7-9-1974

The Effect Of Favorable Video Feedback On A Person'S Self Concept.

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MASTER OF ARTS

THE EFFECT OF FAVORABLE VIDEO FEEDBACK ON A PERSON'S SELF CONCEPT

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THE EFFECT OF FAVORABLE VIDEO FEEDBACK ON A PERSON'S SELF CONCEPT

BY

ANTONIO B. REY

B.A., UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO, 1967

THESIS

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN SPEECH COMMUNICATION

in the Graduate School of
The University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, New Mexico

AUGUST, 1974

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Indeed life is like a fountain
Some prefer the feel and taste of the water
To the concrete and plastic through which it flows
Others build monuments to shape the fluid

Thank You
Lawrence Rosenfeld for sharing your bountiful spring, especially
Your chutzpah for prophesy
Dick Krause for calming and stocking the lake
Larry Bloomberg for clearing the dam before floating downstream
and
Paige for coming with me

Chance turned on the TV. He wondered whether a person changed before or after appearing on the screen. Would he be changed forever or only during his appearance? What part of himself would he leave behind when he finished. . . . Would there be two Chances . . . : one Chance who watched TV and another who appeared on it?

Jerzy Kosinski
Being There

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ABSTRACT OF THESIS

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THE EFFECT OF FAVORABLE VIDEO FEEDBACK ON A PERSON'S SELF CONCEPT

Antonio B. Rey
Department of Speech Communication
The University of New Mexico, 1974

The Problem. Previous research concerned with the relationship between video feedback and self concept indicates that video feedback can affect a person's perception of self. Based on self concept theories which suggest that positive or negative evaluations from others tend to become self-evaluations, the purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of video feedback, self-appraised as favorable, on a person's self concept.

Procedure. Forty Ss, all of whom completed the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) as part of their course activities several weeks prior to this investigation, were randomly assigned to an experimental group (n = 20), and a control group (n = 20). The experimental group received as much video feedback as each S desired. Each S then completed the TSCS post-test. The control group received no video feedback, but merely completed the TSCS post-test.

Results. An analysis of covariance revealed no significant differences on the post-test means of either group for any of the 12 variables of the TSCS measured.

Conclusion. The reliability of the TSCS was reaffirmed: an intervening device, such as video feedback, appears to have no effect on Ss performance on that instrument.

Possible adjustments in self concept related to self viewing of video feedback were not measured by the instrument. The TSCS, however, represents a view of self concept as a stable entity. To measure the impact of video feedback as a method more consistent with the process theory of self concept may be more appropriate.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the last ten years, both video feedback and self concept have received much attention in the social sciences. The availability of relatively low priced, highly portable equipment has sparked a wide use of videotape. Since 1965, video feedback experiments have appeared with accelerated frequency in the literature of counseling, therapy, and education. Yet there exists no consistent theoretical base for this growing body of research (Berman, 1972).

In contrast, the literature of self concept seems to be focusing on one central notion. A person's self concept develops through interaction with other people (Kinch, 1973). Furthermore, evaluations from the environment appear to have the greatest influence on the development of a person's self concept (Gergen, 1971).

With the experimentation in video feedback ranging from group therapy to teacher training, the need to focus the investigation of possible effects of video feedback becomes evident. Video feedback differs from video production in that the viewer of feedback is at the same time the subject of the video presentation. The impact of seeing self as object appears to be the outstanding characteristic of video feedback. "To see ourselves as others see us" is a phrase often used to characterize the experience. In investigating the impact of video feedback, some

researchers have turned toward the effect of self viewing on a person's self concept.

Video feedback research related to self concept has been done in the fields of psychotherapy and Speech Communication. Psychotherapists have attempted to show pathological patients behaviors deemed maladaptive through self viewing via video feedback. Speech Communication research has centered mainly on the effect of self viewing on students' performance of verbal tasks (Blout and Pederson, 1971; Dieker and Crane, 1970). Most of the results of the limited research examining the effect of video feedback on self concept have failed to be conclusive.

The Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of self-appraised video feedback on a person's self concept. Self concept theory indicates that self concepts are self evaluations based on evaluations received from others. Communication theorists believe that situations in which a person feels controlled or evaluated create defensiveness. A defensive person tends to maintain his current self concept. The questions examined in this study were:

1) Can a video feedback condition be structured to provide a person sufficient control of the environment to develop a favorable evaluation of self?

2) Can a person develop a higher self concept as a result of viewing favorable self images?

Significance of the Study

Presently, no method exists to provide consistent self concept improvement. A method of improving self concept with video feedback could be utilized

by psychotherapists and communication instructors.

This study stressed evaluation and control. Evaluation of video feedback by an instructor could be more potent than the visual image the person receives. A non-evaluative setting was attempted in order to reduce influence from "significant others." Control of the video images could reduce or increase defensiveness. A threatening image may be avoided or denied. A favorable image could be more easily accepted and incorporated into a person's self concept. Only the person viewing self can determine what is a favorable image.

Operation Definitions

Tennessee Self Concept Scale Variables:

1) Identity score: pertains to what the individual is.

2) Self-Satisfaction score: pertains to how a person feels about himself.

3) Behavior score: pertains to how an individual acts.

4) Physical self score: pertains to physical functioning, sexuality, state of health, and appearance.

5) Moral-ethical self score: pertains to moral, ethical, and religious aspects of self.

6) Personal self score: pertains to personal worth, adequacy, self-respect, and self confidence.

7) Family self score: pertains to the nature of a person's relationship to his primary group.

8) Social self score: relates to the person's sense of adequacy in relationships with other people in general.

9) Total self score: reflects the person's general level of self esteem.

10) Variability score: pertains to the amount of inconsistency from one area of response to another.

11) Distribution score: is indicative of how definite the self concept is.

12) Self criticism score: pertains to a person's capacity to accept criticism.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To provide a context for the present experiment, an historical perspective of self concept theory and a review of recent video research is provided. The view of self concept as process is stressed in opposition to the structuralist view of self concept. The studies of recent video research covers experiments specifically related to self concept. The reinforcement effect of video feedback and the effect of defensiveness are emphasized.

