being used by the respondent. The Operating Effectiveness Quotient (OEQ) can be determined by referring to Table 3.

Table 3. Operating Effectiveness Quotient

Not OK Scores	OK Scores												
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
3	0	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
4	0	50	67	75	80	83	85	87	89	90	91	92	92
5	0	33	50	60	67	71	75	78	80	82	83	85	86
6	0	25	40	50	57	62	67	70	73	75	77	78	80
7	0	20	33	43	50	55	60	64	67	69	71	73	75
8	0	17	28	37	44	50	54	58	61	64	67	69	70
9	0	14	25	33	40	45	50	54	57	60	62	65	67
10	0	12	22	30	36	42	46	50	53	56	59	61	63
11	0	11	20	27	33	38	43	47	50	53	55	58	60
12	0	10	18	25	31	36	40	44	47	50	53	55	57
13	0	9	17	23	28	33	37	41	44	47	50	52	54
14	0	8	15	21	27	31	35	39	42	45	48	50	52
15	0	8	14	20	25	29	33	37	40	43	45	48	50

For each ego-state style, the OE scores are given at the intersection of the OK score (in the columns) and the Not-OK score (in the rows). These scores are to be noted on the summary sheet. The table indicates the percentage of potential being used effectively in a particular style. Using the table, one can see how reduction in Not-OK scores improves OEQ. A respondent can thus strive to obtain the highest score (100) by reducing his or her Not-OK behavior to maximize the use of his or her potential for the present level of an ego state.

If one's scores are on the right side in the row of one's OEQ (i.e., increases OK behavior), one also can add to the OEQ. As Table 3 shows, OEQ cannot be maximized by this approach (but can be by reducing one's Not-OK scores). In other words, *reduction of Not-OK* behavior is more important for increasing one's effectiveness.

Respondents can note their dominant and backup styles by examining their twelve style scores. The styles with the maximum scores qualify as the dominant styles. These are to be noted in the respective column. The styles having the next-to-highest scores are to be noted as the backup styles. Although the dominant style is the characteristic style of a person, the backup style is operative under emergency situations, pressure, or stress and is, therefore, as important as the dominant style.

Reliability and Validity

Retest reliability coefficients (with an interval of four weeks) with several groups have been found to range between .51 and .74 for the different styles. All of these were significant at the .01 level. The validity of the instrument was tested by correlating SPIRO scores with egogram scores. Predictions were made for the correlations of the five ego-state scores on the egogram with the styles scores. Four correlations were in the predicted direction. However, the Nurturing Parent ego state was found to be correlated not with the supportive style but with the prescriptive style. The "little professor" style was found to correlate with the rescuing style. On the whole, the correlation data provides evidence of the validity of the instrument for training purposes.

Some Uses of the Instrument

This instrument is intended primarily for training purposes. A manager can examine the operating effectiveness scores for each of his or her ego states and, if concerned about the low scores, can prepare a plan for behavioral change based on the related items—by reducing Not-OK behavior and by increasing OK behavior.

The instrument also can be used as an OD intervention. The patterns in a group can be discussed, examining what organizational factors contribute to low OE scores. Managers can discuss in small groups the implications of the scores and develop action plans to improve the operating effectiveness of some ego states.

The instrument also can be used with groups of management students. The students would complete the instrument by answering how they would prefer to behave as managers. They would then learn the underlying concepts and explore what styles they would like to develop and how.

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STYLES PROFILE OF INTERACTION ROLES IN ORGANIZATIONS (SPIRO)

Udai Pareek

Instructions: Completing this instrument will help you to learn more about how you interact with others, an important part of your role in the organization. There are no right or wrong answers. You will learn more about yourself if you respond to each item as candidly as possible. Write in one of the numbers of the five-point scale next to each statement to indicate the frequency with which you behave in this manner. Do not spend too much time deciding on any answer; use your first reaction.

Scoring Key:
1 - Rarely or never behave this way
2 - Occasionally behave this way
3 - Sometimes behave this way
4 - Often behave this way
5 - Almost always behave this way

_____ 1. I assure my subordinates of my availability to them.

_____ 2. I delay doing things that I do not like.

_____ 3. I encourage my subordinates to question me about what should or should not be done.

_____ 4. I communicate strong feelings and resentment to my bosses without caring whether this will affect my relationships with them.

_____ 5. I collect all the information that is needed to solve various problems.

_____ 6. I discuss new ideas with my subordinates without working out the details of these ideas.

_____ 7. I respect and follow organizational traditions that seem to give the organization its identity.

_____ 8. I provide my subordinates with the solutions to their problems.

_____ 9. I take up my subordinates' causes and fight for them.

Scoring Key:
1 - Rarely or never behave this way
2 - Occasionally behave this way
3 - Sometimes behave this way
4 - Often behave this way
5 - Almost always behave this way

_____ 10. I admonish my subordinates for not acting according to my instructions.

_____ 11. I think of new and creative solutions.

_____ 12. I collect information and data, even when these are not immediately needed or used.

_____ 13. I help my subordinates to become aware of some of their own strengths.

_____ 14. I avoid meeting my bosses and subordinates if I have not been able to fulfill their expectations.

_____ 15. I help my subordinates to see the ethical dimensions of some of their actions.

_____ 16. I champion my subordinates' causes, even at the cost of organizational effectiveness.

_____ 17. I think out many possible solutions to problems before adopting one for action.

_____ 18. I overwhelm my subordinates with new ideas.

_____ 19. I accept only those bosses' and subordinates' suggestions that appeal to me.

_____ 20. I instruct my subordinates in detail about work problems and their solutions.

_____ 21. I zealously argue my point of view in organizational meetings.

Scoring Key:
1 - Rarely or never behave this way
2 - Occasionally behave this way
3 - Sometimes behave this way
4 - Often behave this way
5 - Almost always behave this way

_____ 22. I give clear instructions to my subordinates about what should or should not be done.

_____ 23. I try out new things.

_____ 24. I spend my time on specific work to be performed.

_____ 25. I reassure my subordinates of my continued help.

_____ 26. I do not express my negative feelings during unpleasant meetings but continue to be bothered by them.

_____ 27. I help my subordinates to examine the appropriateness of proposed actions.

_____ 28. I express resentment to the authorities concerned about things that have not been done as promised.

_____ 29. I continuously search for various resources from which needed information can be obtained in order to work out solutions to problems.

_____ 30. I try out new ideas or methods without waiting to consolidate the previous ones.

_____ 31. I accept help from others and appreciate it.

_____ 32. I encourage my subordinates to come to me frequently to seek my advice and help.

_____ 33. I express my feelings and reactions frankly in meetings with my own bosses.

Scoring Key:
1 - Rarely or never behave this way
2 - Occasionally behave this way
3 - Sometimes behave this way
4 - Often behave this way
5 - Almost always behave this way

_____ 34. I clearly prescribe standards of behavior to be followed in my work unit.

_____ 35. I enjoy trying out new ways and see a problem as a challenge.

_____ 36. I work primarily on organizational tasks, sometimes at the cost of sensitivity and attention to the feelings of people.

SPIRO SCORING SHEET

Name _____ Date _____

Instructions: Transfer your scores from the SPIRO questionnaire directly onto this scoring sheet.

OK Ego State

	Item Score	*Item Score*	*Item Score*	**Raw Total**	**Type**
Parent	(1) ____	(13) _____	(25) ____	____	Supportive
	(3) ____	(15) _____	(27) ____	____	Normative
Adult	(5) ____	(17) _____	(29) ____	____	Problem Solving
Child	(11) ____	(23) _____	(35) ____	____	Innovative
	(9) ____	(21) _____	(33) ____	____	Confronting
	(7) ____	(19) _____	(31) ____	____	Resilient

Not-OK Ego State

	Item Score	*Item Score*	*Item Score*	**Raw Total**	**Type**
Parent	(8) ____	(20) _____	(32) ____	____	Rescuing
	(10) ____	(22) _____	(34) ____	____	Prescriptive
Adult	(12) ____	(24) _____	(36) ____	____	Task Obsessive
Child	(6) ____	(18) _____	(30) ____	____	Bohemian
	(4) ____	(16) _____	(28) ____	____	Aggressive
	(2) ____	(14) _____	(26) ____	_____	Sulking

SPIRO SUMMARY SHEET

Instructions: Enter your scores on the appropriate lines below.

	EGO STATES					
	PARENT		**ADULT**		**CHILD**	
	Nurturing	*Regulating*		*Creative*	*Reactive*	*Adaptive*
OK Styles	Supportive	Normative	Problem Solving	Innovative	Confronting	Resilient
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Not-OK Styles	Rescuing	Prescriptive	Task Obsessive	Bohemian	Aggressive	Sulking
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Under-developed OK Ego States	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Operating Effectiveness Quotient	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dominant Style	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Backup Style	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP RATING SCALE

John L. Hipple

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSTRUMENT

Measurement of individual and group change in the personal growth area of human relations training is a very difficult task. Many standardized personality instruments are too technical and unwieldy to use in research or training. The Interpersonal Relationship Rating Scale (IRRS) was developed specifically to meet the special needs of human relations training and is designed to test for outcomes in personal growth experiences. In designing the items for the scale, the author considered the following specifications:

1. The content of the items should attempt to measure attitudes and/or behaviors in the individual's relationships with others and how the individual sees himself or herself. The content of the items must be meaningful to the respondents so that they can respond as accurately as possible.
2. The statements have to be designed to assess observable behaviors and/or attitudes as much as possible. When dealing with interpersonal relationships, it is very difficult to be completely objective; consequently, many of the items are very subjective.
3. The scale had to examine behavior that would presumably be affected by participation in personal growth experiences of human relations training.

The scale is a self-administered, paper-and-pencil inventory that takes approximately ten minutes to complete. It consists of twenty-four seven-point numerical rating scales, written in such a way that high ratings are "positive" and low ratings are "negative." At this stage in its development, the IRRS is best analyzed in terms of average group ratings on the individual scales, but future research and development is aimed at incorporating an analysis of the total numerical score for the instrument. The instrument is designed so that the participants and/or persons who know them well (significant others) may respond. Data from respondents in the participants' lives can be very valuable in assessing behavioral changes.

The original form of the IRRS was tested on thirty-four participants in a three-day human relations training laboratory. These individuals responded to the IRRS on a pre, post, and seven-week follow-up schedule. Identified significant others completed the IRRS on a pre and follow-up basis. Participants described themselves more "positively" after the laboratory experiences, and this "positive" description persisted through the follow-up period. The pre to post average self-rating increased from 4.61 to 5.16, a

statistically reliable result. The significant others did not seem to see as much change in the participants as did the participants themselves. This first form of the IRRS had a confidence factor attached to each item, allowing the respondent to rate the degree of confidence he or she would assign in regard to the accuracy of each scale response. Both the participants and the significant others were very confident that the ratings they were making were accurate. Because of these high confidence ratings, this aspect of the instrument was deleted from the final form.

The present form of the IRRS was used to evaluate behavioral and attitudinal outcomes for seventy-eight participants and identified significant others in two, three-day human relations training laboratories. One control group composed of members of an educational psychology class and a second control group made up of randomly rejected laboratory applicants were used to evaluate reliability and validity of the instrument.

RELIABILITY

It was important that the IRRS have a reasonable degree of stability, since change was defined as any shift in the value of the scale scores. The stability of the IRRS was studied by means of a test-retest after a one-week interval and a six-week interval, using control-group members as subjects. After one week, the average of the twenty-four coefficients was .59, with a range from .29 to .78. The six-week estimate of stability had an average of .51, with a range of .14 to .70. Stability of the IRRS also was studied by computing Spearman rank-order correlations between average profiles. For the educational-psychology control group, the average profile for a test-retest after a one-week interval was a coefficient of .83, while the six-week interval coefficient was .85. The control group composed of rejected applicants had an average profile test-retest rank-order coefficient of .85 at one week and .82 at six weeks. Identified significant others for the rejected applicants had a coefficient of .82 for a six-week test-retest interval. These estimates indicate a high degree of stability for mean profiles for both self-reports and reports of observers. The stability data for the individual scales of the IRRS, however, indicate that use should be restricted to utilization in research and should be employed for use with groups rather than for individuals.

DISCERNING CHANGE

In the analysis of outcome data for the two three-day laboratories, the IRRS proved to be effective in detecting changes in self-perceptions. The pattern was for participants to describe themselves significantly more positively in the post-testing situation than did nonparticipants. Significant others also were able to observe behavioral changes in a "positive" direction, but to a lesser degree. By using the IRRS, the investigation concluded that participation in human relations training laboratories does seem to have an effect on self-perception and behavior. These changes are more evident to the

participant than to persons from his or her back-home environment who are observing. The IRRS allows the individual participant and his or her significant other to assess the effects of the growth experience and to employ new approaches in human interactions in the back-home environment. IRRS results indicate that perceptual changes seem to be more clear-cut than are specific behavioral changes. In other words, the participant believes that he or she has changed and rates the specific scales accordingly, but significant others are frequently not able to see these changes. The versatility of the instrument to tap both self-perceptions and observed behaviors makes it very valuable.

SUGGESTED USES

Potential uses of the IRRS are many and varied, both as a tool to measure change after group participation and as a device to generate data during the group process. The IRRS could be used in follow-up designs in order that the discrepancy between perception and behavior could be investigated in more depth. The phenomena of "change-back" could be studied with the help of the IRRS. It has been observed that participants in personal growth experiences frequently rate themselves lower or regress toward the mean in follow-up ratings as compared to their immediate post-experience ratings. If facilitators wanted to attempt to reduce the degree of "change-back," the IRRS might provide a tool for evaluation during a series of post-group meetings. Perceptions of actual-self and ideal-self and the usual discrepancy in these self-ratings could be tapped by using the IRRS. This discrepancy data might provide the individual participant or the group with an opportunity to set personal goals—a very important factor in personal growth experiences. Allowing the laboratory participant to see the IRRS ratings submitted by his or her significant others or the ratings of fellow participants might be very beneficial in starting feedback sessions.

The IRRS also can be useful in other than human relations laboratories. Members of the helping professions, such as teachers, counselors, student personnel workers, clergy, etc., who are taking part in practica might find the IRRS ratings of their clients to be helpful. Also, the IRRS ratings of practicum supervisors might provide the student with personal insight. The practicum student might fill out the IRRS on a pre and post-practicum basis. Married couples in a group experience might respond to the IRRS as they see themselves and how they think their spouses see them. Professionals who have a close working relationship with other professionals (e.g., nurses and doctors, social workers, and professionals in law, criminology and juvenile delinquency) might benefit from sharing the IRRS ratings.

In the realm of further research, the development of more sensitive instrumentation is essential. To improve the sensitivity of the IRRS, a factor-analysis approach might add new dimensions in terms of the possible development of a number of general scales that would be more sensitive than the individual scales. Such an analysis might uncover factors having higher stability than the separate items.

At this stage in its development, the IRRS has many positive features. It is quick and easy to give and has adequate stability and face validity. Group leaders will be able to use it both in outcome research and in facilitation of process.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP RATING SCALE

John L. Hipple

Participant_____Observer _____

Instructions: Complete this form quickly without thinking too much about each item. For each of the following items, circle the number that best describes the degree to which the statement fits the participant.

Example:
In this example the rater feels that the participant is average in wealth.

A. Wealth of participant.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very poor						Very poor

1. Ability to listen to others in an understanding way.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Low						High

2. Awareness of the feelings of others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unaware						Aware

3. Tolerance of differences in others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Low						High

4. Tendency to trust others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Quite Suspicious						Very trusting

5. Tendency to seek close personal relationships with others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Low						High

6. Tendency to build on the previous ideas of others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Infrequent						Frequent

7. Ability to influence others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Low						High

8. Reaction to expression of affection and warmth from others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Low tolerance						High tolerance

9. Reaction to the opposing opinions of others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Low tolerance						High tolerance

10. Reaction to conflict and antagonism from others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Low tolerance						High tolerance

11. Reaction to others' comments about his/her behavior.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reject						Welcome

12. Willingness to discuss his/her feelings and emotions with others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unwilling						Willing

13. Level of his/her self-understanding.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Doesn't know self						Knows self a great deal

14. Level of his/her self esteem.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very low						Very high

15. Level of his/her giving love.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cold						Warm and affectionate

16. Level of his/her openness.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reveals little of self						Reveals much of self

17. Degree of peace of mind.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Restless and dissatisfied						At peace with self

18. Level of his/her aspiration.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very low						Very high

19. Level of his/her physical energy.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tires easily						Vital and resilient

20. Degree of versatility.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Can do only a few things well						Can do many things well

21. Degree of innovativeness.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Likes the status quo						Very creative and inventive

22. Level of anger expression.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Represses it consistently						Expresses it openly

23. Clarity in expressing thoughts.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Quite vague						Very clear

24. Degree of independence.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little						A great deal

INVENTORY OF ANGER COMMUNICATION (IAC)

Millard J. Bienvenu, Sr.

