THE EFFECT OF MODELLING AND CONTRAST MODELLING ON COMMUNICATION

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BY

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Promoter: Prof. W.J. Schoeman, M.A., D.Phil.

You cannot teach a man anything,
You can only help him discover it
within himself.
Galileo.

To my family, who made the entire study possible.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The study of communication will always be a focus of research for the behavioral scientist. In recent years, research in behavioral functioning has moved from an emphasis on intrapersonal functioning to an emphasis on interpersonal functioning. Research into interpersonal functioning would, per definition, imply an important focus on the study of communication seeing that communication is the means whereby this interpersonal functioning takes place.

In addition, the emphasis has shifted from global studies to more specific individual case studies and experimental analogue approaches - for example laboratory analogue studies using video-tape techniques (Bergin and Strupp, 1970; Heller, 1971; and Kiesler, 1971).

Recent reviews by Bailey and Sowden (1970), Griffiths (1974), Danet (1968), Fuller and Manning (1973) and Bierschenk (1974) indicate that the initial enthusiasm about video-tape feedback has not been supported by research findings. Research results by Van Zyl (1975); Luttig (1976); Saunders (1977); and Pompe van Meerdervoort (1976) also indicate that the video-feedback technique, instead of resulting in change, arouses resistance against the desired change in most cases. This could be the result of the fact that all the experimental individuals, dyads and groups were *confronted with video-playbacks of their own behavior.*

Modelling and specifically video-modelling as a laboratory analogue technique is an alternative method used in recent research. A survey of the literature on modelling (Bandura 1969, 1970, 1976; Sahakian 1970 and Bergin and Garfield 1971) seems to indicate that learning by means of modelling is based on sound theoretical principles.

Furthermore, the following researchers using video-modelling as a technique obtained favorable results. Bailey, Deardorff and Nay (1977); Weiner (1977); Saunders (1977); Le Roux (1978); Eisler, Hersen and Miller (1973); and Myrick (1969). An apparent conclusion is that modelling and its variant video-modelling, appears to have potential in effecting behavioral change.

As a result of the foregoing, it was decided to concentrate, in this experiment, on video-modelling as the technique to improve communication abilities. The question arose as to what effect it would have on the experimental persons if they were confronted, not with their own inadequate communication abilities as had been done in the feedback studies mentioned earlier, but with those of other models.

It was hypothesized that the use of other models to illustrate the pitfalls in communication would not prove as threatening to the experimental subjects and would thus not arouse the resistance to change found in video-feedback research.

The aim of this study, then, is to determine the effect of two independent variables (video-modelling and contrast

video-modelling) on the primary core-dimensions of communi= cation, namely empathy, respect and congruence. The video-modelling in this study entails the modelling of good commu= nication abilities and contrast video-modelling the model= ling of poor communication abilities.

A study of this kind necessitates the use of a heuristic framework to integrate concepts of communication, modelling, learning, goalsetting and change. Seeing that General Systems Theory (Von Bantalanffy, 1969) provides such a theoretical background, it was decided to use it as the underlying theoretical rationale.

CHAPTER 2

2 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, research in behavioral functioning has moved from an intrapersonal to an interpersonal level.

> "there has been a shift in psychiatry and psychol= ogy from an emphasis upon the processes within an individual to an emphasis upon his relationships with other people" (Haley, 1963, p. 3).

This trend did not only take place in the social scientific field, but also in philosophic thought. Truax and Mitchell (1971) quote Martin Buber as saying in 1953 that:

> "the inmost growth of the self is not accomplished, as people like to suppose today, in man's relation to himself, but in the relations between the one and the other ... in the making present of another self and in the knowledge that one is made present in his own self by the other..." (p. 249).

This shift has resulted in communication and systems of com= munication becoming an important focus of research, inasmuch as communication is the means whereby people relate on an interpersonal level. The implications of this is that the quality of the individual's adjustment depends on the nature of his communication with his total environment.