Historical Perspective on Self Concept Theory

The symbolic interactionist view of self was introduced in 1892 by William James in his elaborate Principles of Psychology. Previous orientations had limited the self to a physiological phenomenon. James suggested that a person's awareness of how others see him was as real as muscle tension. In 1922, Charles Cooley wrote Human Nature and the Social Order, and theorized that a person's feelings about himself were products of his relationship with others. Expanding on Cooley's work, George Herbert Mead (1934) described the process by which a person's identity reflected the views of people with whom he shares a relationship. Mead theorized that self perception was a product of the social environment. According to Mead, a person's experience of self is indirect. Self is experienced by contact

with others who serve as a mirror. "Selves can only exist in definite relationships to others' selves" (Mead, 1934, p. 164). Mead's position, that a person takes on the role of others and sees self as object, is gaining acceptance by psychologists and communication scholars.

The psychological viewpoint of self concept tends to focus on a person's intrapersonal experience. Fritz Perls (1947) revised Freud's psychoanalytical definition of self in terms of the Gestalt Psychology perspective. The self, according to Perls, and other existential phenomenologists, exists in relation to "other" in the person's configuration of the whole perceptual field. The self then is defined as what is not other. Perls perceived the "I," ego, or self concept, as a functional process of human awareness. This dynamic function adapts to changes in the environment. In doing so, the "I" serves the total organism in its survival (Perls, 1947, 138-145). In line with the interactionist perspective, Perls' observation of a changing self concept adapting to environmental necessity, was a major revision of the Freudian structuralist view of self as a fixed or permanent entity incapable of experiencing fundamental change.

Gergen (1971) explains the ongoing debate between the structuralist and process perspectives. To the structuralists, the self concept is a divisible stable entity. As an entity, the structuralist views the self concept as achieving stability through the interaction of its parts. In this perspective a person's view of self can motivate the person to action. If a person thinks of himself as fat, regardless of how others perceive him, his response will be based on his own concept. Inherent

in the structuralist argument is a diminished emphasis on the interactionist view of self.

The process view of self, in contrast, suggests a concentration on the forces influencing a person's self concept. Using the same example, a person may see himself as fat, when in the presence of a fat person with whom he "identifies," that is, feels empathy, warmth or a sameness, that remains unexpressed. In that interaction, a person may have a fat self concept. The same could occur by contrasting one's self to a very thin, and perhaps attractive person. In either case the self concept is a functional adaptation to the environment.

Gergen summarizes both perspectives. "Self concept is the process by which the person conceptualizes (or categorizes) his behavior--both his internal and his external states. On the structural level [it is] the system of concepts available to the person attempting to define himself" (Gergen, 1971, p. 23).

Development of Self Concept

Harry Stack Sullivan, in The Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry, 1953, presented another interactionist process view. In Sullivan's words, "self concept is the direct result of how significant others react to the individual" (p. 232). Our behavior, ideas, and selves are constantly being evaluated by others in our interactions with them. Those evaluations influence how we view ourselves. The process takes place throughout our lives.

The major source of development of self concept is the family, according to Mead (1934). A child's view of self develops as he plays the role expected of

him by the parents. The father's facial expressions and gestures are imitated by the child. Approval or disapproval is received and this reward system influences the behavior the child exhibits. Later in life, the same patterns of interaction affect the new roles which the developing person assumes. Other people respond to the new roles and the person begins to see himself as others see him. The person defines himself by putting himself in the place of the other person and looking at himself. Self concept, then, is a changing process of definition and redefinition of self based on feedback received from other people.

Introducing another perspective to the process of change, Gergen (1972) presented the need for various selves. Each self concept emerges in response to each situation a person encounters. People who try to maintain a single identity may experience emotional distress (Gergen, 1972, pp. 31-35).

Self Concept and Interpersonal Relations

Carl Rogers (1961) observed that human beings can have both conditional and unconditional self concepts. To some people, self concept is contingent upon meeting some standard of excellence, performance, etc. These people view other people in similar fashion. Rogers called the process conditional regard. If other people fulfill the standard, they are considered worthy of interaction. Otherwise, they are ignored. People exhibiting conditional regard for themselves tend to exhibit conditional regard for others. These people, according to Rogers, tend to avoid information that might create a less than standard evaluation of self. This type of defense behavior interferes with the ability to sustain open and direct

relationships. In contrast, Rogers suggests that other people exhibit unconditional self regard. People who accept themselves as they are tend to be equally accepting of others. They exhibit unconditional regard for themselves and others. These people tend to be less defensive and more open in their relationships.

Self Concept and Communication

Brooks (1974) states that self concept influences communication in two ways. The first is called the self-fulfilling prophesy. We tend to live up to our own expectations and the expectations of others. If we are labeled good, bad, ugly, or beautiful, we tend to live up to the label. An operational set appears to develop which influences our behavior. We receive a self concept from the environment in terms, labels, or descriptions, and then act as if these categorizations were accurate (Brooks, 1974, p. 46).

A second influence on communication attributed to self concept by Brooks can be called the drive for consistency. Human beings are capable of avoiding, denying, or distorting messages which are not consistent with their self concept. Gibb (1961) described situations in which this type of defensive behavior occurred as "defensive climates." In situations in which a person feels evaluated or controlled, the tendency to act defensively increases. Defensiveness reduces communication.

Although evaluations from others usually create a defensive climate, they have been shown to have great influence on self concept formation. Gergen (1971) indicated that the effects of evaluation were greatly contingent on the functional

value the evaluation had for the person receiving it. If the evaluation is perceived as favorable, it may help the person grow. If the evaluation is perceived as negative, the person may become defensive. In either case, the person tends to incorporate the evaluations into his or her self concept. The evaluations become self-evaluations.

In summary, self concept theory postulates that a person's self concept reflects the evaluations of others. There are two views of self concept. The structuralist perspective regards self concept as a stable entity. The process view perceives self concept as an awareness process changing from moment to moment. Both perspectives agree that how a person perceives self influences his behavior. Communication scholars have found that people tend to live up to their own expectations, "the self fulfilling prophesy," and that defensive behavior occurs in efforts to maintain consistency of self concept.

Early Video Feedback Studies

Video feedback research has its roots in studies related to body image conducted in the early 1950's. Machover (1951) suggested that a relationship existed between personality and a person's ability to perceive his own body. Like Fisher and Cleveland (1965), Machover's work involved a person drawing an image of self. Cornelison and Arsenian (1960) and Miller (1962) conducted exploratory studies using photographs. By 1963, the study of self image had been extended to video feedback. Kagan, et al., (1963) attempted to measure the amount of distortion of self concept in relation to videotaped self images. Methods included

playback of structured interviews and group interaction.