One of the major components of healthy interpersonal communication is the individual's ability to deal with his or her own angry feelings and those of others. Some people, through the mechanism of denial, are not aware of their angry feelings and repress them rather deeply. Others, although aware of these feelings, suppress the expression of them, fearing angry responses from others. Many individuals become upset when they simply disagree with others or when others disagree with them. Finally, those individuals who do express angry feelings often do so in destructive ways, e.g., with physical violence, insults, and shouting.

The development of the Inventory of Anger Communication (IAC) was an outgrowth of the author's earlier communication scales, the results of which indicated that anger was an inherent yet troublesome aspect of the communication process among individuals. In studying marital communication, the author found that a couple's difficulty in handling their differences and in expressing their anger disrupted their communication process. Some persons avoid venting marital grievances because they have great difficulty handling and tolerating another person's anger. In studying hundreds of premarital couples, the author also found that couples, when angry, either avoided dealing with negative feelings or—the other extreme—withdrew or lost control of their feelings. In other studies of the general population, effective communicators were distinguished from poor communicators by the way they handled their angry feelings.

The IAC has been used as a diagnostic tool in initial interviews, as an aid in ongoing counseling, and as a teaching device in communication classes. It also lends itself to human relations training and to research as a measurement technique.

A thirty-item scale, the IAC is intended to identify the subjective and interactional aspects of anger as manifested by the individual. In the *subjective* category, awareness of the expression of anger, intensity of anger, attitudes toward the expression of anger, and the reaction of the individual to his or her own anger are explored. Items relating to the *interactional* aspects of anger focus on the verbal and physical manner of expressing anger and the manner in which the individual handles it with himself or herself and with others. Subjects respond to the self-inventory by checking one of three possible responses: "Usually," "Sometimes," or "Seldom." The responses to the items are scored from 0 to 3, with a favorable response given the higher score.

Originally, forty-five items were formulated from a review of the literature and from the author's communication scales and clinical experiences. To test the validity of the items, they were presented to several psychologists, psychiatrists, and psychiatric

social workers. Based on their feedback and on follow-up studies, fifteen items were eventually discarded, resulting in the current thirty-item version of the inventory.

The IAC is probably best suited for individuals of high school age and older with sufficient mental maturity to attempt to be frank and objective in responding to the items. It can be adapted to either sex and to any marital status.

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INVENTORY OF ANGER COMMUNICATION (IAC)

Millard J. Bienvenu, Sr.

Anger is a very basic human emotion that plays an important role in the way we communicate with others. This inventory offers you an opportunity to make an objective self-study of how anger affects you and how you deal with it in your daily contacts with others. This increased awareness on your part may provide insights and clues for feeling more comfortable with yourself and improving your relationships with others. Please do not place your name on this form; if any of the questions are offensive to you, feel free not to answer them.

Instructions:

- Please answer each question as quickly as you can according to the way you feel at the moment (not the way you usually feel or felt last week).
- Please do not consult with anyone while completing this inventory. You may discuss it with someone after you have completed it. Remember that the value of this form will be lost if you change any answer during or after the discussion.
- Honest answers are necessary. Please be as frank as possible, since your answers are confidential.
- Use the following examples for practice. Put a check (✓) in *one* of the three blanks on the right to show how the question applies to your situation.

	Yes (usually)	**No** (seldom)	**Some-times**
Do you have a tendency to take digs at others?	_____	_____	_____
Do you get very upset when someone disagrees with you?	_____	_____	_____

- The **Yes** column is to be used when the question can be answered as happening *most of the time or usually.* The **No** column is to be used when the question can be answered as *seldom or never.*
- The **Sometimes** column should be marked when you cannot definitely answer **Yes** or **No**. *Use this column as little as possible.*
- Read each question carefully. If you cannot give the exact answer to a question, answer the best you can but be sure to answer each one. There are no right or wrong answers. Answer according to the way *you* feel *at the present time.*

	Yes (usually)	**No** (seldom)	**Some-times**
1. Do you admit that you are angry when asked by someone else?	_____	_____	_____
2. Do you have a tendency to take your anger out on someone other than the person you are angry with?	_____	_____	_____
3. When you are angry with someone, do you discuss it with that person?	_____	_____	_____
4. Do you keep things in until you finally explode with anger?	_____	_____	_____
5. Do you pout or sulk for a long time (a couple of days or so) when someone hurts your feelings?	_____	_____	_____
6. Do you disagree with others even though you feel they might get angry?	_____	_____	_____
7. Do you hit others when you get angry?	_____	_____	_____
8. Does it upset you *a great deal* when someone disagrees with you?	_____	_____	_____
9. Do you express your ideas when they differ from those of others?	_____	_____	_____
10. Do you have a tendency to be very critical of others?	_____	_____	_____
11. Are you satisfied with the way in which you settle your differences with others?	_____	_____	_____
12. Is it very difficult for you to say nice things to other people?	_____	_____	_____
13. Do you have good control of your temper?	_____	_____	_____
14. Do you become depressed very easily?	_____	_____	_____
15. When a problem arises between you and Another person, do you discuss it without losing control of your emotions?	_____	_____	_____

Please go back and circle any questions that were not clear to you.

16. Do you have a tendency to criticize or put down other people?	_____	_____	_____

	Yes (usually)	**No** (seldom)	**Some-times**
17. When someone has hurt your feelings, do you discuss the matter with that person?	_____	_____	_____
18. Do you have frequent arguments with others?	_____	_____	_____
19. Do you often *feel* like hitting someone else?	_____	_____	_____
20. Do you, at times, feel some anger toward someone you love?	_____	_____	_____
21. Do you have a strong urge to do something harmful?	_____	_____	_____
22. Do you keep your cool (control) when you are angry with someone?	_____	_____	_____
23. Do you tend to feel very bad or very guilty after getting angry at someone?	_____	_____	_____
24. When you become angry, do you pull away or withdraw from people?	_____	_____	_____
25. When someone is angry with you, do you automatically or quickly strike back with your own feelings of anger?	_____	_____	_____
26. Are you aware of when you are angry?	_____	_____	_____
27. Provided the timing is appropriate, do you express your angry feelings without exploding?	_____	_____	_____
28. Do you tend to make cutting remarks to others?	_____	_____	_____
29. Do you control yourself when things do not go your way?	_____	_____	_____
30. Do you feel that anger is a normal emotion?	_____	_____	_____

Please go back and circle any questions that were not clear to you.

CHECK YOURSELF

Instructions: Please write down the first thing that comes to your mind when you read the following words or phrases. Be honest with yourself in order to gain the most from this exercise.

1. When people get mad they should _____
   _____
2. Feeling angry is _____
   _____
3. People who get angry are _____
   _____
4. When I get angry I _____
   _____
5. I get angry when _____
   _____
6. People make me angry when _____
   _____
7. When my father got angry he _____
   _____
8. When my mother got angry she _____
   _____
9. The best way to describe myself is _____
   _____

General Information

My age _____ Sex: ❒ Male ❒ Female Education _____

Occupation _____

My marital status: ❒ Single ❒ Married ❒ Divorced ❒ Separated ❒ Widowed

In my family, I am (was) the: ❒ Oldest Child ❒ Middle Child ❒ Youngest Child ❒ Only Child

While I was growing up, my parents were: ❒ Married and living together ❒ Separated/divorced ❒ One or more deceased

INVENTORY OF ANGER COMMUNICATION
SCORING KEY

Instructions: Look at how you responded to each item in the IAC. In front of the item write the appropriate weight from the table on this page. For example, if you answered "Yes" to item 1, you would find below that you get three points; write the number 3 in front of item 1 in the inventory and proceed to score item 2. When you have finished scoring each of the thirty items, add up your total score.

Scoring Interpretation

Generally, the higher the sum of scores, the more effectively you are handling your angry feelings. Review your answers to each item to see if a pattern of anger expression can be discerned. Attend carefully to the items you marked "sometimes"; they may indicate areas for explanation and work. Discuss your inventory with someone who knows you well for a perception check.

	Yes	No	Sometimes		Yes	No	Sometimes
1.	3	0	2	16.	0	3	1
2.	0	3	1	17.	3	0	2
3.	3	0	2	18.	0	3	1
4.	0	3	1	19.	0	3	1
5.	0	3	1	20.	3	0	2
6.	3	0	2	21.	0	3	1
7.	0	3	1	22.	3	0	2
8.	0	3	1	23.	0	3	1
9.	3	0	2	24.	0	3	1
10.	0	3	1	25.	0	3	1
11.	3	0	2	26.	3	0	2
12.	0	3	1	27.	3	0	2
13.	3	0	2	28.	0	3	1
14.	0	3	1	29.	3	0	2
15.	3	0	2	30.	3	0	2

THE LANGUAGE SYSTEM DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENT (LSDI)

Cresencio Torres

LANGUAGE SYSTEMS IN NEUROLINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING

Neurolinguistic programming (NLP) is a model of human behavior and communication (Bandler & Grinder, 1975; Dilts, Grinder, Bandler, Bandler, & DeLozier, 1980; Grinder & Bandler, 1976). NLP resulted from a systematic study of Virginia Satir, Milton H. Erickson, Fritz Perls, and other famous therapists (Harmon & O'Neill, 1981). Additionally, it draws from the knowledge of psychodynamics and behavioral theories. NLP is concerned with the identification of both conscious and unconscious patterns in communication and behavior and how they interact in the process of change.

> "Neuro" (derived from the Greek neuron for nerve) stands for the fundamental tenet that all behavior is the result of neurological processes. "Linguistic" (derived from the Latin lingua for language) indicates that neural processes are represented, ordered and sequenced into models and strategies through language and communication systems. "Programming" refers to the process of organizing the components of a system (sensory representation in this case) to achieve specific outcomes. (Dilts, et al., 1980, p. 2)

The NLP model embodies several key components, as follows: (a) rapport and communication, (b) gathering information, and (c) change strategies and interventions. Within the component of rapport and communication exist the dimensions of language-representational systems, eye-accessing movements, verbal and nonverbal pacing and leading, communication translation skills, and representational system overlapping. The Language System Diagnostic Instrument is concerned with the most well-known dimension of this component, language-representational systems.

Representational Systems

The basic premise of NLP is that people perceive the world through information that is filtered through their sensory systems (Bandler & Grinder, 1975). Data are first processed at an unconscious level, experienced internally, and then manifested in external behavior. Language patterns are one method that people use to communicate their internal responses (Torres & Katz, 1983). NLP is a model for understanding the processes that people use to encode and transfer experience and to guide and modify their behavior. All the distinctions we make concerning our environment, both internal and external, are represented in terms of three sensory systems: the visual, auditory, and

kinesthetic (Dilts & Meyers-Anderson, 1980). Smell and taste are not widely utilized ways of gaining information about the world (Bandler & Grinder, 1975).

People who rely on their visual systems appear to run movies in their heads when remembering or storing information. If people are primarily auditory, i.e., taking information in through sounds, remembering may be like replaying a tape recorder, with original tones and dialogue. People who are primarily kinesthetic respond to internal bodily feelings or tactile sense. They remember bodily sensations in recalling experiences.

Predicates

"Predicates" are verbs, adjectives, and adverbs that people use to describe the processes and relationships in their experiences (Bandler & Grinder, 1975). They are divided into three categories corresponding to the three major representational systems. People either see (visual) pictures and have images about their experiences, or they hear (auditory) sounds and talk about their experiences, or they experience sensations (kinesthetic) and have feelings about their experiences (Grinder & Bandler, 1976). For example, a visual person might say: "Look at the facts," "I see," "I get the picture," or "Let's get a perspective on this." An auditory person might say: "I hear you," "Let's listen to reason," or "It sounds like it will work." A kinesthetic person would be more likely to say: "It doesn't feel right," "Just hold on," "Let's get a handle on this," or "He didn't grasp the idea."

Each individual has a primary (more highly developed) representational system that he or she relies on during times of stress in problem solving as well as a secondary system that may be used in everyday conversation in combination with the primary system. A tertiary system may exist but it usually is beyond conscious awareness. For example, a person whose primary representational system is kinesthetic and whose secondary system is visual may be aware of what he "feels" and "sees" at any given moment, but not be in "tune" with the sounds and noises around him.

"Matching" Language Systems

It has been suggested that using the same primary language system as a client or trainee could help the counselor, consultant, or trainer to build rapport with the client or trainee (Grinder & Bandler, 1976). Although this theory has not been proven conclusively (Bandler & Grinder, 1979), the possibility exists that an HRD professional could increase rapport and trust with a client or trainee (or with the majority of group members) by using (reflecting) the other's primary language system.

It also seems that people will learn best when content is presented to them in their primary representational systems. A visual person will remember graphs, illustrations, and "seeing" new things. An auditory person will remember sounds and will be stimulated by changes in vocal tone, pitch, and pacing. A kinesthetic person will learn best from "hands on" experience and will remember how he or she "felt." Thus, more impact may be gained from showing things to visuals, providing interesting sounds for

auditories, and working alongside kinesthetics. Conversely, if a trainee is kinesthetic or visual, and the training is presented verbally, the content may not be easily translated, and the trainee may not "get it." If a client experiences and describes things visually, and the consultant uses an auditory language system, the client may have difficulty understanding.

Of course, the trainer or consultant must first be aware of his or her own primary and secondary language systems. Then, by paying attention to the predicates used by others, the trainer or consultant can determine the systems valued by those others.

The following examples illustrate how matching or mismatching language systems can either enhance or frustrate communication.

Mismatched Language Systems

Learner (visual): "I just can't *see* myself doing any better in this training session."

Trainer (kinesthetic): "Well, how do you *feel* about not being able to do better?"

Learner (visual): "I just don't have a *clear picture* of what you want from me."

Trainer (kinesthetic): "How do you *feel* about not being able to get a *handle* on things that we are doing?"

Learner (visual): "I don't *see* what you're trying to do. It's really *hazy* to me."

In this example, it is apparent that the trainer is not paying attention to the language system used by the learner, who "sees" the trainer as a person who just does not portray things clearly. On the other hand, the trainer may "feel" frustrated in his attempts to "reach" this trainee. Neither of them profits from this type of interaction.

Matched Language Systems

Learner (visual): "I just can't *see* myself doing any better in this training session."

Trainer (visual): "It did *appear* to me that you *looked* confused when I was giving out the work assignment."

Learner (visual): "I'm trying to get a *picture* of what you expect, but I just can't seem to *focus* it."

Trainer (visual): "I *see*. Let's *look* at it from some different angles and *see* if we can come up with a new *perspective* for you."

In this example, both the trainer and the learner are using the visual language system. They are actually "seeing" things from the same "perspective."

HRD professionals who know how to identify and use language systems will be better prepared to teach and relate to their trainees and clients. In addition, trainers can teach their trainees to expand their own uses of their nonpreferred representational systems. For example, a person who is primarily kinesthetic can learn to access information through the visual and auditory systems. This will increase the person's ability to learn in different contexts and from trainers with different language systems.

THE LANGUAGE SYSTEM DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENT

The Language System Diagnostic Instrument (LSDI) is a three-part, self-scored assessment of word preferences, used to determine primary, secondary, and tertiary language representational systems as described by Bandler and Grinder (1975, 1979, 1982) in the NLP model. The items in each section of the instrument measure the respondent's preference for categories of words (predicates) within the visual, auditory, and kinesthetic dimensions. Part one is composed of paragraph readings; part two contains three-word clusters; and part three contains short phrases. Each response has the same value, and raw scores are multiplied by four to obtain an actual score in the range of 0 to 100. Three scores are yielded: the highest score represents the primary language representational system; the second-highest score represents the secondary language representational system; and the lowest score represents the tertiary (or least used) system.

Reliability and Validity of the LSDI

Test-retest reliability for subjects sampled over a one-month interval was .86. To test for validity, six certified NLP practitioners evaluated the LSDI for item and category accuracy. The validity of each item was determined by how accurately it fit the representational categories of auditory, visual, and kinesthetic. There was 100 percent agreement on all twenty-five items by the six evaluators. In a study of 115 subjects, chi-square analysis revealed a percentage distribution between auditory, visual, and kinesthetic primary language systems that was similar to those reported in Dorn (1983b). The visual representational system was reported most frequently (42.61 percent); the kinesthetic representational system was reported next most frequently (37.39 percent); and the auditory representational system was reported least frequently (20 percent) by respondents. Finally, the instrument was retested by Pfeiffer & Company and revised prior to this publication.

ADMINISTERING THE LSDI

The Language System Diagnostic Instrument is a five-minute, timed test. The time element is designed to create minor test anxiety, which is necessary in order to measure primary, secondary, and tertiary language representational systems. The procedure for administering the instrument is as follows:

1. Administer the LSDI *before* presenting any theoretical background.
2. Inform the participants that the LSDI is designed to determine their *preferences* among the materials that they will be reading, and that they are not to focus on the *content* of the items. In order to determine their true preferences, they should select items as quickly as possible, generally "going with" their first response to each item.

3. Announce the five-minute time deadline in order to create minor test anxiety among the participants. Reinforce this by announcing time limits during the completion of the task. For example: "You have five minutes to complete this instrument. Those who do not complete it within the five minutes will not be counted." "You have three minutes left." "You have two minutes in which to finish."