Ruesch and Bateson (1951) summarized the nature of communi= cation as "the matrix in which all human activities are im= bedded" (p. 13) and the function of communication they

described as follows:

> "Man uses his communication system:
> (a) to receive and transmit messages and to retain information;
> (b) to perform operations with the existing information for the purpose of deriving new conclusions which were not directly perceived and for reconstructing past and anticipating future events;
> (c) to initiate and modify physiological processes within his body;
> (d) to influence and direct other people and external events". (Ruesch and Bateson, 1951, p. 18).

Add to this Thayer's (1968) idea that the basic functions of communication include an environmental adaptation aspect and a social aspect. According to him the environmental adaptation aspect is necessary for physical survival and the social aspect is the means whereby relationships are established, maintained or changed. Dance and Larson (1976) add a further connotation to the aforementioned viewpoints with the idea that the functions of communication take place without any conscious co-operation on the part of the subject. These functions link the subject to his environment, regulate his behavior, and are the means whereby he develops his higher mental processes.

It appears thus that communication is the crux of man's adaptation to his total physical, cultural and social environment. Implicit in socio-cultural adjustment is that communication facilitates the maturation and development of the total personality of the individual. Hamachek (1971) wrote that successful inter- and intrapersonal communication

enables the individual to acquire and process information about the self, the environment and the relationship between the self and the environment. This he says results in successful adaptation and growth. Ruesch (1972) was very specific when he wrote that:

> "Successful communication at all levels, characterized by a sense of pleasure in the individual, is the backbone of mental health." (p. 91).

He thus formulated the relationship between communication and mental health very explicitly.

Many communication theorists like Bateson, 1951; Watzlawick, et al, 1967; Haley, 1963; Satir, 1967; Zuk, 1971; Bowen, 1971; Kempler, 1971; and Wynne, 1971 emphasize the role of disturbed communication in behavior pathology. Ruesch, (1972) stated explicitly that pathology could be conceived of as disturbed communication which in turn is a special type of communication that is distorted through "erroneous timing, deviations in intensity, and inappropiacy of messages." (p. 125).

Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) maintained that our society does not supply adequate "human nourishment" (p. 3) to its members. They see this "nourishment" in terms of "core communication dimensions". (These will be discussed at a later stage in this thesis).

Another behavioral scientist, Hamachek (1971), emphasized the role of communication as nourishment and wrote that communication is "an important social vitamin in one's daily

nourishment of an expanding self-awareness". (p. 17). Thus, communication plays a vital role on a psychological level in the development of self awareness and a self concept.

The conclusion that may be reached is that the individual needs to be able to communicate effectively to attain satis= factory adjustment to his physical, psychological and socio-cultural environment. Dance and Larson 1976 ; Eckman, 1976; Exline, 1972; Haley, 1963; Mortensen, 1973; and Steinberg and Miller, 1975, pointed out that the functions of communication take place without any conscious co-opera= tion on the part of the individual. It seems then that this vital function for adaptation is merely accepted by the individual without his realizing its important signifi= cance to his well being. Learning theory tells us that learning takes place far more effectively when the subject matter being learned is under conscious awareness. Add to this Carkhuff and Berenson's (1967) premise that our society does not supply adequate "human nourishment" (p. 3) to its members and one can conclude firstly, that research into com= munication and the techniques that initially make people aware of the salient significance of communication, and secondly, that facilitate the acquisition of more effective abilities in communicating, are of prime importance in so= cial-scientific research. The goal of this thesis is to study a method to provide possible alternate means to this end.

At this stage, one might ask the question as to what exact= ly is meant by effective communication.

Truax and Mitchell (1971) wrote that theoreticians who study the broad field of human relations have for a long time recognized that an accurate and sensitive awareness of another person's feelings, hopes, beliefs, values and perceptions and a sincere concern for the other person's welfare, without attempts to influence him, added to an open, non-defensive genuine manner proves beneficial to any human interaction. These characteristics, to be discussed in more detail elsewhere, are empathy, warmth and genuineness, and are tacit assumptions essential for a therapeutic relationship underlying the theories of Freud, Rank, Adler and phenomenologically oriented theorists. Truax and Mitchell (1971) go on to say that Shoben was the first to propose a systematic theoretical view focusing upon these characteristics. Carl Rogers (1969) provided a specific and organized thesis as to the necessary conditions (empathy, warmth and genuineness) for an effective therapeutic relationship. Client-centered theory is not limited to therapy, but is also applicable to helping relations in any interpersonal area.