Recent Video Feedback Research

Research on video self image feedback related to self concept appears in the literature of psychotherapy and speech communication. In psychotherapy, the thrust remains on efforts at facilitating:

> the patient's return to realistic perceptions. . . . The important feature in each case, however, is that the therapeutic value of self-confrontation is centered in the patient's response to the reactions of other people to him and in his reactions to viewing himself (Onder, p. 23).

The emphasis differs in speech communication studies. According to Roberts (1972), "Self confrontation then should serve as a means of additional reinforcement, since any response feedback--positive or negative--uses as its frame of reference the performance recorded on video tape" (p. 26).

Clinical Studies

Berman (1972) pointed out that while most clinical studies have attempted to incorporate video feedback into existing treatment modalities, "(a) too often the theoretical rationales presented in these studies are ad hoc, [and] (b) no reports of experimental tests of a theory can be found . . ." (p. 79).

Boyd and Sisney (1967) found that interpersonal concepts of the self, the ideal self, and the public self, as measured on the Leary Interpersonal Checklist, for patients in a neurophyschiatric ward, became less pathological, and less discrepant with video feedback of a taped interview between the patient and the

experimenter. While pointing out that their experiment was not intended as a test of Festinger's theory, Boyd and Sisney rationalize the change by using Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory:

> . . . when schizophrenic or neurotic subjects are confronted with an accurate and realistic recording of their own behavior (such as video-tape recording) there should be a dissonance set up between their distorted self-image and the more accurate one; and thus that there should be a shift of the Ss self-image in the direction of increased reality, or with less likelihood, a distortion of the perceived recording (p. 291).

Many theorists, according to Boyd and Sisney, have suggested that the utility of the video feedback experience resides in the patient's ability to see himself as others see him, without either praise or blame.

According to Martin (1971), feedback from other people can be:

> 1) . . . subjective and hence susceptible to considerable bias and inaccuracy.
> 2) Interpersonal feedback may be ignored or denied by the intended receiver. This is particularly true of personality-threatening material.
> 3) To be effective, feedback should occur close in time to the event in question.
> 4) Feedback, especially of a critical nature, is easily perceived as judgmental. . . (p. 341).

Non-evaluative, immediate feedback should reduce the occurrence of defensive responses.

Onder presents another view of video feedback:

> It is also the therapist's responsibility to direct the patient's attention continually to the most significant sections of the video tape. In playback sessions, it is often necessary to help the patient overcome his inherent desire to scrutinize unimportant facets of his behavior such as "messy hair" or posture. The therapist

> directs the patient to important cues which would seem the most relevant for beneficial behavioral change (Onder, p. 26).

In another description of video feedback in the clinical setting, Robinson and Jacobs (1970) stated,

> The therapist commented during the feedback sessions upon maladaptive behavior, defined as ways a person behaves and perceives himself which prevent him from meeting the demands of his social environment appropriately. The therapist also pointed out and reinforced specific adaptive responses exhibited by the participants (Robinson and Jacobs, p.170).

In view of Gibb's (1961) notion of evaluative comments creating defensive climates, experiments with video feedback, where behavior was rated or criticized, could have elicited defensive responses from the persons receiving the feedback.

Speech Communication Studies

Video feedback as a means of enhancing a person's self concept has been the focus of speech communication researchers. Churchill Roberts (1972), using video feedback as positive or negative reinforcement, found changes in self-evaluation could not be related to either form of feedback. Nonetheless, the viewing of video feedback as potential reinforcement seems consistent with other speech communication studies.

Blout and Pedersen (1970) studied the effects of video feedback on students presenting 7 minute lessons. Following the presentation, each team of 3 students completed a battery of tests. Although not statistically significant, the

results showed a tendency toward more favorable self evaluation. The authors suggested that the feedback session may have been too short (7 minutes for all subjects), and that the measuring instruments (Body-cathexis Scale, Self-cathexis Scale, Self and Other Rating Scale, and adjective check list) may have been too insensitive to adequately measure changes in self-concept.

Dieker, Crane, and Brown (1971) studied the impact of repeated video feedback self confrontations on changes in the congruency of actual and ideal self-ratings of students giving speeches. They predicted that repeated video self confrontations would evolve a self-concept closer to the ideal self than no self confrontation on video. They found, however, that the nonviewing speech students experienced the greater increase in congruity. They accounted for this unexpected result by noting that the self-viewing students tended to develop a more "realistic" self-concept. That is, the students who received video feedback on their speeches were able to perceive their attributes and failures in speech-making more objectively, to evolve a more "realistic" self-rating than those students who received no video feedback and inflated their self-concept toward the ideal over time. Dieker, et al., (1971) suggested that future research might (1) use video feedback of subjects in a more informal situation than speechmaking, (2) give immediate self-viewing feedback, and (3) offer reflective analysis and comments during the feedback session.

Summary of Research on Video Feedback and Self Concept

Speech communication studies have focused on a person's self concept in a particular role. Clinical studies have attempted to treat pathological discrepancies

in self concept. In both areas, scholars have observed the importance of evaluation. The clinical researchers, acknowledging the need to be non-evaluative, have nonetheless, at times structured conditions that appear conducive to defensiveness. Speech researchers, although attempting to be positively evaluative, have been unable to obtain positive changes in self concept.

Rationale and Hypotheses

The intention of this study was to measure the effect of favorable video feedback on self concept.

Self concept theory indicates that a person's view of self is developed from evaluations received from others. The evaluations of others tend to become self-evaluations. A positive self evaluation tends to increase a person's interpersonal skills (Gergen, 1971).

Video feedback researchers, although acknowledging that defensiveness can result from evaluative settings, have provided climates where performance was evaluated. These experimental climates may have produced defensiveness as the subject awaited the experimenter's evaluation. Those defensive responses may have prevented or blocked the reception of new information on which new self evaluations could be based.

Control has also been cited as a factor conducive to defensive behavior (Gibb, 1961). In the studies cited, the type and length of feedback received by the subjects was entirely in the control of the experimenter.

The intent of this study was to turn over both evaluation and control of the video feedback to the subject. The experiment attempted to establish a condition in which subjects could receive as much feedback as they desired.

The following hypotheses were tested:

Favorable video feedback enhances a person's self concept as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Specifically,

1) There is significant difference in Identity scores means between the experimental and control groups.

2) There is significant difference in Self Satisfaction score means between the experimental and control groups.

3) There is significant difference in Behavior score means between the experimental and control groups.