Participants usually will complete the instrument within the five-minute time allotment. If any participants do not, extend the time to allow them to finish. (The time element is present merely to create test anxiety.) When all participants have completed the task, they should be told that the time element was included merely to create the type of anxiety that would encourage them to respond more quickly and, thus, in a test of preferences, more accurately.

SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE LSDI

After completing the instrument, the participants should be told that their responses to the items on the instrument reflect whether they tend to respond to the world around them in a primarily *visual* mode, in a primarily *auditory* mode, or in a primarily *kinesthetic* (physical feeling) mode. The facilitator should define these terms and then present a lecturette on the language representational systems as defined by neurolinguistic programming. Following the lecturette and time for questions of clarification, each of the participants can be asked to predict which of the three systems will be his or her primary system and which will be his or her secondary system.

The participants then should be given copies of the LSDI Scoring Sheet and directed to transfer their scores from the instrument form and to follow the directions on the scoring sheet. When all participants have completed their column tallies and graphs, the facilitator can ask for volunteers to share their results, or the large group can be divided into subgroups for sharing and comparison. It should be stressed that the LSDI is not foolproof, so participants should feel free to further explore their selection and use of the three primary representational systems.

Processing of the learnings from the experience can include: (a) further exploration of the participants' use of the representational systems and (b) ideas for ways to match (or accept) the systems of others to increase rapport and successful communication. If the participants are trainers or consultants, a more extensive discussion of matching systems can be generated, and skill practice can be planned or conducted.

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THE LANGUAGE SYSTEM DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENT

Cresencio Torres

Part One

Instructions: This instrument contains three parts. Part One consists of five *sets* of three paragraphs each. For each set, select the one paragraph that is easiest for you to read. Do not be concerned with the actual content of the paragraph, merely with how you respond to it compared to the other paragraphs in the set. Read all three paragraphs and then make your selection, but do not deliberate too long; your first response generally is best. Indicate the letter of the paragraph that you have selected on your answer sheet by circling the appropriate letter (A, B, or C) for each set.

You have five minutes in which to complete the entire instrument.

1. A. The tinkle of the wind chimes tells me that the breeze is still rustling outside. In the distance, I can hear the whistle of the train.

   B. I can see the rows of flowers in the yard, their colors shining and fading in the sunlight and shadows, their petals waving in the breeze.

   C. As I ran, I could feel the breeze on my back. My feet pounded along the path. The blood raced through my veins, and I felt very alert.

---

2. A. I like to be warm. On a cold night, I like to relax by a warm fire in a comfortable room with a cup of smooth, warm cocoa and a fuzzy blanket.

   B. The child talked into the toy telephone as though he or she were calling a friend. Listening to the quiet conversation, I could almost hear the echoes of another child, long ago.

   C. The view was magnificent. It was one of the most beautiful things I have ever seen. The panorama of the green countryside stretched out clearly below us in the bright, sparkling sun.

---

3. A. They appeared to be surprised when they noticed that there were other people on the beach. The amazement on their faces turned to eagerness as they looked to see if they knew any of the people on the sand.

   B. I was helped up and supported until I felt my strength coming back. The tingling sensation that ran up and down my legs—especially in my calves—was stronger after I stood up, and my body was extremely warm.

   C. People will express themselves more verbally if they can talk about their interests or assets. You can hear the increased enthusiasm in their conversations, and they usually become more fluent.

---

4. A. The feedback that the speaker received was an indication that she was communicating more effectively. The people in the audience seemed to be in tune with what she was talking about.

   B. I want to understand how people feel in their inner worlds, to accept them as they are, to create an atmosphere in which they feel free to think and feel and be anything they desire.

   C. Children watch adults. They notice more than we realize. You can see this if you observe them at play. They mimic the behavior of the grownups they see.

---

5. A. Creative, artistic people have an eye for beauty. They see patterns and forms that other people do not notice. They respond to the colors around them, and their visual surroundings can affect their moods.

   B. They heard the music as if for the first time. Each change of tone and tempo caught their ears. The sounds soared throughout the room, while the rhythms echoed in their heads.

   C. Everybody was stirred by the deep emotions generated by the interaction. Some felt subdued and experienced it quietly. Others were stimulated and excited. They all felt alert to each new sensation.

Part Two

Instructions: This part consists of ten sets of items. Each item includes three lists (sets) of words. For each item, circle the letter (A, B or C) of the set of words that is easiest for you to read. Do *not* focus on the *meanings* of the words. Try to work quickly.

6.	A. Witness Look See	B. Interview Listen Hear	C. Sensation Touch Feel
7.	A. Stir Sensitive Hustle	B. Watch Scope Pinpoint	C. Squeal Remark Discuss
8.	A. Proclaim Mention Acoustic	B. Texture Handle Tactile	C. Exhibit Inspect Vista
9.	A. Scrutinize Focused Scene	B. Articulate Hearken Tone	C. Exhilarate Support Grip
10.	A. Ringing Hearsay Drumbeat	B. Movement Heat Rushing	C. Glitter Mirror Outlook
11.	A. Dream Glow Illusion	B. Listen Quiet Silence	C. Motion Soft Tender
12.	A. Upbeat Listen Record	B. Firm Hold Concrete	C. Bright Appear Picture

13.	A. Feeling Lukewarm Muscle	B. Hindsight Purple Book	C. Hearsay Audible Horn
14.	A. Show Observant Glimpse	B. Tempo Articulate Sonar	C. Move Powerful Reflex
15.	A. Purring Overhear Melody	B. Smooth Grasp Relaxed	C. Glowing Lookout Vision

Part Three

Instructions: This part consists of ten sets of three short phrases each. In each set, circle the letter (A, B, or C) of the phrase that you find easiest to read. Try to complete this task in the time remaining.

16.	A. An eyeful	B. An earful	C. A handful
17.	A. Lend me an ear	B. Give him a hand	C. Keep an eye out
18.	A. Hand in hand	B. Eye to eye	C. Word for word
19.	A. Get the picture	B. Hear the word	C. Come to grips with
20.	A. The thrill of the chase	B. A flash of lightning	C. The roll of thunder
21.	A. Outspoken	B. Underhanded	C. Short-sighted

22. A. As I see B. I hear you C. I get it

---

23. A. Hang in there B. Bird's-eye view C. Rings true

---

24. A. Clear as a bell B. Smooth as silk C. Bright as day

---

25. A. Look here B. Listen up C. Catch this

LANGUAGE SYSTEM DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENT
SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Name_____

Instructions:

1. Transfer your responses from the LSDI to this sheet by circling the letter that you chose for each of the numbered items.

Part One:	1.	A	B	C
Paragraphs	2.	B	C	A
	3.	C	A	B
	4.	A	C	B
	5.	B	A	C
Part Two:	6.	B	A	C
Words	7.	C	B	A
	8.	A	C	B
	9.	B	A	C
	10.	A	C	B
	11.	B	A	C
	12.	A	C	B
	13.	C	B	A
	14.	B	A	C
	15.	A	C	B
Part Three:	16.	B	A	C
Phrases	17.	A	C	B
	18.	C	B	A
	19.	B	A	C
	20.	C	B	A
	21.	A	C	B
	22.	B	A	C
	23.	C	B	A
	24.	A	C	B
	25.	B	A	C

TOTALS I_____ II_____ III_____

2. Now, total the letters circled in each vertical column. Place these three scores from Columns I, II, and III in the box below.

Column I	_____	x 4 =	_____ (Actual Score)
Column II	_____	x 4 =	_____ (Actual Score)
Column III	_____	x 4 =	_____ (Actual Score)

3. Multiply each of the column scores by 4. This will give you your actual scores.
4. Chart your actual scores on the graph below by coloring in the space that represents your actual score in each of the three columns.

	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Column I **Auditory**											
Column II **Visual**											
Column III **Kinesthetic**											
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

5. Your highest score indicates the primary mode that you use to interpret and communicate with the world around you. You probably use this mode (auditory, visual, or kinesthetic) the most, particularly when you are problem solving or in stressful situations.

   Your second-highest (middle) score indicates your secondary mode, which you likely use in everyday conversation, in combination with your primary mode. Your lowest score indicates your tertiary mode, which you may not use as much as the other two or at all in your normal conversation. In fact, it often remains at the unconscious level.

   These three modes of perceiving and talking about one's experiences are called "language representational systems." A visual person is likely to say "I see" or "That looks right." An auditory person is likely to say "I hear you" or "That sounds right." A kinesthetic person is more likely to say "I've got it" or "That feels right." The items that you selected on this instrument reflected these three systems or ways of describing experiences.

   Each individual seems to be most comfortable in using one or two of these systems. Some people believe, however, that if an individual could learn to communicate in all three modes, or systems, he or she could establish more rapport and trust with people whose primary systems differ from his or her own. Increased ability to communicate in all three systems thus might lead to increased *effectiveness* in communication.

ORGANIZATION BEHAVIOR DESCRIBER SURVEY (OBDS)

Roger Harrison and Barry Oshry

The Organization Behavior Describer Survey (OBDS) was developed to assess the behavior of line and staff managers and administrators in group and interpersonal situations arising during the course of work. It can be used as a self-evaluation form or to obtain descriptions of behavior from others.

The OBDS originally was developed deductively from Argyris's (1962) theory of interpersonal behavior in organizations. Argyris postulates two kinds of administrative competence: rational-technical competence and interpersonal competence. Rational-technical competence is the ability to meet intellectual-knowledge and technical-skill requirements of the job; interpersonal competence is the individual's willingness and ability to deal directly and openly with the emotional aspects of interpersonal relationships in the organization.

Argyris's theory is similar to other two-factor theories of organizational behavior, notably Fleishman's Initiating Structure and Consideration, Blake's Managerial Grid, and McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. Another Fleishman instrument, the *Supervisory Behavior Questionnaire,* was already available for assessing supervisory behavior on the dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration. It focused on supervisor-subordinate relationships and was primarily designed for the first-line level of supervision. In contrast, the OBDS was designed to produce a more general measure of interpersonal behavior, not only downward in the organization but laterally and upward as well.

In the first attempt to construct the instrument, twenty items were deductively composed—ten representing rational—technical aspects of interpersonal behavior and ten describing interpersonal competence as defined by Argyris. These items were factor analyzed, using 321 descriptions of managers in a technical manufacturing firm at middle levels of responsibility. Instead of the two expected factors, three important dimensions emerged from the analysis: rational-technical competence (24 percent of the variance), interpersonal competence (22 percent of the variance), and emotional expressiveness (11 percent of the variance).

These results indicated that the expressive and receptive aspects of interpersonal competence were not seen by respondents as closely related to each other. Being open to the ideas and feelings of others was seen as quite different from being open in expression of one's feelings. This seemed an important finding, because it identified another factor beyond the two usually considered important in organizational behavior and because it implied that aspects of interpersonal behavior that trainers and

organizational consultants have carelessly tended to think of together may be quite separate processes.

Correlations were calculated between the three scales of the OBDS and the rating on Fleishman's *Supervisory Behavior Questionnaire.* As expected, the interpersonal competence scale showed moderately high correlations (median = .62) with Fleishman's Consideration Scale. Both the rational-technical and emotional expressiveness scales of the OBDS were moderately correlated with Fleishman's Initiating Structure Scale (median = .47). The emotional expressiveness scale showed negligible correlations with Fleishman's Consideration Scale and lower correlations with the OBDS interpersonal competence scale than with the rational-technical scale. This provided further evidence that the receptive and expressive aspects of interpersonal behavior may be seen quite differently.

Based on these preliminary results, development of the OBDS was carried out. A thirty-six-item questionnaire was constructed, and the descriptions by 189 subordinates of middle managers attending human relations training workshops were factor analyzed. An essentially similar factorial structure was obtained. This was tested by further factor analysis of descriptions of middle managers by fellow participants in a human relations training laboratory (T-group). In this artificial and specialized interaction situation, similar factors were found to those obtained from on-the-job descriptions. The resulting scales are presented here for use in studies of organizational behavior, evaluation of training, and the analysis of interpersonal behavior in groups.

In the current version of the OBDS, four scales are used. These are not altogether independent factorially. The basic factor structure is still three dimensional. However, the items in each of the four scales cluster rather neatly together and have a unity of connotation that argues for separate scoring. The median interscale correlations and reliability estimates of these scales are given in Table 1.

Interscale correlations are based on twelve samples (median N = 51), including:

1. descriptions by fellow members of managers participating in a T-group laboratory;
2. descriptions of industrial managers by self, supervisor, subordinate, and peer;
3. descriptions of managers in an applied-research organization by the categories of describers in (2); and
4. descriptions of YMCA executives by the categories of describers in (2).

Table 1. Median Interscale Correlations and Reliability Estimates of OBDS Scales

Scale	Rational-Technical Competence	Verbal Dominance	Consideration	Emotional Expressiveness
Rational-Technical Competence	.73 (pre-post)[1] .83 (split half)[2]	.69	.36	–.03
Verbal Dominance		.71 (pre-post) .84 (split half)	.23	.13
Consideration			.70 (pre-post) .92 (split half)	–.29
Emotional Expressiveness				.70 (pre-post) .89 (split half)

[1] Pre-post correlations are with intervening training experience and are based on eleven samples (median N=49).

[2] Speaman-Brown split-half reliabilities are based on four samples (median N=80).

Inspection of Table 1 shows reasonable independence of the scales, with the exception of verbal dominance and rational-technical competence, which are closely related. It is interesting to note the low negative correlation between consideration and emotional expressiveness in view of the attempts by practitioners of laboratory training to encourage increases in behavior on both dimensions. There is, in fact, a consistent tendency in our research for managers who rank high on emotional expressiveness to be seen in generally negative ways by their associates.

The reliabilities reported in Table 1 are adequate, especially considering the shortness of the scales. The pre-test correlations are also evidence of considerable stability, considering that they are based on pre-test time differences averaging two months and that they encompass an intervening human relations training experience designed to produce change along the dimensions measured by the OBDS.

With an instrument measuring behavior through descriptions, it is important to consider not only intradescriber reliability but also to assess interdescriber reliability: the degree of agreement among observers of the same individual's behavior. Accordingly, correlations were calculated between descriptions of the same person by self, supervisor, and subordinate. The findings, presented in Table 2, are based on the same populations as the figures in Table 1.

Table 2. Median Interdescriber Correlations, OBDS Scales

Scale	Correlations Based on Different Roles (13 Samples)		Correlations Based on Same Role (Subordinate) (2 Samples)	
	Median r	Range	r	N
Rational-Technical Competence	.14	–.03 to .27	.39	70
			.24	28
Verbal Dominance	.20	–.05 to .47	.28	61
			.40	22
Consideration	.14	–.07 to .40	.15	69
			.45	26
Emotional Expressiveness	.30	.09 to .56	.50	66
			.56	29

Note: Median N = 53; range of N's: 15 to 66.

These findings are not very encouraging if one hopes to obtain a composite measure from several describers of an individual's interpersonal style in his or her organizational setting. When compared with the respectable intradescriber reliabilities, these figures are small indeed.

The inclusion of self-subordinate and self-supervisor correlations in this determination may be questioned on the grounds that self-descriptions are more subject to distortion than are descriptions by associates. There is, however, no indication from the distribution of correlations that this is the case. Roughly the same range of relationships was found in those correlations involving self-descriptions as in those based on observations by subordinate and supervisor. The data suggest, rather, that there is in fact considerable inconsistency in personal style, depending on some combination of the perceptual idiosyncracies of the observer and the behavior-determining role relationships between the observer and the individual described. From the data in Table 2, it can be seen that correlations between descriptions by two subordinates of the same supervisor are, on all scales, higher than the median of correlations based on different roles. This suggests that some of the unreliability between raters is indeed due to role relationships that influence interpersonal style. However, even within the same role, the interrater correlations leave a great deal to be desired.

It also is of interest that the correlations tend to be higher for verbal dominance and emotional expressiveness than they do for rational-technical competence and consideration. The items in the latter two scales require a higher degree of inference and refer less directly to observable behavior than do the items in the verbal-dominance and emotional-expressiveness scales. The more inference we require from the describer, of course, the more we can expect his or her judgment to be affected by his or her own

psychological processes. For this reason the "best" scale should be one that is based most heavily on concrete descriptions of observable behavior.

In this connection it is interesting to compare Fleishman's *Supervisory Behavior Questionnaire* with the OBDS. In the study in which the OBDS was first developed, we also obtained descriptions on Fleishman's instrument from self, supervisor, peer, and subordinate (N = 50). The median interrater correlations were .39 for initiating structure and .16 for consideration. Thus, the OBDS and the *Supervisory Behavior Questionnaire* compare favorably in interrater reliability on the consideration dimension, but Fleishman's instrument has a better showing on initiating structure than the OBDS has on verbal dominance, the closest OBDS scale in content.

The rather high mean scores on the OBDS suggest that the responses could be designed to produce a greater spread of scores. For example:

4 = Always

3 = Most of the time

2 = Often

1 = Occasionally

0 = Seldom

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ORGANIZATION BEHAVIOR DESCRIBER SURVEY (OBDS)

Roger Harrison and Barry Oshry

Instructions: Listed below are twenty-five descriptions of ways that people behave in staff and problem-solving meetings. Choose an actual person in your organization and select the alternative in each item that comes closest to describing that person's behavior at work. Select a number using the five-point scale given below and write in the number in the first blank. Write only one alternative for each item. Keep in mind that you are limiting yourself to a description of how this person behaves only in *meetings* and *work-oriented situations or conversations.*

The person I am describing is: (check one)

_____ Myself
_____ My superior
_____ My subordinate
_____ Someone who works at the same level as I
_____ Other (specify) _____

I have known this person for approximately _____ years.

I spend about _____ hours per month with this person in *meetings* and/or *work-oriented situations or conversations.*

4 = Always

3 = Most of the time

2 = Often

1 = Occasionally

0 = Seldom

____ ____ 1. He/She tries to understand the feelings (anger, impatience, rejection) expressed by others in the group.

____ ____ 2. He shows intelligence.

____ ____ 3. He/She sympathizes with others when they have difficulties.

____ ____ 4. He/She expresses ideas clearly and concisely.

____ ____ 5. He expresses his/her own feelings, e. g., when he/she is ignored, angry, impatient.

____ ____ 6. He/She is tolerant and accepting of other people's feelings.

____ ____ 7. He/She thinks quickly.

____ ____ 8. He/She is angry or upset when things do not go his/her way.

____ ____ 9. He/She is persuasive, a "seller of ideas."

____ ____10. You can tell quickly when he/she likes or dislikes what others do or say.

____ ____11. He/She listens and tries to use the ideas raised by others in the group.

____ ____12. He/She demonstrates high technical or professional competence. He/She "knows his/her stuff."

____ ____13. He/She is warm and friendly with those who work with him/her.

____ ____14. He/She is able to attract the attention of others.

____ ____15. His/Her feelings are transparent; he/she does not have a "poker face."

____ ____16. He/She comes up with good ideas.

____ ____17. He/She encourages others to express their ideas before he/she acts.

____ ____18. He/She tries to help when others become angry or upset.

____ ____19. He/She tries out new ideas.

____ ____20. He/She is competitive; he/she likes to win and hates to lose.

____ ____21. He/She presents his/her ideas convincingly.

____ ____22. If others in the group become angry or upset, he/she listens with understanding.

____ ____23. He/She offers effective solutions to problems.

____ ____24. He/She tends to be emotional.

____ ____25. When he/she talks, others listen.

TOTALS ☐ **R-TC** ☐ **VD** ☐ **EE** ☐ **C**

OBDS SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Scoring instructions:

1. Go back over your responses to the twenty-five items on the Organization Behavior Describer Survey and assign a number value to each of your responses, using the scale below:

   4 = Always

   3 = Most of the time

   2 = Often

   1 = Occasionally

   0 = Seldom

2. In the second blank in front of each item, write one of the following codes:

Items	Code
2, 7, 12, 16, 19, 23	R-TC
4, 9, 14, 20, 21, 25	VD
5, 8, 10, 15, 24	EE
1, 3, 6, 11, 13, 17, 18, 22	C

3. Sum the scores of the items for each code and enter them in the four boxes at the end of the instrument.

Interpretation: Your profile of scores describes a person's behavior according to the following four major dimensions.

R-TC: Rational-Technical Competence. This is the degree to which the person behaves intelligently and quickly, demonstrates competence, has good ideas, tries out new ideas, and offers effective solutions to problems.

VD: Verbal Dominance. This score reflects your assessment of the degree to which the person tends to behave competitively, persuasively, and in an attention-getting manner; presents ideas convincingly; commands attention; and expresses ideas clearly and concisely.

EE: Emotional Expressiveness. This is the degree to which the person becomes emotional (e.g., acts angry or upset when things do not go his or her way), expresses his or her own feelings and emotions, and expresses how he or she feels about what other people say.

C: Consideration. This score reflects the degree to which the person listens and responds to the ideas raised by others, encourages others to express their ideas, tries to understand the feelings expressed by others, tries to help when others become angry or upset, listens empathically, and is warm and friendly with those who work with him or her.

Because the four scales do not have an equal number of items, you can make them comparable by utilizing the following procedure:

1. Copy your four total scores below.

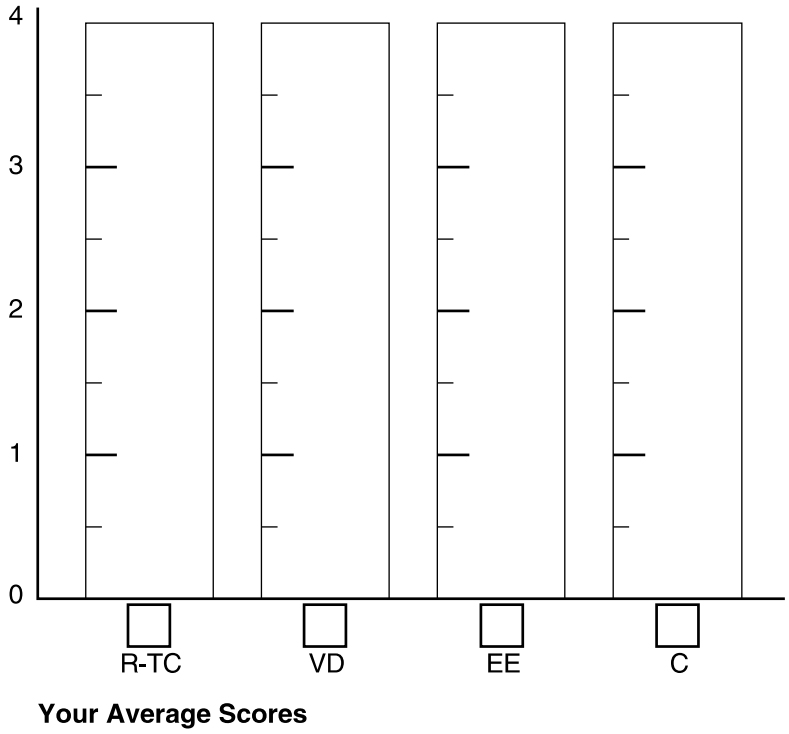
   ☐ R-TC ☐ VD ☐ EE ☐ C

2. Divide each score by the appropriate number below and enter the result in the boxes.

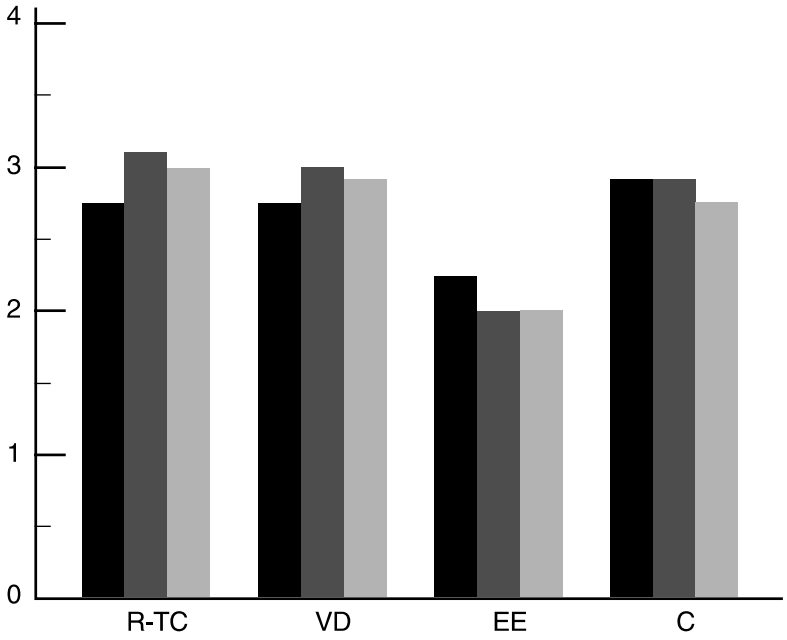
   ÷ 6 ÷ 6 ÷5 ÷8

   ☐ R-TC ☐ VD ☐ EE ☐ C

These scores can be plotted on the following diagram and compared with the norms.



Your Average Scores



Norms

Combined norms of human relations laboratory participants, research and development managers, and YMCA managers (groups virtually identical on the OBDS)

Self N = 214

Subordinate N = 365

Superior N = 201

SCALE OF FEELINGS AND BEHAVIOR OF LOVE

Clifford H. Swensen

This scale was constructed as a first step toward a study of love relationships among normal people. It was felt that "love" itself was not a discrete entity, but rather the extreme positive end of the distribution of all kinds of relationships. Relationships could range from the conflicted, nonproductive, or indifferent at one end of a continuum to nurturing, affectionate, fulfilling (love) at the other end of the continuum.

It also seemed to me that "love" itself could not be studied directly, but that the manifestations of love could he studied. What could be studied was the way a person behaved toward another person whom he or she loved, or the things he or she said, or the way he or she felt. Three hundred people were interviewed, ranging in age from seventeen to forty-two, and asked to describe the things they did, said, or felt toward people they loved that were different from their behavior, words, or feelings toward people with whom they were acquainted but did not love.

This inquiry netted several hundred statements. When these statements were examined for duplications, a total of 383 different ways (or items) of expressing love remained. These 383 statements were written in the form of items and administered to a sample of 592 subjects.

These subjects answered the items on the scale for their relationship with five people: mother, father, closest sibling, closest friend of the same sex, and closest friend of the opposite sex (or spouse).

The scale was then split into thirds for the purpose of factor analysis. These thirds were factor analyzed both for each relationship and for all of the relationships combined. A total of eighteen factor analyses were performed on the data (Swensen, 1961; Swensen & Gilner, 1964).

Seven factors repeatedly appeared in these factor analyses. These factors were:

1. Verbal expression of feelings
2. Self-disclosure of personal facts about oneself
3. Willingness to tolerate the less pleasant aspects of the loved person
4. Moral support, encouragement, interest (nonmaterial evidence of love)
5. Feelings that the person felt but had never expressed verbally to the loved person
6. Giving gifts, doing favors or chores, providing material support (material evidence of love)
7. Physical expression of love

Other factors also were detected, but not consistently, so these seven factors became the basis of the scale. Subsequent use of the scale led to the elimination of factor seven (physical expression), as physical expression appeared to be highly consistent with the relationship. Some items were added to the other subscales in order to improve the reliability of the subscales, with the present version containing 120 items and six subscales.

This 120-item scale was administered to three different age groups: young (aged 18-26), middle-aged (aged 27-50), and older (aged 51-80). The factor analysis was repeated, confirming the original factors, and the reliability of the subscales was assessed (Gilner, 1967).

RELIABILITY

The reliability of the subscales was assessed for each of the three age groups. The test-retest reliabilities for young adults were: (1) Verbal expression, .89; (2) Self-disclosure, .93; (3) Toleration, .81; (4) Nonmaterial evidence, .81; (5) Feelings, .77; (6) Material evidence, .96. The reliabilities for the older groups tended to be somewhat lower, but this seemed to be partially a function of lack of familiarity of the subjects with this kind of instrument.

BRIEF SUMMARY OF RESULTS OBTAINED WITH THE SCALE (Swenson, 1972)

Relationships with parents are largely expressed through toleration, material means, and encouragement and moral support. Relationships with peers are largely expressed verbally. The highest amount of love expression, which is high on all of the subscales, is for relationship with the spouse. The weakest relationships are with siblings.

When two people in a relationship complete the scales, there is a high degree of agreement between the two, suggesting a high level or reciprocity of expression in love relationships.

Married couples who are satisfied with their marriage relationship score significantly higher than couples with troubled marriages on all subscales except the unexpressed feelings subscale. Troubled couples report significantly more unexpressed feelings than satisfied couples (Fiore, 1971).

SCORING THE SCALE

The present version of the scale contains 120 items with six subscales. The items within each subscale are:

1. *Verbal expression* (items 1-20)
2. *Self-disclosure* (items 21-40)

3. *Toleration* of the less pleasant aspects of the loved person (items 41-61)
4. *Nonmaterial evidence*—support, encouragement, etc. (items 62-85)
5. *Feelings not expressed verbally* (items 86-104)
6. *Material evidence*—gifts, chores, financial support (items 105-120)

The scale is scored by simply adding up the numbers of the choices made by the subjects to each item in a subscale. The lowest score possible for each item is "1," and the highest possible for an item is "3." Thus, for a subscale containing twenty items, the lowest possible subscale score is "20" and the highest possible subscale score is "60." If, in the first subscale-which contains 20 items—a subject had answered ten items by marking choice "1," five items by marking choice "2," and five items by marking choice "3," the subject's subscale score would be: $10(1) + 5(2) + 5(3) = 35$.

The normative data for the subscale scores are available from the author.

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SCALE OF FEELINGS AND BEHAVIOR OF LOVE

Clifford H. Swensen and Frank Gilner

This scale contains items describing the many ways in which people feel they express love. Some of these items describe things said between people who love each other, some describe feelings people have for people whom they love, and some describe things people do for people they love. None of these items would be true of every love relationship. For example, items that would describe the relationship between a husband and wife would not accurately describe the relationship between a mother and daughter.

Instructions: When you answer the items for your relationship with a person you love, be sure to mark an answer for every item. Each item has three choices. Mark the choice that comes closest to describing the way you behave, talk, or feel toward the person you love, as the relationship exists *at the present time.*

There is no time limit, but you should mark your answer to the items as rapidly as you can.

Be sure to indicate the relationship for which you are answering (for example, mother, brother, wife, etc.).

The relationship is with_____

1. The loved one tells you that he (she) feels you get along well together.
   (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.
2. The loved one tells you that he (she) wants to live up to your expectations for him (her).
   (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.
3. The loved one tells you that he (she) feels a good "spirit" in the things he (she) does with you.
   (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.
4. The loved one tells you that he (she) feels free to talk about anything with you.
   (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.
5. The loved one tells you that he (she) trusts you completely.
   (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.

(b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
(c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

6. You tell the loved one that you feel safe when you are with him (her).
   (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
   (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
   (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
7. You tell the loved one that you feel that your relationship has improved with time.
   (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
   (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
   (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
8. The loved one tells you that the thought of you dying disturbs him (her).
   (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.
9. The loved one tells you that he (she) feels your relationship has improved with time.
   (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.
10. You tell the loved one that you feel that you understand each other.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
11. You tell the loved one that you don't have to put up a "false front" around him (her).
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
12. You tell the loved one that you have a warm, happy feeling when you are with him (her).
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
13. You tell the loved one that you have faith in him (her).
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

14. You tell the loved one that you want to live up to his (her) expectations for you.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
15. You tell the loved one that you feel more cheerful, optimistic, and confident when you are with him (her).
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
16. You tell the loved one that you feel a "good spirit" in the things you do with him (her).
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
17. You tell the loved one that you trust him (her) completely.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
18. You tell the loved one that you feel he (she) is important and worthwhile.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
19. You tell the loved one that you feel free to talk about anything with him (her).
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
20. You tell the loved one that you feel his (her) expectations of you are not too great—they are reasonable.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.
21. The loved one tells you whether or not he (she) does anything special to maintain or improve his (her) appearance, such as diet, exercise, etc.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.
22. The loved one tells you the kind of behavior in others that annoys him (her) or makes him (her) furious.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.

(b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
(c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

23. The loved one tells you his (her) thoughts and feelings about religious groups other than his (her) own.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

24. The loved one tells you whether or not he (she) plans some major decision in the near future—such as a job, breaking an engagement, getting married, getting divorced, buying something big.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

25. The loved one tells you his (her) favorite jokes—the kind of jokes he (she) likes to hear.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

26. You tell the loved one what particularly annoys you most about your closest friend of the opposite sex.
    (a) You have *never* told him (her) this.
    (b) You have *occasionally* told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* told him (her) this.

27. You tell the loved one things about your own personality that worry or annoy you.
    (a) You have *never* told him (her) this.
    (b) You have *occasionally* told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* told him (her) this.

28. The loved one tells you what his (her) chief health concern, worry, or problem is at the present time.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

29. The loved one tells you what his (her) spare-time hobbies or interests are.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

30. The loved one tells you what particularly annoys him (her) most about his (her) closest friend of the opposite sex.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

31. You tell the loved one what the chief pressures and strains in your daily work are.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him(her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

32. You tell the loved one things about the future that worry you at present.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

33. You tell the loved one what you are most sensitive about.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

34. You tell the loved one the kind of behavior in others that most annoys you or makes you furious.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

35. You tell the loved one what you regard as your chief handicap to doing a better job in your work or school.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

36. You tell the loved one what your strongest ambition is at the present time.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

37. You tell the loved one whether or not you plan some major decision in the near future—a job, breaking an engagement, getting married, getting divorced, buying something big.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

38. The loved one tells you the chief pressures and strains in his (her) daily work.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

39. The loved one tells you what he (she) is most sensitive about.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

40. The loved one tells you his (her) views about what is acceptable sex morality for people to follow.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

41. The loved one tells you the things about his (her) appearance that he (she) likes most or is proudest of.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

42. You provide support for the loved one's food, clothing, and housing.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

43. You sacrifice your own needs, such as clothes, in order to provide for the loved one.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

44. The loved one gives you an accurate knowledge of his (her) sex life up to the present—the names of sex partners in the past, if any; his (her) ways of getting sexual gratification.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

45. The loved one tells you what he (she) feels the guiltiest about, or most ashamed of in his (her) past.
    (a) He (She) *never* told you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* has mentioned such things.
    (c) He (She) always tells you when he (she) has done something he (she) feels very guilty or ashamed about.