4) There is significant difference in Physical Self score means between the experimental and control groups.

5) There is significant difference in Moral-Ethical Self score means between the experimental and control groups.

6) There is significant difference in Personal Self score means between the experimental and control groups.

7) There is significant difference in Family Self score means between the experimental and control groups.

8) There is significant difference in Social Self score means between the experimental and control groups.

9) There is significant difference in Total Self score means between the experimental and control groups.

10) There is significant difference in Distribution score means between the experimental and control groups.

11) There is significant difference in Variability score means between the experimental and control groups.

12) There is significant difference in Self Criticism score means between the experimental and control groups.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Experimental Design

The design chosen for this study was the Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design described by Campbell and Stanley (1963, p. 13). The design can be illustrated as:

Group I	R	O_1	X	O_2
Group II	R	O_3		O_4

R represents subjects randomly assigned to each group. O represents the administration of the test instrument, the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS). X represents the experimental variable, video feedback.

The design accounts for factors threatening internal validity such as maturation, and intrasession history. All subjects had taken the pretest at the beginning of the semester. The experimental variable and the post-tests were administered in the 11th and 12th weeks of the same semester.

The sample, 40 people, males and females, in the Speech 101 course at the University of New Mexico, was randomly assigned to the two groups. Twenty Ss were randomly assigned to the experimental group, and 20 to the control group. Each subject chose a time on a schedule of 20 minute time intervals. As a subject

arrived for the experiment, he or she was assigned to the experimental group if the equipment was not being used by another subject. Those Ss who arrived during a video feedback session were assigned to the control group and received only the post-test with no video feedback.

Procedure

Each subject assigned to the control group was shown into a small office adjoining the experimental room, and was informed that his or her participation consisted of completing the questionnaire on the desk. Since the TSCS was identified by its instruction sheet, each subject was asked if he or she had taken the pre-test. Upon ascertaining that the subject had completed the pre-test, he was informed to return the test booklet to the experimenter upon completion. (One subject had not completed the pre-test. Another had completed it only the day before in another experiment. Both were excused from participation.) Upon completion of the test, each subject was informed that the course instructor would be notified of his or her participation. (All students in the beginning Speech course were required to participate in an out-of-class experiment.)

Each S in the experimental group was shown into the experimental room (the Speech Communication Department's video production studio). The camera person was introduced to each S. The S was then advised that his or her participation in the experiment consisted of viewing self images on the 24" TV monitor located in the same room. The camera person was there to afford each S the type of photo desired. Each S was told that the point of the experiment was to find a

favorable self image, and at that point they would be videotaped. They were free to do whatever they wished for as long as they wished before the videotaping would begin. When they indicated that they had been taped long enough, the taped session was replayed for them in the adjoining control room. After having watched both the live and taped feedback, each S was asked to complete the TSCS. The same procedure as was used for the control group was used to determine whether the subject had completed the pretest. (One S had not completed the pretest. He was eliminated from the experiment.)

While each person was viewing his self image, the experimenter, situated out of the S's sight in the studio control room, noted specific behaviors through a large window. Length of feedback, commands to the camera operator, changes of posture, furniture, and lighting were recorded.

Feedback lengths ranged from 2 to 40 minutes. Some Ss sat still. Others performed skits or walked around the room. Some asked for close-ups, while others preferred longer shots. Some utilized the studio flats, furniture, and objects in the room as props. Others engaged the camera person in conversation. Some watched the feedback intently while others merely glanced occasionally at the monitor.

Experimental Room

The Speech Communication Department, University of New Mexico's video studio was utilized as the experimental room. The room is approximately 30 x 50 feet. It is equipped with an iron pipe grid on which lights can be hung. In addition to the studio lights, the room was equipped with standard florescent lights, which were used in every feedback session.

To maintain a consistent environment, the same items of furniture and the same lighting arrangement were used for all sessions. The subjects were afforded the entire studio space to do as they desired during the feedback session. The camera and monitor were placed in the same position before each session. All Ss were advised that the camera could be moved to suit the Ss' taste.

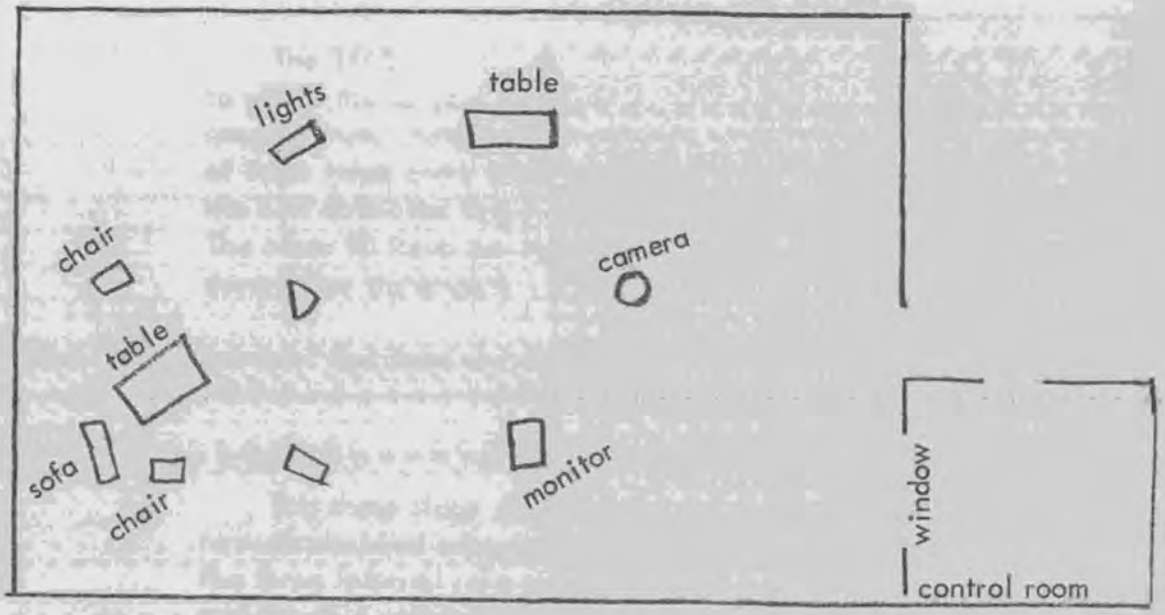

Diagram A

The furniture and objects, including the theatrical flats, were selected to reduce the starkness of the empty studio. Most Ss chose to sit in a "living room set," which consisted of a table, sofa, and two chairs. Others walked around the set or rearranged the furniture to alter the effect.