46. The loved one tells you the characteristics of his (her) mother that he (she) does not like or did not like.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

47. You tell the loved one whether or not you have sex problems and the nature of these problems.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

48. You feel that you don't have to put up a "false front" around the loved one.
    (a) You *never* feel this way.
    (b) You *occasionally* feel this way.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way.

49. You give the loved one an accurate knowledge of your sex life up to the present—the names of your sex partners in the past, if any; your ways of getting sexual gratification.
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

50. You tell the loved one what you feel the guiltiest about or most ashamed of in the past.
    (a) You *never* told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have mentioned such things.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) when you have done something you feel guilty or ashamed about.

51. The loved one shows love by a willingness to change or give up his (her) ideals in order to please you.
    (a) He (She) *never* does this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does this.

52. You provide money or support for his (her) education.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

53. The loved one is like another person that you have loved, such as a relative.
    (a) You *never* feel this way.
    (b) You *occasionally* feel this way.
    (c) You *frequently* feel this way.

54. You do things or go places with the loved one even though these activities don't particularly appeal to you.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

55. You show love for the loved one by a willingness to change or give up ideals for him (her).
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

56. You teach the loved one values and ideals in life.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

57. You discipline the loved one.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

58. The differences that come up between you do not disrupt the relationship.
    (a) Our differences *frequently* disrupt the relationship.
    (b) Our differences *occasionally* disrupt the relationship.
    (c) Our differences *never* disrupt the relationship.

59. You pray for the loved one.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

60. The loved one tells you that he (she) wants you to agree with him (her) when he (she) is in an argument with a third person.
    (a) He (She) *never* tells you this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tells you this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tells you this.

61. You tell the loved one that you want to marry him (her).
    (a) You *never* tell him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* tell him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* tell him (her) this.

62. The loved one can trust you because you are honest and truthful with him (her).
    (a) The loved one can *never* trust you.
    (b) The loved one can *occasionally* trust you.
    (c) The loved one can *frequently* trust you.

63. The loved one teaches you values and ideals in life.
    (a) He (She) *never* teaches you values and ideals.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* teaches you values and ideals.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* teaches you values and ideals.

64. You listen with interest when the loved one talks.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

65. The loved one teaches you skills, such as how to drive a car or how to sew, etc.
    (a) He (She) *never* teaches you skills.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* teaches you skills.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* teaches you skills.

66. The loved one can be trusted because he (she) has been honest and truthful with you.
    (a) You can *never* trust him (her).
    (b) You can *occasionally* trust him (her).
    (c) You can *frequently* trust him (her).

67. The loved one approves of you.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

68. You write to the loved one when you are separated.
    (a) You *never* do.
    (b) You *occasionally* do.
    (c) You *frequently* do.

69. You approve of the loved one.
    (a) You *never* do.
    (b) You *occasionally* do.
    (c) You *frequently* do.

70. You are not over-demanding of the loved one, but are considerate of his (her) time, energy, etc.
    (a) You are *frequently* over-demanding.
    (b) You are *occasionally* over-demanding.
    (c) You are *never* over-demanding.

71. You encourage the loved one when he (she) is discouraged.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

72. The loved one shows an interest in you and your work.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

73. The loved one is not over-demanding of you, but is considerate of your own time, energy, etc.
    (a) He (She) *frequently* is over-demanding.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* is over-demanding.
    (c) He (She) *never* is over-demanding.

74. The loved one gives you encouragement when you are discouraged.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

75. The loved one allows you to make the final decisions in the things that are of primary importance to you.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

76. The loved one is respectful and considerate of your opinions.
    (a) He (She) *never* is.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* is.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* is.

77. The loved one is even-tempered and kind in his (her) dealings with you.
    (a) He (She) *never* is.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* is.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* is.

78. You try to live up to the loved one's ideals and expectations for you.
    (a) You *never* try to.
    (b) You *occasionally* try to.
    (c) You *frequently* try to.

79. You are respectful and considerate of the loved one's opinions.
    (a) You *never* are.
    (b) You *occasionally* are.
    (c) You *frequently* are.

80. You are courteous to the loved one.
    (a) You *never* are.
    (b) You *occasionally* are.
    (c) You *frequently* are.

81. You are even-tempered and kind in your dealings with the loved one.
    (a) You *never* are.
    (b) You *occasionally* are.
    (c) You *frequently* are.

82. The loved one tries to get you in a good mood when you are angry.
    (a) He (She) *never* tries.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tries.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tries.

83. The loved one gives you good or useful advice.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

84. The loved one disciplines you.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

85 You obey the loved one.
    (a) You *never* do.
    (b) You *occasionally* do.
    (c) You always do.

86. You feel you want to look attractive for the loved person, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have *never* told him (her) this.
    (c) You *frequently* have felt this way, *but* you have *never* told him (her) this.

87. You feel that you get along well with the loved person, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

88. You feel that you understand each other, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

89. You feel that the loved one doesn't expect too much from you, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

90. You hope that your relationship with the loved one will continue indefinitely, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

91. You trust the loved one completely, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

92. You want to live up to the loved one's expectations for you, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

93. You feel more cheerful, optimistic, and confident when you are with the loved one, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

94. You feel free to talk about anything with the loved one, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
    (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
    (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

95. You feel safe when you are with the loved one, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
    (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.

(b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
(c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

96. You miss the loved one when you are separated, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
(a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
(b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
(c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

97. You feel that you want the loved one to approve of your friends, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
(a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
(b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have *never* told him (her) this.
(c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

98. You feel that the loved one is very attractive, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
(a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
(b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
(c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

99. You feel good when you recall advice the loved one gave you, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
(a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
(b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
(c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

100. You wonder what the loved one is doing when you are separated from him (her), *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
(a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
(b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
(c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

101. You feel that the loved one is considerate and kind to you, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
(a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
(b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
(c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

102. You admire the loved one, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
   (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
   (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
   (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

103. You feel fortunate to have such a relationship with the loved one, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
   (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
   (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
   (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

104. You have a warm, happy feeling when you are with the loved one, *but you have never actually told him (her) this.*
   (a) You have *never* felt this way, *or* you have felt this way and have told him (her) this.
   (b) You *occasionally* have felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.
   (c) You have *frequently* felt this way, *but* you have never told him (her) this.

105. The loved one prays for you.
   (a) He (She) *never* does.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

106. You try to get the loved one in a good mood when he (she) is angry.
   (a) You *never* do this.
   (b) You *occasionally* do this.
   (c) You *frequently* do this.

107. The loved one runs errands for you-to the store, etc.
   (a) He (She) *never* does this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* does this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* does this.

108. The loved one loans objects of value to you-such as a car.
   (a) He (She) *never* does this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* does this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* does this.

109. The loved one provides constructive criticism when you need it.
   (a) He (She) *never* does this.
   (b) He (She) *occasionally* does this.
   (c) He (She) *frequently* does this.

110. The loved one directly protects you from harm or bodily injury.
    (a) He (She) *never* does this.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does this.

111. If you support the loved one, he (she) tries to be economical in his (her) expenditures.
    (a) He (She) *never* tries to be, or this item does not apply.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* tries to be.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* tries to be.

112. The loved one secures favors for you, such as getting dates, or a job, etc.
    (a) He (She) *never* does this, or this item does not apply.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does this.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does this.

113. You run errands for the loved one-to the store, etc.
    (a) You *never* do this.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

114. You secure favors for the loved one, such as obtaining dates for him (her), or a job, etc.
    (a) You *never* do this, or this item does not apply.
    (b) You *occasionally* do this.
    (c) You *frequently* do this.

115. The loved one provides support for food, clothing, and housing for you.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

116. The loved one performs chores for you-washing or ironing clothes, typing papers, driving you around, etc.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

117. The loved one helps you with tasks such as homework, household tasks, etc.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.
    (b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
    (c) He (She) *frequently* does.

118. The loved one serves on things you are involved in, such as sponsor for a club to which you belong.
    (a) He (She) *never* does.

(b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
(c) He (She) *frequently* does.

119. The loved one provides direct support when you are in difficulties, such as intervening when you are in conflict with school authorities or the police, etc.
(a) He (She) *never* does.
(b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
(c) He (She) *frequently* does.

120. The loved one provides money or support for education.
(a) He (She) *never* does this.
(b) He (She) *occasionally* does.
(c) He (She) *frequently* does.

SCALE OF MARRIAGE PROBLEMS

Clifford H. Swensen and Anthony Fiore

Tolstoy wrote, “All happy families resemble one another; every unhappy family is unhappy in its own fashion.” Our research suggests that, contrary to Tolstoy, both very happy and very unhappy families are much alike, but that families in the middle, those neither very happy nor very unhappy, vary a great deal, with each being either mostly happy or unhappy in its own fashion.

DIMENSIONS OF MARRIAGE INTERACTION

The accompanying Scale of Marriage Problems attempts to examine and measure the dimensions underlying marriage interaction.

Whether examining individual behavior in groups or the functioning of groups themselves, research results seem to point consistently to three basic dimensions underlying the interpersonal relationship: (1) dominance versus submission; (2) affection versus hostility; and (3) group facilitation versus group obstruction (e.g., Bales, 1970; Foa, 1961; Leary, 1957; Schutz, 1958; Swensen, 1973). The first dimension has to do with who dominates whom. The second has to do with who is warm and affectionate and who is cold, distant, or hostile. The third dimension is concerned with who helps the group achieve its goals or who obstructs and prevents the group from achieving its goals.

If viewed from the level of the individual, these dimensions become a method for determining the personality of the individual based on the way the person typically interacts with other people. Leary’s system of personality diagnosis (1957), for example, is a method for diagnosing psychiatric patients based on how the patient typically behaves toward other people. Used at the level of the group, or, in the case of a married couple, at the level of the dyad, these same dimensions may be used to typify a particular relationship. The dominance-submission dimension runs from one pole, characterized by one person being dominant and the other being submissive, to the opposite pole, characterized by a relationship of equality between the participants. The affection-hostility dimension describes a warm, affectionate relationship at one pole and a cold, hostile relationship at the opposite pole. The facilitation-obstruction dimension is characterized at one end by relationships that accomplish their tasks and, at the other end, by relationships that never accomplish instrumental tasks. Haley’s study of the families of schizophrenics (1962) is an example of groups that are unable to accomplish tasks they set for themselves.

MARRIAGE CLASSIFICATIONS

Many schemes have been developed for classifying marriages. If these schemes are valid and if the three dimensions described earlier also are valid, it should be possible to classify these schemes according to the dimensions described. One of the better known marriage-classification systems is that of Winch (1958), who based his system on psychological needs and two dimensions: dominance-submission and nurturance-succorance. His nurturance-succorance dimension is very similar to the affection-hostility dimension of this scale. Using his two dimensions, he developed four different types of marriage: mother-son, master-servant girl, Ibsenian, and Thurberian. The mother-son relationship is characterized by a wife who dominates the marriage and nurtures her husband. The master-servant girl marriage is one in which the husband dominates and is nurtured by his wife. The Ibsenian marriage is one in which the husband dominates and nurtures his wife. The Thurberian marriage is one in which the wife dominates and the wife is nurtured by her husband. The difficulty with this scheme is that it contains no place for the kind of marriage in which no individual dominates or in which both mates (or neither) nurture each other.

TROUBLED VERSUS FUNCTIONING MARRIAGES

Two separate pieces of research (Fiore, 1972; Kemp, 1974) suggest that there is one main dimension in marriage: a troubled marriage versus a functioning, self-actualizing marriage.

In the course of the first study, in which Fiore related types of marriage problems to ways of expressing love in an intimate relationship, an inventory of the actual problems encountered by these married couples was obtained. The results indicated that there are two main types of marriage: happy and functioning or unhappy and troubled. Beyond this, the varieties of marriage are many.

In the course of the second study, Kemp obtained data on marriage problems, role relationships, self-esteem, and self-actualizing values among the 110 married, university-student couples he studied. He found one main dimension: functioning, self-actualized marriages versus troubled marriages.

Characteristics

Kemp found that functioning marriages were characterized by a high self-esteem of the partners, equalitarian role expectations, the promotion of growth in each spouse by the other, agreement on the goals of marriage, and the ability to agree on individual goals and unequal role relationships. He found a high, inverse relationship between marriage problems, on one hand, and self-actualization in the marriage on the other hand.

In a third study, Swensen (1974) interviewed fourteen married people, assessed the level of self-actualization of each, rank-ordered them for self-actualization, and looked for the differences among them in their descriptions of their marriages and marriage in general. The self-actualization level was based on a series of interview questions

adapted from Maslow's (1971) descriptions of the characteristics of self-actualized people. Although none of these marriages was troubled, some differences between them emerged. The most self-actualized people were involved in marriages in which each partner was actively helping his or her spouse develop that partner's own personal and professional growth; those individuals at lower levels of self-actualization were more likely to be jealous of a mate's good fortune or of the attention the mate received from other people. The more self-actualized could not conceive of the marriage ending except in a situation in which the mate left and refused to attempt in any way to maintain the relationship. The less self-actualized persons cited examples of situations, usually involving mistreatment or neglect by the mate, that would lead them to break off the relationship.

These studies make clear the one main dimension to the marriage relationship: a functioning, self-actualizing marriage versus a troubled, dysfunctional marriage. Taking the descriptions of these two kinds of marriages and fitting them into the three-dimensional scheme described earlier, it would appear that, at one pole, the self-actualizing functional axis would be a marriage in which the couple is equalitarian, warm and affectionate, and able to solve problems and to complete tasks. The other pole, the troubled marriage, is characterized by one mate's domination, indifference, or hostility, and the partners' inability to solve problems or complete tasks.

Between these two poles would fall the vast majority of marriages that are neither hopelessly troubled nor genuinely self-actualizing: marriages in which the couple can solve problems but is not warm and affectionate; marriages in which the couple is warm and affectionate, equalitarian, but unable to complete tasks; marriages in which the couple is able to solve problems, is warm and affectionate, but one partner is dominated by the other; or marriages in which the couple is equalitarian and able to solve problems, but in which the partners are indifferent to each other. In other words, happy marriages are much alike, and miserable marriages are much alike, but a mediocre marriage is mediocre in its own way.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING

These results also seem to have some implications for marriage counseling and for marriage-enrichment programs. If the happy, self-actualizing marriage is characterized by certain kinds of behavior, then programs designed to improve marriages should develop along lines that foster self-actualizing behavior between the partners in the marriage. Those engaged in marriage-enrichment programs need to develop a series of activities that will give the partners a clear idea of the characteristics of a self-actualizing solution. Training needs to include coaching that will help the learner improve the number of self-actualizing choices he or she makes.

In the past, much of the effort in improving marriages has been directed toward improving communications between marriage partners, particularly the awareness and communication of feelings. Although this is a step in the right direction, seemingly it is

not enough. Improving communications is only a partial step; systematic training in self-actualizing behavior is also needed.

SCALE OF MARRIAGE PROBLEMS

In the process of conducting the research on the dimensions underlying marriage, described earlier, a scale for measuring marriage problems was developed from actual problems reported by married couples seeking help. One hundred different kinds of marriage problems were obtained. Items describing these 100 problems were administered to thirty-five couples who had normal, functional marriages and to thirty-five couples who were seeking counseling for troubled, dysfunctional marriages. This sample of seventy couples, or 140 individuals, ranged in age from twenty-one to fifty-five, in length of marriage from four months to thirty-three years, in formal education from nine years to twenty years, and in occupation from unskilled laborer to professional.

Six Factors

Each of these 140 persons completed the 100-item marriage-problems scale. The items were intercorrelated and factor-analyzed by the principle-components method, and the factors were rotated by the varimax method.[1] Six main factors were obtained, composed of items that were of the following types:

Factor I.	Problem solving, decision making, goal setting.
Factor II.	Child rearing and home labor.
Factor III.	Relatives and in-laws.
Factor IV.	Personal care and appearance.
Factor V.	Money management.
Factor VI.	Expression of affection and outside friendships.

Forty-three items accounted for these six factors. These six factors accounted for 50 percent of the variance in the item pool. Nineteen more factors were extracted, but these additional factors contained only one or two items and they were composed of items that usually appeared similar to the items contained in the factors already extracted. Thus, the final scale was composed of six factors, or subscales, and a total of forty-three items.

In the original administration of the full 100-item scale to thirty-five functional and thirty-five dysfunctional married couples, all but two of the items were marked by at least one member of a married couple in both the functional and dysfunctional groups. These two items are not included in this forty-three-item scale. Therefore, all of the items in this scale should be applicable to at least some normal married couples and to some troubled married couples.

The two groups, functional and dysfunctional married couples, were compared for their answers on the scale. Highly significant differences (.001 level) were found

[1] Thanks to Marguerite Sim for shepherding the data through the computer.

between the two groups on the number of marriage problems reported, the severity of the problems, and the agreement between the husband and wife on problems. The functioning married couples reported an average of thirty out of 100 items to be a problem; the dysfunctional married couples reported an average of eighty-one problems. Therefore, the scale should clearly discriminate between functioning and dysfunctioning married couples in terms of total scores.

The reliabilities of the six factor scores, determined by Cronbach's alpha, were .82 for subscale 1, .78 for subscale 2, .70 for subscale 3, .32 for subscale 4, .73 for subscale 5, and .48 for subscale 6. The total scale (total marriage-problems score) had a reliability of .85.

SCORING

To obtain factor scores, the answers to each item are added in the following way:

- 0 for each answer marked "A"
- 1 for each answer marked "B"
- 2 for each answer marked "C"

Thus, each problem that is reported as "no problem" is not counted. Each problem that is reported as "somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem" is counted 1 point, and each problem that is reported as "a serious problem or a constant problem" is counted 2 points.

In order to get subscale scores, the points are totaled for the following items for each subscale:

Subscale 1. Problem solving and decision making: total of items 1-10.
Subscale 2. Child rearing: total of items 11-18.
Subscale 3. Relatives and in-laws: total of items 19-25.
Subscale 4. Personal care and appearance: total of items 26-31.
Subscale 5. Money management: total of items 32-37.
Subscale 6. Friendships and affection: total of items 38-43.

A total marriage-problems score is obtained by summing the six factor scores.

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SCALE OF MARRIAGE PROBLEMS

Clifford H. Swensen and Anthony Fiore

Instructions: This scale describes some problems that are fairly common in marriages today. No single one of the problems described in this scale is found only in unhappy marriages. All of the problems listed are found in some happy marriages. In marking your answers to the questions on the scale, be sure to answer each item. You may find that some items do not apply to your marriage. For example, if you have no children, the items that have to do with child rearing would not be applicable to your marriage. If a particular item is not applicable, mark the answer "This is never a problem."

Please answer each item on the scale.

	Response		
	A	**B**	**C**
	This is never a problem	This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem	This is a serious problem or a constant problem
Item			
1. One partner feels that he or she has to "give in" to spouse.	_____	_____	_____
2. One partner feels that he or she cannot individually "grow" as a person in the marriage.	_____	_____	_____
3. Husband and wife seem to want different things out of the marriage.	_____	_____	_____
4. Partner holds spouse "down" or prevents spouse from doing things that would make him or her a happier, more satisfied person.	_____	_____	_____
5. Partner often feels that he or she does not understand what spouse is upset about.	_____	_____	_____
6. Partner and spouse cannot seem to discuss things calmly without arguing or fighting.	_____	_____	_____

Item	Response A: This is never a problem	Response B: This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem	Response C: This is a serious problem or a constant problem
7. Some problems seem to linger in the marriage without getting solved.	_____	_____	_____
8. Although there are frequent arguments, couple is unable to find out what the real problem is.	_____	_____	_____
9. Slight disagreements seem to turn into crises.	_____	_____	_____
10. Husband and wife sometimes seem to be working "against" each other instead of working together to achieve a common goal.	_____	_____	_____
			Subscore ☐
11. Husband and wife disagree on how much labor around the house the children should be responsible for.	_____	_____	_____
12. Both partners disagree on what the children should be taught as far as right and wrong or good and evil are concerned.	_____	_____	_____
13. Husband and wife disagree on how to raise children that one spouse brought to the marriage from a previous marriage.	_____	_____	_____

Item	Response A: This is never a problem	Response B: This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem	Response C: This is a serious problem or a constant problem
14. Husband and wife disagree on how much children should be praised (rewarded) when they deserve it.	_____	_____	_____
15. Both partners disagree on how much children should be punished when they do something wrong.	_____	_____	_____
16. Both partners disagree on how children should spend their spare time (such as taking music lessons or not, attending camp during summer or not, etc.).	_____	_____	_____
17. Husband and wife disagree on what children should be allowed to do and what they should not be allowed to do.	_____	_____	_____
18. Husband and wife disagree on what children should be punished for and what they should be praised (rewarded) for.	_____	_____	_____

Subscore ☐

Item	Response A: This is never a problem	Response B: This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem	Response C: This is a serious problem or a constant problem
19. A relative treats your children in a way that is disagreeable to you or your spouse.	_____	_____	_____
20. Mother or mother-in-law interferes by telling you or your spouse how to run the house or family.	_____	_____	_____
21. Husband or wife has a relative that does things that cause the family embarrassment.	_____	_____	_____
22. Parents do not approve of spouse.	_____	_____	_____
23. You or your spouse are too dependent on parents for money, emotional support, etc.	_____	_____	_____
24. Spouse is constantly berating, criticizing, or "tearing down" your side of the family.	_____	_____	_____
25. A relative causes trouble by giving advice that was not asked for or by attempting to pit you and your spouse against each other.	_____	_____	_____

Subscore ☐

Item	Response A: This is never a problem	Response B: This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem	Response C: This is a serious problem or a constant problem
26. Both partners disagree on who should do what around the house.	_____	_____	_____
27. Partner objects to spouse's way of dress, i.e., male's pants being too baggy or female's skirt being too short, etc.	_____	_____	_____
28. Partner objects to physical characteristic of spouse, i.e., weight, hair length, etc.	_____	_____	_____
29. Personal cleanliness of partner is not up to standards of spouse or is objectionable to spouse.	_____	_____	_____
30. Partner has habit or mannerism (throwing dirty socks on floor, forgetting to put oil in automobile, etc.) that constantly causes work for or inconveniences spouse.	_____	_____	_____
31. Husband and wife disagree on how and where to spend family vacations.	_____	_____	_____

Subscore ☐

Item	Response A: This is never a problem	Response B: This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem	Response C: This is a serious problem or a constant problem
32. Either you or your spouse spends money without first consulting the other.	_____	_____	_____
33. Husband and wife disagree on the family budget, i.e., how much money should be spent on what, how much should be saved for the future, how much should be invested, etc.	_____	_____	_____
34. You feel that your spouse spends too much money on some things and not enough on others.	_____	_____	_____
35. You and your spouse live beyond your means.	_____	_____	_____
36. As a couple, you spent too much money when first married and are still trying to get out of debt as a result.	_____	_____	_____
37. Your spouse feels that you spend too much money on some things and not enough on others.	_____	_____	_____

Subscore ☐

Item	Response A: This is never a problem	Response B: This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem	Response C: This is a serious problem or a constant problem
38. Husband or wife is dissatisfied with the type of affection that is shown in public, such as hand-holding, kissing, etc.	_____	_____	_____
39. Husband or wife is dissatisfied with the amount of affection (too much or too little) that is shown in public.	_____	_____	_____
40. Either you or your spouse has an extramarital sexual involvement.	_____	_____	_____
41. Partner objects to some of the same-sex friends of spouse.	_____	_____	_____
42. Wife feels that husband is not interested in what happened to her during the day.	_____	_____	_____
43. Wife feels that husband does not share his day with her.	_____	_____	_____

Subscore ☐

TOTAL SCORE ☐

SCALE OF MARRIAGE PROBLEMS SCORE SHEET

Subscale	Husband's Score	Wife's score
1. Problem Solving and Decision Making (1-10)		
2. Child Rearing		
3. Relatives and In-Laws (19-25)		
4. Personal Care and Appearance (26-31)		
5. Money Management (32-37)		
6. Friendships and Affection (38-43)		
TOTAL		

Usually, couples in typical, functioning, happy marriages mark about thirteen items as problems on the scale. Couples in seriously troubled, dysfunctional marriages usually mark about thirty-four items as problems.

CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTIVE PREFERENCE PROFILE

Morris Graham and Dwight Miller

Abstract: Many people encounter problems interacting in environments that are culturally different from their own. Everyone has preferences regarding interpersonal interactions, and these may vary from culture to culture as well as from individual to individual.

One important dimension of culture is *context,* which ranges from *high context,* (collectivism) to *low context (*individualism). The Cross-Cultural Interactive Preference (CCIP) Profile measures an individual's preferences for level of context as well as his or her ability to interact effectively across contexts. This profile comprises the following factors: socialization of information, socialization of people, spatial orientation, and time orientation. As a result of understanding his or her own preferences, a person can become more aware of the role that context plays in individual and group interactions.

Most people do not do really well when interacting in an environment that is foreign to their own or with people of cultural preferences different from their own. This is particularly true within cross-cultural or cross-functional groups. Preferences regarding interpersonal interactions, group interactions, and information may vary from one culture to another, just as they also vary from one individual to another, regardless of cultural origin. People's interactive preferences need to be understood in order to facilitate productive group work. Such understanding can help to reduce potential interpersonal conflicts and can increase group effectiveness.

In cross-cultural or cross-functional group settings, what we can learn about ourselves through others is as important as what we can learn about others and their cultures. The ways in which we feel, think, and behave can be checked in terms of how others perceive and interact with us. Things take on new meanings in the context of other cultural orientations. Moreover, things that we may consider to be uniquely individual about our "selves" are actually shaped by our culture, which determines, to a large extent, how we respond in different situations.

The Cross-Cultural Interactive Preference Profile (CCIP Profile) identifies how the respondents would prefer to interact in group activities or in situations in which more than one cultural orientation is involved.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Understanding any subject area requires a basic working vocabulary. In the cross-cultural field, this vocabulary has grown with the advance of research. However, only the essential terms are defined here, for the purpose of interpreting the CCIP Profile.

Assimilate: To become absorbed into the cultural traditions of another ethnic population or group.

Context: The information that surrounds an event and is inextricably bound up with the meaning of the event. The elements that combine to produce a given meaning—events and context—vary in proportion from culture to culture. The cultures of the world can be compared on a scale from low context to high context (Hall & Hall, 1990).

Cross-Cultural Activities: Activities that involve more than one cultural set, viewpoint, or environment. Such activities deal with an individual's personal and cultural self-awareness, other-awareness, intercultural communication barriers, and interaction skills (Brislin, 1990).

Culture: A collection of many beliefs, values, perspectives, behaviors, activities, institutions, and learned patterns of communication largely shared in common by a group of people.

High-Context Message: Communication in which the vast majority of the information is either internalized in the individual or the physical context of the situation. Very little is in the explicit transmission or coding of the message (Hall, 1977; Hall & Hall, 1990).

Judgment: The process of forming conclusions about what has been perceived by an individual.

Low-Context Message: Communication in which the mass of information is in the explicit coding of the message and not resident within the individuals involved or within the situation or context (Hall, 1977).

Microculture: A subculture or new culture formed by the interaction of two or more major cultures such as business organizations, nations, or persons. A formulation of beliefs, behaviors, values, characteristics, patterns of communication, etc., shared by a specific group of people, that originates from diverse, major cultural groupings (Fontaine, 1989).

Multicultural Individual: An individual who has assimilated understanding, precepts, knowledge, and characteristics of more than his or her own native culture by experiencing microcultural activities of cross-cultural groups. Adler (1986) notes that members of multicultural groups should recognize and integrate all the cultures represented.

Multiculturalism: Situations in which people from more than one culture (and frequently more than one country) interact regularly, thus forming a number of perspectives, approaches, and—in the case of businesses—business methods (Adler, 1986).

Personality: The result of conditioning by culture; the total of the individual's characteristic reactions to his or her environment.

Predisposition: The condition of being inclined beforehand or having a susceptibility to act or react in a particular way.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND: LOW-CONTEXT AND HIGH-CONTEXT ORIENTATIONS

Theorists have identified a major dimension of cultural variability, called "context" (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Hall, 1977; Hall & Hall, 1990; Hofstede, 1984; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Marsella, DeVos, & Hsu, 1985; Triandis, 1988). The two basic dimensions of are low context (individualism) and high context (collectivism).

Low-Context Cultures (Individualism)

Low-context, or "individualistic," people and cultures place emphasis on individualism and individual goals, facts, the management of time, nonverbal communication, privacy, and compartmentalization.

The cultural norms associated with low context, which dominate most North American and Northern European societies, are essentially task-oriented, focusing on data to provide the answers to living well. Progress is measured in tangibles. Goals are action-oriented and geared to produce short-term material profits. The driving force of a low-context culture is work, which is the usual context in which a person is honored. Societies are structured to honor individuals who succeed financially. Emotions are suspect and considered inappropriate in most social and work settings.

Low-context people are highly individualistic, assertive, directive, dominating, results-oriented, independent, strong-willed, competitive, quick to make decisions, impatient, time-conscious, solution-oriented, control-seeking, well-organized, and self-contained. The individual has a high need to be recognized for his or her performance.

Individualistic social skills include meeting people quickly, putting them at ease, finding topics of conversation that others can discuss readily, being interesting so that the others will have memories of the interaction six months later, and so forth. These skills are useful, as they allow people to obtain information from others, central to the pursuit of individual goals (Brislin, 1993).

In a group setting, low-context individuals need less time to develop new, progressive programs that can be changed easily and quickly. However, these individuals can create less cohesion and stability in the group. Also, they are less committed to group agreements or planned actions.

In low-context cultures, when there is a conflict between an individual's goals and those of a valued group (i.e., co-workers), consideration of the individual's goals is of major importance. Individualists report (Brislin, 1993) that they would feel stifled if they were surrounded by others. There would be too many people whose opinions would have to be considered before an individualist could act in the pursuit of his or her goals. Individualists find that clearing their plans with others interferes too much with their desire "to do their own thing."

High-Context Cultures (Collectivism)

High-context, or "collectivistic," individuals and cultures place emphasis on relationships, group goals, the process and surrounding circumstances, time as natural progression, verbal communication, communal space, and interrelationships.

High-context cultural norms are primarily group-oriented, i.e., honoring the relationships of their cultural group before that of an "out-group," such as a university, company, or country. Family and community ties are strong; feelings and emotions are valued and encouraged to be expressed; religious and spiritual beliefs are deep.

In a high-context culture, behavior is viewed in a complex way. People look beyond the obvious to note nuances in meaning, nonverbal communication cues, and the status of others in context. In general, Asian cultural orientations are high context.

Personal characteristics include being indirect, highly affiliative, team-oriented, systematic, steady, quiet, patient, loyal, dependable, informal, servicing, sharing, slow in making decisions, respectful, and good listeners. A longer amount of time is needed for individuals to become acquainted with and trusting of one another; after that, communication is fast. The culture is rooted in the past; it is a slow-to-change, highly stable, unified group.

Collectivists feel comfortable with the constant psychological presence of a group. Important collective social attributes are loyalty to the group, cooperation, contributing to the group without the expectation of immediate reciprocity, and public modesty about one's abilities (Triandis, 1988). People are more likely to downplay their own goals in favor of the goals of the valued group. Individuals are more committed to group agreements and planned actions.

Contextual Factors

The factors or dimensions of context are time and space (Hall, 1977; Hall & Hall, 1990). These factors can be considered across all cultures; they are not specific to one culture or another or have meaning in and of themselves. Hall notes the importance of these factors as information is disseminated and acted on.

Hall uses the terms "monochronic" and "polychronic" to describe the individual orientations to time. In monochronic time, one pays attention to and does only one thing at a time. Events, functions, people, communication, and information flow are compartmentalized. In monochronic cultures, people are governed by time and work and they communicate in a linear fashion. In polychronic time, many things may happen or receive attention at the same time. In polychronic cultures, there is great involvement with people and events. People take precedence over time and schedules, and there is an emphasis on completing human transactions.

Monochronic cultures are basically low-context cultures that control and restrict information flow and communication. Polychronic cultures are basically high-context cultures in which information flows freely among all participants. Because the information is available to all, one is expected to use intuition and to understand automatically.

The purpose of meetings and communication in low-context cultures is to pass and/or determine information in order to evaluate and make decisions. In high-context cultures, the purpose of meetings is to reach consensus about what is already known. The two processes are mutually exclusive in that in the low context, meaning is derived primarily from the coding of the messages. In the high context, the individuals already have the information or message within them. Hall and Hall (1990, p. 19) strongly emphasize the fact that "one must always be contexted to the local time systems" when working across cultures.

Spatial changes influence and often give definition to communications and human interaction even to the extent of overriding the spoken word. Spatial cues are perceived by all of the senses. Some cultures may attune more to the auditory, some to kinesthetic, others to visual, and so on. Each individual is surrounded by invisible boundaries of personal space or territories. These often communicate ownership or power when linked to physical location. With low-context monochronic societies and individuals, personal space is private, controlled, and often large. In contrast, in high-context polychronic societies or individuals, space is often shared with subordinates and centralized or shared in an information network. Time and space are often closely linked in that access to individuals is often dictated by both location and timing. An individual's availability is often determined by how well he or she is screened or separated from others.

Context and Communication

In his book, Beyond Culture, Hall (1977) identifies the critical need for individuals to transcend cultural barriers. He challenges us to " . . . recognize and accept the multiple hidden dimensions of unconscious culture . . . " (p. 2), because each culture has its own hidden or unconscious dimensions. In analyzing communication factors, Hall notes that it is impossible to know the meaning of a communication without knowing the context. Barker (1968) established that as the ecology or environment changed, so did people's responses.