Video Equipment

The primary equipment used consisted of an Ampex Vidicon black and white camera equipped with a 22.5-90mm zoom lens, a Conrac 24 inch black and

white monitor, and a Sony AV 3650 1/2 inch black and white recorder. During one session, due to breakdown of the primary equipment, a Sony AVC 3400 black and white camera with a 12.5 - 75 mm zoom lens and a Sony AV 3400 recorder were used.

The Instrument (Tennessee Self Concept Scale)

> The TSCS consists of 100 self-descriptive statements to which the subject responds on a 5-point response scale ranging from "completely true" to "completely false." Ten of these items come from the MMPI L-Scale and constitute the Self Criticism Score--a measure of overt defensiveness. The other 90 items are drawn from a large pool of self-descriptive statements (Fitts, et al., 1971, p. 42).

Based on their content the items are assigned into a three stage classification system.

> This three stage classification process evolved into a two-dimensional scheme best visualized as a 3x5 grid with the three internal referents constituting one of the dimensions and the five categories of the external referents making up the second dimension. Within each of the resulting 15 intersecting categories (e.g., Identity-Physical Self or Behavior-Family Self) there are an equal number of positive and negative items.
>
> Within this conceptual scheme a variety of scores were generated which reflect significant information concerning an individual's self concept (Fitts, et al., 1971, p. 43).

Analysis of the Data

An analysis of covariance program, BMD 09V, compared the mean post-test score (with pretest scores as the covariates) for each variable of the TSCS for both the experimental and control groups to determine if significant differences resulted from the application of the experimental variable. F tests as well as T

tests were performed across all group means. According to Campbell and Stanley, an analysis of covariance with pretest scores as covariates is preferred to a comparison of the gain scores on the post-test for each group (Campbell and Stanley, 1963, p. 23). Since there was no difference in the pretest means for the two groups, the analysis of covariance was appropriate.

Results

The first null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Identity scores, between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Identity was retained ($F = 1.4562$, $p < .05$; $t = 1.2056$, $p < .05$).

The second null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Self-Satisfaction scores, between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Self-Satisfaction was retained ($F = .0305$, $p < .05$; $t = -.0180$, $p < .05$).

The third null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Behavior scores, between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Behavior was retained ($F = -.0270$, $p < .05$; $t = .1071$, $p < .05$).

The fourth null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Physical Self scores, between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Physical Self was retained ($F = -.0891$, $p < .05$; $t = .0207$, $p < .05$).

The fifth null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Moral-Ethical self score, between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Moral-Ethical self was retained ($F = .0134$, $p < .05$; $t = .1432$, $p < .05$).

The sixth null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Personal Self scores, between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Personal Self was retained ($F = .0777$, $p < .05$; $t = .2773$, $p < .05$).

The seventh null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Family Self scores between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Family Self was retained ($F = .2037$, $p < .05$; $t = -.1905$, $p < .05$).

The eighth null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Social Self scores between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis was retained regarding Social Self ($F = .2722$, $p < .05$; $t = .5157$, $p < .05$).

The ninth null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Total Self scores between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Total Self was retained ($F = .1237$, $p < .05$; $t = .3605$, $p < .05$).

The tenth null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Distribution between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Distribution was retained ($F = .2722$, $p < .05$; $t = .5157$, $p < .05$).

The eleventh null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Variability between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Variability was retained ($F = 0224$, $p < .05$; $t = .1883$, $p < .05$).

The twelfth null hypothesis predicted no significant difference in Self Criticism scores between the experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis regarding Self Criticism was retained ($F = .0160$, $p < .05$; $t = .1368$, $p < .05$).

As indicated in Table 1, no significant difference between experimental and control group score was shown on any of the variables measured.

TABLE 1

COMPARISON OF PRETEST—POST-TEST MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Variable Name	Group I Control			Group II Experimental		
	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	St. Dev.	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	St. Dev.
Identity	122.7	123.9	2.1	122.2	119.5	2.1
Self Satisfaction	105.3	107.5	2.3	106.2	108.3	2.3
Behavior	110.1	109.6	1.8	110.0	109.5	1.8
Physical Self	68.9	68.8	1.3	69.4	69.5	1.3
Moral-Ethical Self	67.4	69.0	1.4	68.0	68.5	1.4
Personal Self	64.7	64.3	1.6	65.1	64.2	1.6
Family Self	68.4	66.0	2.3	67.9	67.5	2.3
Social Self	68.5	69.1	1.2	67.5	67.6	1.2
Total Self	337.9	340.5	5.0	337.9	337.3	5.0
Distribution	116.2	110.1	3.5	107.7	103.4	3.5
Variability		44.8	2.65		42.2	2.6
Self Criticism		37.3	1.12		35.4	1.2

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion

This study attempted to assess the effects of favorable video feedback on a person's self concept. Twenty subjects were provided black and white video feedback for as long as they desired. Each subject was able to direct the photographic angle and distance of his or her video feedback. No significant difference between the experimental and control groups in performance on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) indicated that no effect on self concept was obtained. The principle explanation for this result focuses on the difference between the conceptualization of self concept which guided this study (the view of self concept as process), and the conceptualization of self concept upon which the TSCS was based (the view of self concept as structure).

The process view of self concept suggests that self conceptualization is a dynamic function of human awareness (Perls, 1947, p. 138; Gergen, 1971, p. 31; Brooks, 1974, p. 44). According to Gergen (1971), a person's self concept is salient in specific situations and motivated by organismic as well as environmental stimuli. Brooks (1974) supports Gergen's view, and emphasizes the survival function of self conceptualization. A person attempting to adhere to one self concept may

experience stress resulting from change in the phenomenal field where that self concept is central. Many U.S. citizens experienced that type of stress when their self concept of "American" compelled them to assimilate the U.S. involvement in Vietnam. Some chose to reduce the stress by de-emphasizing the "American self" and developing a self concept such as Black, Chicano, or woman. Marshall McLuhan (1969) and Alvin Toffler (1970) propose that adaptations of self concept are needed in order to cope with the rapid changes in our perceptual fields resulting from the increase in information that accompanies electronic media.