With regard to context in relation to meaning, Hall (1977) states that context will largely determine the message that a person receives. Hall defines the collectivistic, high-context (HC) message or communication as one in which the vast majority of the information is either internalized in the individual or in the physical context of the situation. Very little is in the explicit transmission or coding of the message. With the individualistic, low-context (LC) message, the mass of information is in the explicit coding of the message, not within the individual or the situation (context).

Individuals perform the critically important function of correcting for distortions or omissions in the messages they receive. The key to being effective in communicating across cultures is in knowing the degree of information—context—that must be supplied and in the correct reading of another individual's verbal and nonverbal behavior. The context—the information surrounding an event that gives it meaning—varies from culture to culture and is often the determining factor in whether or not individuals from different cultures will communicate effectively, reach understanding, and make

decisions. The integration of both verbal message and context is the basis of effective communication (Hall, 1977; Hall & Hall, 1990).

THE PROFILE

High versus low context, individualism versus collectivism, and the factors of time and space are not the only dimensions by which culture can be analyzed. However, they are ways in which a determination can be made as to how to communicate and work with individuals, regardless of their cultural orientations. Although many comparisons of major ethnic and national groups have been made based on contextual needs and decision-making processes, few, if any, have been developed to measure individual responses. The Cross-Cultural Interactive Preference Profile (CCIP Profile) was developed to reveal an individual's preferences in terms of contextual needs and socialization in interactive, group-decision-making processes so that effective communication, facilitation, and training designs could be established.

Development

The profile items were developed from a review of the literature and were given to seven experts who had extensive knowledge and experience in cross-cultural environmental learning and group interaction. A conceptual review was completed first. To establish content validity on revisions, a Delphi panel was asked to review each of the profile items for appropriateness and inclusion. This panel was selected on the basis of working experience in highly cross-cultural learning environments and experience in designing either assessment tools or training materials that had been applied in that environment. Panel members also had worked as consultants or employees in business and industry. They reviewed items based on appropriateness to the culturally defined categories, readability, comprehension, and the exclusion of culturally charged contextual items. Individual reviews and further revisions continued until at least 75 percent of panel members agreed on each of the forty-eight retained items.

The profile was pilot tested with a culturally mixed group of university students, and feedback was solicited about the profile through focus groups and an interview process. Particular attention was paid to comprehensibility of the language. Minor adjustments were made before administering the CCIP Profile to 512 freshmen and sophomore students (247 males and 265 females) at Brigham Young University-Hawaii, where fifty cultural orientations were represented. Approximately 20 percent of the students were from the mainland United States and other (predominantly European) Western cultural mixes, 25 percent were from Hawaii, 25 percent were from the South Pacific, 25 percent were from the Asian-rim countries, and the remainder were from other parts of the world. It was observed that most foreign students, after their arrival on campus, would develop and retain socialization patterns that maintained close ties to their own cultural groups through culture-based clubs and organizations. Thus, the majority of the students surveyed were close to their native orientations.

The CCIP Profile is intended for use with individuals who are involved in cross-cultural activities that result in the development of knowledge and skills. The profile is designed to foster awareness of, and sensitivity to, contextual orientation that affect interactive behavior in culturally diverse groups.

Validity

The content validity of the profile was assured through the implementation of the literature review, the iterative Delphi panel, and interviews during the pilot-testing stages.

Construct validity was determined by assessing the relationship of test items with cultural groups through the use of factor analysis and multidiscriminant analysis. The profile employs a Likert scale, which resulted in a single factor or construct when factor analysis was applied. Factor loadings were above a level of .45. To assure validity, more than ten respondents per item were utilized. Item analysis utilizing two-tail probability showed a p-value .001 on all items.

Overall validity was based on the strength of the factor-1 loadings and the significance levels of the individual items. However, it is noted that there are some weaknesses to be dealt with through a continued analysis with additional populations.

Reliability

There are no current tests or standards with which to compare the results of the profile administration. A coefficient of internal consistency was determined utilizing a single-test administration. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used to test reliability, as the profile relies on a nondichotomous, six-level Likert scale to circumvent a neutral or nonresponse, and a method of rational equivalence could not be used. Reliability coefficients (alphas) were: .49 in seven of the eight factor groupings, with the eighth at .34.

Suggested Use

The CCIP Profile can be used in various aspects of group decision making, cross-cultural conflict resolution, training and development, and team development in diverse work and educational settings. It is particularly useful as a clarification tool with newly organized groups or teams. Facilitators can be assured that finding out about one's own and others' preferences is a releasing experience, not a restricting one, as may be feared. Finding out about cultural preferences frees group members to recognize their own natural predispositions and to respect and learn how to effectively interact with the differences in the group with a minimum of conflict. Groups can become less polar or fragmented and more multiculturally sensitive and unified in their interactions.

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CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTIVE PREFERENCES PROFILE

Morris Graham and Dwight Miller

There are no right or wrong answers on this questionnaire. The answers will be useful only if you respond honestly and candidly. By doing this, you will help us to better understand the ways in which you prefer to interact within a group where there is more than one culture represented.

Instructions: The following items describe how you might interact within a work or problem-solving group. Respond to each item by filling in the circle that best describes your preference, that is, how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement. This should take about fifteen minutes.

Example:

You would mark your questionnaire

If you strongly agreed with this statement:

It's O.K. for new situations or ideas to be presented to the group for a decision even if some details are not included.

You would mark your questionnaire

If you disagreed with this statement:

I would let members do their own work the way they think best.

SD= Strongly Disagree
D= Disagree
MD= Mildly Disagree
MA = Mildly Agree
A = Agree
SA = Strongly Agree

1. I need the leader of the group to explain the details before I can make a decision.

2. I work best when we share information and then reach consensus as a group.

3. Information should be held in common and not controlled by specific individuals or parts of the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 4. It is better to quietly acknowledge that a person may be incorrect or needs to change rather than to openly confront him/her in the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 5. It is best for all decisions to be approved by the whole group.

SD D MD MA A SA 6. Experts within a group should be allowed to make decisions for the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 7. Getting the details of needed information is more important than knowing who provided them.

SD D MD MA A SA 8. I am impatient when someone tries to explain something I already know.

SD D MD MA A SA 9. Individuals within a group do not need to share the information they have with the rest of the group until it is absolutely necessary.

SD D MD MA A SA 10. It is not important that all members of a group contribute ideas.

SD D MD MA A SA 11. I would compromise with others in order to maintain harmony in the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 12. I would expect the team leader to direct members away from problems or issues that would upset the balance of the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 13. I would trust the group members and support their shared interests even if I do not agree with them.

SD D MD MA A SA 14. I would use the utmost diplomacy in order not to embarrass anyone while working through problems in the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 15. Once a commitment has the group's approval, it is expected to be honored.

SD D MD MA A SA 16. I would decide on my own what should be done and how it should be done.

SD D MD MA A SA 17. I would direct others toward getting results as soon as possible.

SD D MD MA A SA 18. I would directly confront problems or conflicts between individuals in the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 19. I would say what I thought, even though it may hurt others' feelings.

SD D MD MA A SA 20. I would want outstanding individual performers in group activities rewarded more than those who did not contribute as much.

SD D MD MA A SA 21. I don't like doing work on my own or being separate from the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 22. I feel uncomfortable when there are individuals in the group who remain distant and don't interact with the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 23. In a group meeting, it is important that we stay close together.

SD D MD MA A SA 24. It is best to have the leader in a centralized location where all members of the group can interact with him or her.

SD D MD MA A SA 25. The best way to work in a group is to stay together in the same room until agreement is reached.

SD D MD MA A SA 26. I don't want to be interrupted when I'm working on or thinking about a problem.

SD D MD MA A SA 27. I need to be away from the group in order to think and make a decision.

SD D MD MA A SA 28. I prefer to work alone until I am ready to get with the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 29. The leader of a group or organization needs to be separate but where I can go to him or her when I need to.

SD D MD MA A SA 30. When working in a group, I prefer to work with individuals who think as I do.

SD D MD MA A SA 31. I would desire lots of time and flexibility to accommodate the different personalities in the group.

SD D MD MA A SA 32. If there were disagreement in the group, I would be patient while others worked through and resolved conflicts before proceeding.

SD D MD MA A SA 33. It is more important to take the time needed to develop or share ideas before making a decision than it is to meet deadlines.

SD D MD MA A SA 34. It is O.K. to stop a group discussion and take a break whenever needed.

SD D MD MA A SA 35. Plans should always be open to change.

SD D MD MA A SA 36. A group should not stop working or discussing until a solution is found or a decision is made.

SD D MD MA A SA 37. I would not tolerate postponements.

SD D MD MA A SA 38. It is very important that a schedule be maintained.

SD D MD MA A SA 39. The group should deal with only one thing at a time until a decision is made.

SD D MD MA A SA 40. When the group has finished its work, it is best to move on and form new relationships.

CCIP Profile Scoring Sheet

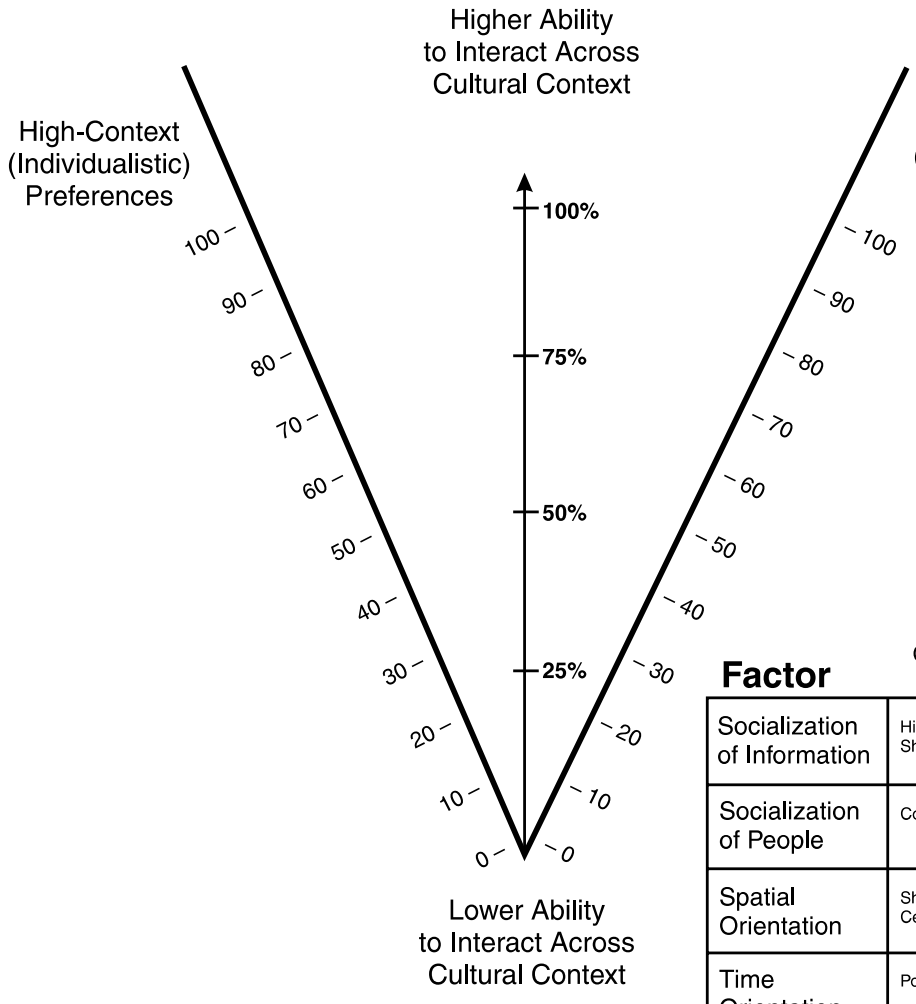
Instructions: Convert each rating that you gave to a profile item to a number, as shown, and place that number in the appropriate spaces on this sheet.

SD=0 D=1 MD=2 MA=3 A=4 SA=5

Factor	Subscores	
Socialization of Information	**Item — Highly Shared Flow**	**Item — Controlled Flow**
	1. _____	6. _____
	2. _____	7. _____
	3. _____	8. _____
	4. _____	9. _____
	5. _____	10. _____
	Total _____	Total _____
Socialization of People	**Item — Collectivist**	**Item — Individualist**
	11. _____	16. _____
	12. _____	17. _____
	13. _____	18. _____
	14. _____	19. _____
	15. _____	20. _____
	Total _____	Total _____
Spatial Orientation	**Item — Shared/Central**	**Item — Personalized**
	21. _____	26. _____
	22. _____	27. _____
	23. _____	28. _____
	24. _____	29. _____
	25. _____	30. _____
	Total _____	Total _____
Time Orientation	**Item — Polychronic**	**Item — Monochronic**
	31. _____	36. _____
	32. _____	37. _____
	33. _____	38. _____
	34. _____	39. _____
	35. _____	40. _____
	Total _____	Total _____

Place the *total scores* in the appropriate boxes on the following sheet.

CCIP PROFILE INTERPRETATION GRAPH



Factor	Contextual Level: High	Contextual Level: Low	Factor Score
Socialization of Information	Highly Shared Flow	Controlled Flow	
Socialization of People	Collectivist	Individualist	
Spatial Orientation	Shared/ Central	Personalized	
Time Orientation	Polychronic	Monochronic	
Context Score			

Instructions:

1. Place the total scores from the CCIP Profile Scoring Sheet in the Factor boxes above.
2. Sum each row across to determine the Factor Score. Sum each column down to determine the Context Score.
3. Plot the "contextual level scores" on the graph, with the high-context score on the left axis and the low-context score on the right axis. Draw a line between the two plotted points.

CCIP PROFILE INTERPRETATION SHEET

Background

As individuals develop within their cultures and in interactions with others, they form preferences about various aspects of interpersonal interactions. Many of these preferences have been identified in terms of what is called "context." Two basic contexts are "individualistic" and "collectivistic." The context in which one is interacting affects how one relates to others, communicates, interprets information, and so on.

Individualistic

Individualistic people and cultures focus on individual goals, tasks, facts, solutions, time management, and privacy. Individualists are assertive, directive, controlling, results-oriented, independent, strong-willed, competitive, quick to make decisions, impatient, organized, self¨-contained, and have a high need to be recognized for their performance. Goals are action-oriented to produce short-term material profits, and financial success is esteemed. Emotions are considered inappropriate in most social and work settings.

Individualists tend to have a monochronic time focus. One pays attention to and does only one thing at a time. Events, functions, people, communication, and information flow are compartmentalized.

Individualistic communication is "low context," which means that interactions are linear and specific and do not carry a lot of cultural "context" within them. Meaning is derived primarily from the coding of the message. Social skills include meeting people quickly, finding topics of conversation that others can discuss readily, being interesting so that the others will have memories of the interaction six months later, and obtaining information from others in pursuit of individual goals (Brislin, 1993).

Individualists' plans are progressive and can be changed quickly. However, such individuals can create less cohesion and stability in a group. They are less committed to group agreements, and when there is a conflict between an individual's goals and those of the group, the individual's goals are of major importance. Individualists do not like to have to consider the opinions of others before they act. Clearing their plans with others interferes too much with their desire "to do their own thing" (Brislin, 1993).

Collectivistic

Collectivistic individuals and cultures place emphasis on relationships, group goals, the process and surrounding circumstances, time as natural progression, verbal communication, communal space, and interrelationships. Cultural norms are primarily group oriented. Family and community ties are strong; expression of feelings is valued and encouraged; religious and spiritual beliefs are deep. These mutual understandings and beliefs supply the "high context" of this orientation.

In such a culture, behavior is viewed in a complex way. People look beyond the obvious to note nuances in meaning, nonverbal communication cues, and the status of others in the context of a shared history and understanding. Thus, language need not be as specific; relationships are part of the message. Because the information is available to all, one is expected to use intuition and to understand automatically.

Personal characteristics include being: indirect, affiliative, informal, team-oriented, loyal, systematic, quiet, patient, dependable, cooperative, sharing, slow in making decisions, respectful, a good listener, contributing to the group without the expectation of immediate reciprocity, and public modesty about one's abilities (Triandis, 1990). A longer amount of time is needed for individuals to become acquainted with and trusting of one another; after that, communication is fast. The culture is rooted in the past; it is slow-to-change, highly stable, unified.

People are more likely to downplay their own goals in favor of the goals of the group, and individuals are more committed to group agreements.

Collectivists tend to have a polychronic time focus. Many things may happen or receive attention at the same time. There is great involvement with people and events. People take precedence over time and schedules, and there is an emphasis on completing human transactions.

Hall (1977) notes that it is impossible to know the meaning of a communication without knowing the context. Context largely determines what one pays attention to or does not pay attention to. The information surrounding an event that gives it meaning varies from culture to culture. The key to being effective in communicating across cultures is in knowing the degree of information—context—that must be supplied and in the correct reading of another individual's verbal and nonverbal behavior.

Individual Application

People who score high on one side of the CCIP Profile Interpretation Graph and low on the opposite side (a steeply sloped profile) may interact well with those who have profiles similar to theirs, but not with others.

People whose scores are relatively high on both sides of the graph (a flat profile) probably have little difficulty in interacting within groups in which there are varying levels of contextual requirements. These people are better able to move between situations and/or groups with ease, to be more flexible and adaptable in interpretation and decision-making situations, and to be more responsive in learning and decision making. The higher the flat profile, the greater the flexibility.

The factor scores represent relative levels in each of the factor preference areas. Where flexibility and adaptability problems exist, low scores may indicate which orientation or requirement may be responsible. Sub scores will indicate the dominance of the characteristic. The differences between sub scores indicate level of flexibility for a characteristic (higher differences represent higher flexibility). In general, low scores represent a potential difficulty in interacting across contextual boundaries.

Note: Language, religion, philosophical, and other communication or social barriers are not included in this profile.

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THE NEGOTIATION-STANCE INVENTORY

H.B. Karp

Abstract: With the emphasis on both teamwork and individual empowerment in today's organizations, the development of negotiation skills is particularly important. However, there is an important step that precedes that skill development: learning how one views the process of negotiation. Some people see negotiation as an odious experience to be avoided at all costs; some see it as an opportunity to obtain essential resources, thereby benefiting themselves, their opponents in the negotiation, and the organization. There are also stances between these two extremes.

The author's contention is that some people may possess the necessary skills to negotiate, but they are unwilling to participate in the process. For these people, training in negotiation skills would be inappropriate. Therefore, the author has designed an instrument that helps the respondent to clarify his or her own attitude toward negotiation. This instrument would provide an excellent beginning to a workshop on negotiation: It can be completed in about ten minutes, respondents score their own inventories, and the instrument is accompanied by both an interpretation sheet and a rationale sheet.

Introduction

Organizations are becoming increasingly more team oriented and, at the same time, more focused on the empowerment of the individual worker. With this orientation, the need to negotiate from a position of strength and confidence has become extremely important to those who are accountable for decisions at all levels of the organization. Both teams and individuals are expected to be more effective in obtaining what they need in the work setting and less dependent on those in higher authority to simply grant or deny their requests.

A clear and easily understood definition of *negotiation* is "a process in which two or more parties, with common and conflicting interests, come together to discuss ways to reach agreement." The need to negotiate effectively has always been apparent in traditional situations such as management-labor relations or the purchase of supplies and equipment. Now, however, negotiation is becoming just as important in nontraditional situations. For example, it is used in dealing with customers' service issues, in setting prices, in bartering with fellow team members concerning the allocation of assets and opportunities (such as vacation times or work load), and in other situations in which resources or opportunities are limited.

People may have difficulty with the negotiation process because either (1) they do not possess the skills needed to engage others effectively or (2) they do not possess the fortitude or perspective to engage fully in the negotiation process. Those in the first category need to learn the tactics and strategies of effective negotiating and bargaining.

Many excellent training programs address the needed skills; and many experts can show people how to engage in negotiations, maintain the upper hand, and determine where the pitfalls lie.

If skills were the only consideration, organizations could have all employees trained and ready to negotiate at a moment's notice. However, the greater problem is a lack of fortitude or perspective. Regardless of latent ability, many people avoid negotiating because they see themselves as weaker or less aggressive than the other party and/or because they are painfully uncomfortable with the negotiation process. For example, many people are willing to pay almost list price for an automobile because they want to escape from a conflict-ridden, pressure-laden encounter.

The option is to see the negotiation process from a more positive perspective. To do that, a person has to recognize how he or she presently views negotiation.

The Negotiation-Stance Inventory helps participants to discover how they experience the negotiation process and to what extent they resist it. A high score on the Negotiation-Stance Inventory indicates that regardless of the effectiveness of a negotiation-skills program, the participant is unlikely to internalize or value the learning. Consequently, the first step after completing the inventory is to establish a view of negotiating as a positive and essential process.

The Instrument

The Negotiation-Stance Inventory helps a participant understand the extent to which he or she is comfortable in engaging in negotiations with another person. It consists of fifteen items, each of which the participant answers with a number on a seven-point scale, ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree."

The Negotiation-Stance Inventory Scoring Sheet allows participants to score the inventory themselves. They can then read the Negotiation-Stance Inventory Interpretation Sheet, draw their own conclusions about the implications of their scores, and use those conclusions as a basis for group discussion and for developing a positive attitude toward negotiation.

The Negotiation-Stance Inventory Rationale Sheet, which is based on Gestalt theory,[1] emphasizes the need for individual strength and self-support in the negotiating process. The preferred answer for each item is explained in terms of the participant's:

- Not taking responsibility for the other person's feelings or actions;
- Being willing to recognize his or her own right to be successful and obtain what is wanted; and
- Recognizing and respecting the other person as an opponent, instead of viewing the opponent as an adversary with evil intentions.

[1] The facilitator does not have to be familiar with Gestalt theory to use the inventory.

Validity and Reliability

No validity or reliability data are available on the Negotiation-Stance Inventory. However, the instrument has face validity, as its purpose is to make participants more aware of their views on negotiating.

Uses of the Instrument

The Negotiation-Stance Inventory was designed as part of a training module on negotiation and is valuable when administered as the opening activity. However, other uses are possible (for example, as a warmup activity prior to actual negotiations).

Administering and Scoring the Instrument

A copy of the Negotiation-Stance Inventory is distributed to each participant, who is given approximately ten minutes to complete the fifteen-item form.

After all participants have completed the instrument, the facilitator distributes copies of the Negotiation-Stance Inventory Scoring Sheet and explains the scoring process, *reminding participants that the scoring is reversed on items 2, 10, and 15.* Scoring takes about seven minutes.

Interpretation

When the scoring process has been completed, the facilitator distributes copies of the Negotiation-Stance Inventory Interpretation Sheet. Either the participants read this handout silently, or they follow along as the facilitator reads it aloud. If the participants read silently, the facilitator reviews the highlights of the sheet afterward.

Next the facilitator distributes copies of the Negotiation-Stance Inventory Rationale Sheet and asks the participants to read this sheet. Subgroups of three to five members each are then formed, and the members of each subgroup are asked to devise a list of ideas, issues, and questions that they would like to discuss in the total group. The facilitator clarifies that items on the list should be focused on how to improve attitudes toward negotiation.

One important point that the facilitator should make is that the participants' scores have to do with the way they feel about negotiating, not with their negotiation skills. Those who made the "poorest" scores (that is, those who had the highest numbers) may be the most effective negotiators—when they allow themselves to negotiate. The most important question for this discussion is "How are we stopping ourselves from negotiating when we already know how to do it?"

Once this point has been made, the balance of the training can take one of several directions, such as the following:

1. If the group is Gestalt oriented, the facilitator can link negotiation to the Gestalt-theory base of the inventory and demonstrate how developing clear personal boundaries can enhance one's effectiveness as a negotiator.

2. The awareness gained from the inventory can support a discussion of various strategies and tactics of negotiating.
3. The participants may engage in role plays designed to provide practice in negotiating in a nonthreatening environment. After the role plays, experiential outcomes would be discussed.

NEGOTIATION-STANCE INVENTORY

H.B. Karp

Instructions: This inventory consists of fifteen statements. You are asked how strongly you agree or disagree with each. Evaluate each statement as honestly as you can. Although you may realize that exceptions occur, use your best judgment and choose the response that describes your point of view most of the time. Use the following scale to indicate your choices:

SD = Strongly Disagree
D = Disagree
DS = Disagree Slightly
N = Neutral
AS = Agree Slightly
A = Agree
SA = Strongly Agree

_____ 1. Negotiating is basically an undignified and messy process.
_____ 2. I am fundamentally comfortable with conflict and confrontation.
_____ 3. If I cannot have it all, I would just as soon have nothing.
_____ 4. I refuse to negotiate with people I do not like.
_____ 5. I do not like taking a strong stance with others, because it could hurt their feelings.
_____ 6. If people just knew why I wanted what I want, they would be more willing to give it to me.
_____ 7. If I am a good team player or organizational member, I should not have to negotiate for what I want.
_____ 8. When I am in a negotiating position with another person, part of my responsibility is to see that we both obtain as much of what we want as we can.
_____ 9. People who resist the rules and demands of the organization are just being selfish and do not have the organization's best interests at heart.
_____ 10. Resistance is a natural part of the negotiating process. It should be honored and dealt with openly.
_____ 11. In any negotiation, it is important for both sides to maintain a friendly, cooperative stance from the outset.

SD = Strongly Disagree
D = Disagree
DS = Disagree Slightly
N = Neutral
AS = Agree Slightly
A = Agree
SA = Strongly Agree

_____ 12. Going for a win-win outcome is the only way to approach a negotiation.

_____ 13. Negotiating is based on greed. It would be far better for people just to share equally in the resources.

_____ 14. If someone takes advantage of me in a negotiation, he or she cannot be trusted, and I will never negotiate with that person again.

_____ 15. My initial objective in any negotiation is to obtain all of what I want.

NEGOTIATION-STANCE INVENTORY
SCORING SHEET

Instructions: For all items *except numbers 2, 10, and 15,* the scoring is as follows:

SD = 1 point
D = 2 points
DS = 3 points
N = 4 points
AS = 5 points
A = 6 points
SA = 7 points

For items **2, 10,** and **15** only, the scoring reverses and the points are assigned as follows:

SD = 7 points
D = 6 points
DS = 5 points
N = 4 points
AS = 3 points
A = 2 points
SA = 1 point

Add the numbers you assigned to your responses for the fifteen items, and write the sum in the blank below.

Total Score _____

NEGOTIATION-STANCE INVENTORY
INTERPRETATION SHEET

Range of Scores	Interpretation
15-33	You have an excellent negotiation stance. You are strong and flexible and maintain a realistic perspective of the negotiating process. Your time-and-place orientation is "right now, right here." Although you respect others and acknowledge that they have just as much right to want what they want as you do, you realize that they will take care of themselves. You recognize that in a universe of limited resources, negotiating is the most effective and civilized way of obtaining what you want.
34-50	You are usually a willing negotiator, but a few areas (those items on which you scored 6 or 7 points) tend to be blind spots for you. You can and will negotiate, but you sometimes wish there were an easier way to obtain what you want. You are reasonably comfortable with conflict if it does not last too long or become too heated. You maintain good working relationships, for the most part, but prefer others to be a little more cooperative in helping you obtain what you want.
51-69	Negotiating is difficult for you. Although others may have needs, you believe those needs are, frankly, just not as important as yours. Although you can and will negotiate on some things, you believe you should not have to. You believe that you have earned the right to the resource; and, if others want to be considered, they should work as hard or be as entitled as you. You are uncomfortable with conflict and confrontation; you view negotiating as conflict producing and, therefore, harmful to those involved.
70-88	You consider negotiating to be compromising, and you want little to do with it. You view people who are competing with you for some resource or outcome as the "enemy" and untrustworthy. You abhor conflict and confrontation and will go to almost any length to avoid them. You believe that the most important thing is for you to be treated fairly; no one else should receive more of the resource or outcome than you. If resources have to be shared, then you believe they should be shared equally, as a point of policy.
89+	You refuse to negotiate. If you have to negotiate to obtain what you want, you will do without it. You do not want anyone but yourself to receive anything, but you are unwilling to "fight" about it. Your philosophy is "If, for some reason, I can't have it all, then I don't want any of it. That'll show them!"

NEGOTIATION-STANCE INVENTORY
RATIONALE SHEET

For each item of the Negotiation-Stance Inventory, the original statement is listed below, along with the preferred response and the rationale for preferring that response.

1. Negotiating is basically an undignified and messy process.

Preferred Response: SD

As long as people approach negotiation from this position, they will view the process as being beneath them. It is a way for them to avoid the difficulty of negotiating while maintaining an acceptable self-image.

2. I am fundamentally comfortable with conflict and confrontation.

Preferred Response: SA

Viewing conflict as a natural and positive condition among people who have different needs or perspectives is essential for developing creative solutions. Being hurt is not inevitable in a conflict situation.

3. If I cannot have it all, I would just as soon have nothing.

Preferred Response: SD

This position not only blocks any chance of coming out of the negotiation with anything of value; it also identifies the person who holds this position as a self-styled martyr. This position will also reduce the probability of positive outcomes in any future negotiations.

4. I refuse to negotiate with people I do not like.

Preferred Response: SD

Negotiation is not a social event. Liking or disliking should play no part in how one conducts a negotiation. In fact, liking an adversary too much can often lead a person to softening his or her position inappropriately, because a "friend" is being dealt with. At the minimum, negotiators need to achieve some social distance from each other.

5. I do not like taking a strong stance with others, because it could hurt their feelings.

Preferred Position: SD

In any conflict situation, there is a chance that someone's feelings will be hurt. Behavior that will hurt someone should be avoided whenever feasible, but fear of

hurting should never be used as an excuse not to engage in negotiations. Once it is discovered that someone takes this position, all the other person has to do to "win" is appear to be emotionally injured.

6. If people just knew why I wanted what I want, they would be more willing to give it to me.

Preferred Position: SD

Unless there is a hidden benefit for the other person to receive what you want, this negotiating position is a myth. Once you attempt to convince the other person that your motivation is superior to his or hers, you immediately lower your position and take a defensive stance. In other words, once you begin explaining why you want what you want, the other person can easily say, "Sorry, not good enough." Rather than revealing your reasons, you can put the other person in a defensive position by demanding, "What is your objection to my having this?"

7. If I am a good team player or organizational member, I should not have to negotiate for what I want.

Preferred Position: SD

This position suggests that one is rewarded for good work by having the system anticipate and meet one's needs. That is not the way the system works. One is rewarded by pay, bonus, or opportunity for growth and development. The available resources, on the other hand, go to the people who can make the best case for receiving them. In fact, the "good team player and organizational member" is frequently identified by his or her ability and willingness to negotiate effectively.

8. When I am in a negotiating position with another person, part of my responsibility is to see that we both obtain as much of what we want as we can.

Preferred Position: SD

The objective of any negotiation is to come to an agreement that all parties can actively support. This goal is best accomplished by taking full responsibility for getting what you want and allowing the other person to do the same. Beware the salesperson who wants to make a deal on an automobile that is "fair" to both of you. If you are looking out for the salesperson's welfare and he or she is also looking out for his or her own welfare, then who is looking out for your welfare? Offer to pay the list price and see if the salesperson counters with "Oh, no, no, no! That's way too much! We can do much better than that!"

9. ***People who resist the rules and demands of the organization are just being selfish and do not have the organization's best interests at heart.***

   Preferred Response: SD

The most positive aspect of negotiating is that it provides a process for people who have different views to surface as much information as possible. Discussing or arguing these differences increases the number of options. If a win-win strategy is adopted, the broader the view the better.

10. ***Resistance is a natural part of the negotiating process. It should be honored and dealt with openly.***

    Preferred Response: SA

If receiving what is best for yourself and the organization is the preferred situation, then resisting what is worst is every bit as beneficial. People will naturally resist things that they view as harmful to themselves and their objectives, regardless of who says that they should or should not. Openly expressing that resistance gives you and the other person an opportunity to discover where the blocks occur and an opportunity to address them.

11. ***In any negotiation, it is important for both sides to maintain a friendly, cooperative stance from the outset.***

    Preferred Response: SD

The time to develop and maintain a friendly, cooperative relationship is after the negotiations have been concluded. Placing a value on warm relationships may ease the negotiating process, but it also softens the edges and diminishes the probability that all parties will emerge with the best possible outcome. Although hostile and aggressive positions should also be avoided, a reasonable amount of distance is desirable.

12. ***Going for a win-win outcome is the only way to approach a negotiation.***

    Preferred Position: SD

A win-win outcome is the preferred position in most negotiations but not in every case. A win-win solution is particularly important when there is an ongoing relationship between the negotiators, when there is a condition of mutual accountability for the outcome, or when this negotiation will have an impact on future negotiations. However, a win-lose outcome may be preferred if a fixed amount of resource is available with no options, if there is a tradition of competition between the parties, or if only a win-lose option is available (for example, when buying an automobile).

13. Negotiating is based on greed. It would be far better for people just to share equally in the resources.

Preferred Position: SD

This position, although appearing somewhat reasonable, is the ultimate strategy of the conflict avoider. Not only does it disempower people and keep them dependent; it also does not take into account the outcome. This position does not consider what is needed, why it is needed, and by whom it is needed. The inevitable result would be a mediocre to poor solution.

14. If someone takes advantage of me in a negotiation, he or she cannot be trusted, and I will never negotiate with that person again.

Preferred Response: SD

Although this position is an understandable response to being taken advantage of, it is an ineffective approach to negotiation. The painful reality is that if you were taken advantage of, you let it happen and you should assume responsibility for your behavior. A much better response is to learn from the experience and take a different approach next time. Rather than refusing to deal with the person again, let him or her know that you are aware of the past behavior, and point out that he or she is going to find it much tougher now to get anything from you as a result of it. Then demand some kind of collateral or escrow up-front to guard against that person's unethical tactics.

15. My initial objective in any negotiation is to obtain all of what I want.

Preferred Response: SA

The operative term here is "initial." The clearer you are about what you want in the beginning, the easier it will be to make reasonable concessions later. If you walk into the negotiations ready to compromise from the first word, you will have little left to bargain with when you arrive at the tougher points.