Perls (1947) suggested viewing self concept as function, rather than substance, and elusive, rather than stable. In gestalt terms, the self concept is a particular figure/ground relationship in which self is contrasted to other in the perceptual field. Perceptual field changes affect changes in self concept. A particular self concept is salient in response to the person's perceptual field. Hunger, thirst, sex, recognition, power, love--the whole range of internal motivational phenomena--influence how a person perceives self. According to the process view, the continuing changes in internal and external stimuli affect changes in self perception.

Fitts, in explaining the theoretical basis of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, equates self as process to behavioral self (Fitts, 1971, p. 14). According to Fitts, the self concept is the sum total of all the perceptions of self a person experiences. The sum total blends into a unified whole in which the parts interact freely. According to Fitts, the self concept is composed of three principle

parts: self as object, or Identity Self, self as doer, or Behavioral Self, and self as observer, or Judging Self.

There is no dispute between Fitts' theory of self concept development and the process point of view. Nor is there any difference in Fitts' view of the role of self concept in interpersonal relations. In fact, Fitts cites Rogers, James, Mead, and Cooley in his historical perspective on self concept theory. The difference resides in Fitts' own conceptualization of the self concept. Whereas the process perspective states that self concept is a function, Fitts, by analogy, equates self concept to an object:

> If we visualize the total self as an object with an overall shape--sphere, cube, cylinder, ellipsoid--then we can conceivably subdivide the object in various ways. We might slice it horizontally, or we might slice it vertically. These two slices could look very different, as do horizontal and vertical slices of an orange, although they are still portions of the same whole. Another method of subdivision would be to move from its external surface inward by layers, as in peeling the orange. Analogies and models have limited applicability. Nevertheless, for present purposes, let us say that the three basic selves constitute different layers of the total self: Identity Self is the ordinarily unseen core; Behavioral Self is the readily observable outer peel; Judging Self is the middle, intermediate portion (Fitts, 1971, pp. 20-21).

Fitts presents a structural perspective of what the process advocates describe as function. Rather than a dynamic, elusive process, the self concept, according to Fitts, "once clearly differentiated and structured, is a fairly stable entity" (Fitts, 1971, p. 35). The TSCS, according to Fitts, is unable to determine at what point the self concept becomes a stable entity (1971, p. 35). Nonetheless,

the difference in perspectives is clear. The structural view, by analogy, equates self concept to a thing. The process perspective describes self concept as a dynamic function of awareness.

A concept, be it self or other, by definition is not an entity. The entity the structuralists depend upon is the structured measuring instrument. Fitts devised an instrument that measures human performance and, by implication, self concept. However, a structural view of self as object, doer, and judge, remains a perspective of self concept--not self concept.

Fitts, apparently dismissing the process perspective, cites Carl Rogers: "By implication, Rogers attributes a highly differentiated and complex self-structure to the fully functioning personality. . . . Clearly, Rogers conceptualized awareness of being, or self concept, not as an event which occurs as a particular point in time, but as a continuing process" (Fitts, 1971, p. 69). Fitts' test was designed to measure the structure of the self concept process. The TSCS, therefore, measures consistent, repeated processes that supposedly comprise the "total" self concept. The value system of the instrument stresses stability, with room for flexibility to permit change and growth.

Fitts' theoretical framework is formidable. All the self concept theory bases seem to be covered. Precisely for this reason the TSCS was used in this study. As a result of the experiment the difference between the process and structure perspectives emerged.

Two questions remain concerning self concept. (1) Does the TSCS measure how a person responds to self, or how a person responds to a structured

format of evaluations of self? The structuralist response may well be that the instrument's predictive power affords us a great deal of information about a person's self concept. The process view may suggest that since a person can have only one self concept at any one time, all the instrument does is measure the response to the questions at the moment the response is made. (2) Does the sum of the parts of a process equal the whole of that process? The structuralists apparently say yes. The process view would suggest that the whole self is not the sum of its parts, but rather that each self conceptualization represents the whole organism at various times.

This study has also raised some questions about the process of video feedback. Can we now through technological means by-pass the self concept development process introduced by Mead (1934)? Can a person receive self image feedback to balance evaluations received from others? Can self evaluation via video feedback assist a person in developing his self concept? The following discussion, implications, and recommendations may point toward ways of answering these questions.

The experience of self viewing of video feedback may be described in four stages. In the first stage a person is unaware of his or her video self image. Upon first viewing of self on video many people experience self-consciousness. The self-conscious second stage is characterized by avoidance, giggling, fidgeting, embarrassment and other self conscious behaviors. Further exposure to video self images seems to lead to the third stage. Conscious awareness of self image within the video context may produce conscious efforts to manipulate the video environ-

ment to achieve a desired effect. The final stage, unself-consciousness, is achieved when the person can perform routine tasks, or affect specific roles without being inhibited by the video experience. In the final stage people tend to become aware of other people in the video perceptual field, whereas in the early stage, people usually see only themselves with little attention paid to others.

Perhaps there was not enough time provided in this experiment to allow a person to go beyond the initial stage of self viewing. How much feedback each person needs to progress through the stages described above is unknown.

Regardless, repeated feedback may provide the kind of new visual information on which to develop a new self concept. Borden, Gregg, and Grove (1969) assert that a person's image of self is more permanent than conceptualizations of self based on evaluations (p. 98). Perhaps introducing information on which to develop a new visual self concept can lead to changes in self evaluation. Since people appear to have a drive for consistency in self concept (Brooks, 1974), perhaps video feedback that does not threaten the existing self concept is more likely to be accepted than feedback which produces defensiveness. Small, repeated exposures of self-appraised, favorable images may lead to positive self concepts.

The impact of a single viewing of video self feedback needs to be assessed. Perhaps physiological measures such as Galvanic Skin Response (GSR) and pupillary response could be utilized. These methods have been shown capable of measuring the impact of television and film (Kohan, 1968). Physiological measures may provide a more direct method of determining the impact of self viewing.

Environmental effects on a person's perception of the video feedback process are also worthy of consideration. Mintz (1956) studied the effects of environment by placing subjects in an "ugly" and a "beautiful" room. The "ugly" room seemed to produce responses that can be classified as defensive:

> . . . such reactions as monotony, fatigue, headache, sleep, discontent, irritability, hostility, and avoidance of the room; while in the [beautiful] room they had feelings of comfort, pleasure, enjoyment. . . . It is concluded that visual-esthetic surroundings . . . can affect significantly the person exposed to them (p. 466).

Video feedback may be more easily accepted in a pleasant environment than in an unpleasant one.

Conclusion

No significant difference in performance on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale was found as a result of favorable video feedback. Video feedback appears to have no effect on the structural aspects of self concept as measured by the TSCS. An instrument designed to measure change in self concept rather than stability of self concept may more appropriately measure the effects of video feedback on self concept.

Implications and Recommendations

The implications of the difference between the process and structure points of view are significant for future video feedback research. The process of video feedback remains unmeasured. Roberts (1971), like Boyd and Sisney (1967), Blout and Pederson (1970), and Dieker, Crane, and Brown (1971), found no significant

difference, as measured by standardized tests, on self concept resulting from video feedback. To affect change in the self concept structure of the TSCS or other standard instruments, much more profound impacts on self concept may be needed.

In reconstructing this experiment a consideration of time, repeated exposures, as well as an emphasis on evaluation and control are suggested. A design to test video feedback using three groups, one group receiving positive feedback, one receiving non-evaluative feedback, and a group receiving negative feedback, would offer more data on the role of the evaluation procedure. An additional element is encouraged: time to assimilate the video information. Previous studies have encouraged immediate feedback, not necessarily immediate measurement. A person needs time to process new information. Varying the amount of time between feedback and measurement may reveal differences in length of assimilation time required.

Physiological measures such as GSR and pupillary response may provide another avenue for assessing the impact of self viewing. Self descriptions before, during, and after self viewing may lead to insights in cognitive changes associated with video feedback.

Future research into the relationship between video feedback and self concept may reveal new perspectives on both the effects of video viewing and the process of self conceptualization.

APPENDIX

TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE

Test Booklet for Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

INSTRUCTIONS

On the top line of the separate answer sheet, fill in your name and the other information except for the time information in the last three boxes. Write only on the answer sheet. Do not put any marks in this booklet.

The statements in this booklet are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself to yourself. Do not omit any item! Read each statement carefully; then select one of the five responses listed below. On your answer sheet, put a circle around the response you chose. If you want to change an answer after you have circled it, do not erase it but put an X mark through the response and then circle the response you want.

As you start, be sure that the question numbers on your answer sheet match the question number on the test booklet. Note that the question numbers are not in logical order--please work carefully!

Remember, put a circle around the response number you have chosen for each statement.

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

You will find these response numbers repeated at the bottom of each page to help you remember them.

1. I have a healthy body.

3. I am an attractive person.

5. I consider myself a sloppy person.

19. I am a decent sort of person.

21. I am an honest person.

23. I am a bad person.

37. I am a cheerful person.

39. I am a calm and easy going person.

41. I am a nobody.

55. I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble.

57. I am a member of a happy family.

59. My friends have no confidence in me.

73. I am a friendly person.

75. I am popular with men.

77. I am not interested in what other people do.

91. I do not always tell the truth.

93. I get angry sometimes.

2. I like to look nice and neat all the time.

4. I am full of aches and pains.

6. I am a sick person.

20. I am a religious person.

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

22. I am a moral failure.

24. I am a morally weak person.

38. I have a lot of self-control.

40. I am a hateful person.

42. I am losing my mind.

56. I am an important person to my friends and family.

58. I am not loved by my family.

60. I feel that my family doesn't trust me.

74. I am popular with women.

76. I am mad at the whole world.

78. I am hard to be friendly with.

92. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about.

94. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross.

7. I am neither too fat nor too thin.

9. I like my looks just the way they are.

11. I would like to change some parts of my body.

25. I am satisfied with my moral behavior.

27. I am satisfied with my relationship to God.

29. I ought to go to church more.

43. I am satisfied to be just what I am.

45. I am just as nice as I should be.

Responses -	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

47. I despise myself.

61. I am satisfied with my family relationships.

63. I understand my family as well as I should.

65. I should trust my family more.

79. I am as sociable as I want to be.

81. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it.

83. I am no good at all from a social standpoint.

95. I do not like everyone I know.

97. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke.

8. I am neither too tall nor too short.

10. I don't feel as well as I should.

12. I should have more sex appeal.

26. I am as religious as I want to be.

28. I wish I could be more trustworthy.

30. I shouldn't tell so many lies.

44. I am as smart as I want to be.

46. I am not the person I would like to be.

48. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do.

62. I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living.)

64. I am too sensitive to things my family say.

66. I should love my family more.

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

80. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people.

82. I should be more polite to others.

84. I ought to get along better with other people.

96. I gossip a little at times.

98. At times I feel like swearing.

13. I take good care of myself physically.

15. I try to be careful about my appearance.

17. I often act like I am "all thumbs."

31. I am true to my religion in my everyday life.

33. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong.

35. I sometimes do very bad things.

49. I can always take care of myself in any situation.

51. I take the blame for things without getting mad.

53. I do things without thinking about them first.

67. I try to play fair with my friends and family.

69. I take a real interest in my family.

71. I give in to my parents. (Use past tense if parents are not living.)

85. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view

87. I get along well with other people.

89. I do not forgive others easily.

99. I would rather win than lose in a game.

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

14. I feel good most of the time.

16. I do poorly in sports and games.

18. I am a poor sleeper.

32. I do what is right most of the time.

34. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead.

36. I have trouble doing the things that are right.

50. I solve my problems quite easily

52. I change my mind a lot.

54. I try to run away from my problems.

68. I do my share of work at home.

70. I quarrel with my family.

72. I do not act like my family thinks I should.

86. I see good points in all the people I meet.

88. I do not feel at ease with other people.

90. I find it hard to talk with strangers.

100. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today.

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

LEGEND TO TABLES II AND III. TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE VARIABLES

Row
- 1 = Identity Score
- 2 = Self Satisfaction Score
- 3 = Behavior Score

Column
- A = Physical Self Score
- B = Moral-Ethical Self Score
- C = Personal Self Score
- D = Family Self Score
- E = Social Self Score

Total
- D = Distribution Score
- V = Variability Score
- SC = Self Criticism Score

TABLE 2

CONTROL GROUP, TSCS PRETEST, POST-TEST SCORES

Subject		Sex	Age	Row 1	Row 2	Row 3	Column A	Column B	Column C	Column D	Column E	Total	D	V	SC
Pre	1	M	25	125	106	115	74	66	61	71	74	343	132	--	--
Post				124	119	106	72	70	55	65	77	339	96	43	36
Pre	2	M	24	105	91	105	65	57	54	65	60	301	62	--	--
Post				102	85	99	63	52	56	61	54	286	56	47	34
Pre	3	M	--	123	116	115	77	66	72	70	69	354	92	--	--
Post				124	114	110	75	63	70	65	74	347	87	28	30
Pre	4	F	18	127	107	127	68	76	71	73	73	361	132	--	--
Post				123	95	99	74	62	48	68	65	317	100	64	40
Pre	5	M	19	136	142	134	82	84	78	83	85	412	175	--	--
Post				131	139	124	83	85	75	81	70	394	142	31	37
Pre	6	M	24	103	87	92	52	48	59	60	63	282	74	--	--
Post				114	94	99	53	62	63	65	64	307	75	39	36
Pre	7	M	23	136	128	127	80	73	79	77	82	391	150	--	--
Post				131	128	128	76	76	77	80	78	387	142	25	40
Pre	8	F	21	137	91	116	71	66	64	73	70	344	107	--	--
Post				143	105	119	74	73	73	74	73	367	100	54	32
Pre	9	F	22	123	83	103	57	65	51	72	64	309	133	--	--
Post				134	106	105	66	71	65	77	66	345	128	57	34
Pre	10	F	50	147	138	136	78	86	82	86	88	421	169	--	--
Post				148	147	139	85	87	84	88	90	434	171	18	43

TABLE 2, Continued

Subject		Sex	Age	Row 1	Row 2	Row 3	Column A	Column B	Column C	Column D	Column E	Total	D	V	SC
Pre	11	M	20	133	118	121	74	73	76	77	72	372	132	--	--
Post				123	129	126	74	74	80	74	76	378	140	47	38
Pre	12	M	23	96	95	83	60	57	58	50	49	274	127	--	--
Post				105	94	84	48	70	51	59	55	283	92	45	43
Pre	13	F	19	123	80	98	63	64	57	60	57	301	86	--	--
Post				118	87	101	57	67	57	62	62	306	73	46	28
Pre	14	M	19	114	121	112	69	72	74	66	66	347	118	--	--
Post				125	135	124	76	85	73	79	71	384	143	37	45
Pre	15	M	20	108	98	100	69	65	59	57	56	306	58	--	--
Post				105	83	101	67	58	58	48	58	289	73	43	36
Pre	16	F	18	136	111	108	76	69	62	69	79	355	127	--	--
Post				129	119	118	75	70	64	78	79	366	126	51	39
Pre	17	F	19	125	101	110	63	74	62	65	72	336	109	--	--
Post				128	96	100	59	71	62	56	76	324	123	72	41
Pre	18	F	20	127	109	103	73	46	66	70	66	339	90	--	--
Post				130	114	113	77	46	72	73	67	357	111	39	23
Pre	19	F	36	127	98	101	74	67	56	64	65	326	147	--	--
Post				127	73	97	67	56	46	64	64	297	124	76	45
Pre	20	F	19	103	86	96	53	57	53	61	61	285	105	--	--
Post				115	89	101	56	62	59	64	64	305	102	36	47

TABLE 3

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, TSCS PRETEST, POST-TEST SCORES

Subject		Sex	Age	Row 1	Row 2	Row 3	Column A	Column B	Column C	Column D	Column E	Total	D	V	SC
Pre	21	F	18	94	83	85	54	47	51	56	54	262	47	--	--
Post				68	100	93	55	52	48	47	59	261	59	31	34
Pre	22	F	18	138	101	128	64	75	73	77	78	367	134	--	--
Post				128	97	116	66	68	66	68	73	341	105	41	32
Pre	23	F	--	126	118	114	78	70	63	71	76	358	112	--	--
Post				111	111	113	71	68	50	66	80	335	110	56	44
Pre	24	F	--	116	97	94	67	59	52	71	58	307	91	--	--
Post				111	107	91	69	61	51	73	55	309	90	56	46
Pre	25	F	19	113	101	101	63	64	60	69	59	315	60	--	--
Post				103	102	100	57	66	59	69	54	305	55	28	27
Pre	26	M	20	111	113	108	66	67	71	65	63	332	80	--	--
Post				122	124	110	72	72	70	74	68	356	112	37	32
Pre	27	F	25	128	124	123	77	76	70	79	73	375	121	--	--
Post				127	130	114	75	76	65	78	77	371	120	30	40
Pre	28	M	25	130	128	122	81	80	69	74	76	380	123	--	--
Post				125	117	114	75	76	67	72	66	356	108	34	31
Pre	29	F	18	119	113	107	72	69	68	46	66	339	82	--	--
Post				125	121	114	74	69	72	47	68	360	103	30	31
Pre	30	M	23	115	100	97	60	67	55	70	59	312	104	--	--
Post				122	102	106	73	62	66	69	62	330	105	56	41

TABLE 3, Continued

Subject		Sex	Age	Row 1	Row 2	Row 3	Column A	Column B	Column C	Column D	Column E	Total	D	V	SC
Pre	31	M	--	122	85	107	71	55	68	58	68	314	130	--	--
Post				125	84	109	73	58	68	53	66	318	119	71	39
Pre	32	F	52	132	132	125	81	76	76	83	73	389	131	--	--
Post				120	123	115	71	68	71	72	76	358	116	39	33
Pre	33	M	20	134	120	119	80	73	75	70	75	373	133	--	--
Post				112	105	105	64	63	65	63	67	322	92	29	31
Pre	34	M	23	140	116	130	82	83	72	72	77	386	166	--	--
Post				141	129	133	80	88	75	77	82	403	159	32	34
Pre	35	M	19	132	94	109	77	67	60	58	73	335	142	--	--
Post				135	91	123	81	71	63	62	72	349	123	65	41
Pre	36	F	20	128	94	101	61	79	62	53	68	323	117	--	--
Post				122	96	110	64	74	54	57	69	318	105	54	40
Pre	37	F	19	118	83	100	57	57	57	58	62	291	120	--	--
Post				124	93	99	67	65	61	68	58	313	90	45	37
Pre	38	M	35	117	100	105	68	65	67	61	61	322	63	--	--
Post				119	100	108	69	66	68	62	62	327	70	37	33
Pre	39	M	20	117	102	108	58	70	64	71	64	327	78	--	--
Post				125	120	119	71	70	76	66	72	355	101	27	24
Pre	40	M	18	114	120	117	71	63	69	79	69	351	104	--	--
Post				127	124	110	65	78	72	78	68	361	108	36	39

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