Carkhuff and Truax (1965) and Carkhuff (1966, 1967, 1969), have devised a "comprehensive model of facilitative interpersonal processes" based on the core facilitative dimensions of "empathetic understanding, positive regard, genuineness and concreteness or specificity of expression". (Carkhuff, 1969, p. 4). In so doing, they have built on the work accomplished by Rogers and those before him, and provided research with a scientifically operational model.

Since communication and a technique for the learning of more

effective communication abilities is the subject matter of this study, it is necessary firstly, to describe communication theory in more detail, secondly to outline techniques for the improvement of communication abilities, and finally to provide a theoretical model for the study. Thereafter, the problem will be dealt with in detail.

2.2 THE CHRONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATION THEORY

In the previous chapter, the importance of communication for the individual's physical, psychological and socio-cultural adaptation was discussed, the role of communication in adjustment and mental health was also mentioned. In this chapter, a brief historical survey of the developmental trend of communication theory will be presented. An attempt will be made to link the communication theories within the framework of the predominant psychological theories of the time. Communication from a contemporary framework will also be discussed in greater detail.

In brief, psychological theory has moved through the following chronological phases: An individualistic approach; a social-psychological approach; behaviorism; client-centered theory; and finally general systems theory and cybernetics. The main-stream of communication theory appears to have been influenced by the psychological theory of the time and followed the same development. In the following section, these phases will be dealt with in chronological order and their influence on communication theory will be discussed.

Hall and Lindzey (1970) wrote that certain theories placed a heavy emphasis on individualism. These theories pointed out that there are always distinctive and important qualities which set off the behavior of any single individual from the behavior of all other persons. The traditional psychoanalytical approach of Freud and later of Jung, fitted into this framework and emphasis was placed on the intrapsychological functioning of the individual. The relevance of communication was in the understanding of intra-personal functioning.

As mentioned in the introduction, Haley (1963) remarked on the shift that has taken place in psychological theory from and emphasis on intra-personal functioning to an emphasis on interpersonal relationships. Hall and Lindzey (1970) write about the same tendency and attribute it to the twentienth century development of the new social sciences of sociology and anthropology.

They go on to say that Adler, Horney, Fromm and Sullivan were responsible for providing psychoanalytic theory with a twentieth century look. This outlook was the social-psychological approach.

Harry Stack Sullivan (1953) consolidated the position of personality theory in a matrix of social processes in his theory of interpersonal relations. He defined personality as "the relatively enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterize a human life" (p. 111). Sullivan did not deny the importance of heredity and maturation in development, but felt that social interactions

played a far more essential role in personality development. The individual does not and cannot exist without social interaction. Thus, with his emphasis on interaction, Sullivan was one of the first to stress the importance of communication in personality development. He postulated that behavior could be understood in terms of the response patterns acquired in relation to interpersonal situation. Furthermore, interpersonal relations were according to him primarily mediated by verbal and non-verbal communication. Thus he clearly specified the role of communication in interpersonal relations.

At the same time, the behavioristic or stimulus-response (S-R) theory was beginning to take form in America. This school of thought, based on the work of Pavlov, Watson and Thorndike, emphasized objectivity, careful experimentation and functionalism and was based on scientific empiricism. Behaviorism began as researchers attempted to account for the acquisition and retention of new forms of behavior that appeared with experience, and they concluded that the eventual sequence in any form of behavior was the linear causal train of drive-stimulus-response-reinforcement. This was abbreviated to a stimulus-response sequence with the drive and reinforcement aspects implicit in any item of behavior. Hall and Lindzey (1970) state that according to S-R theory, the individual's interactions with his environment are either direct and guided by a single stimulus or stimulus situation or are mediated by internal processes. These processes are mediated by stimulus-producing responses, and that is the role of communication. Dollard and Miller (1970), following Hull, distinguished between

responses which result in an immediate effect on the environment and those which mediate or result in another response. Verbal and non-verbal communication is thus essential in all learning. Other behavior theorists such as Stevens in Cherry (1957), defined communication as the discriminatory response of an organism to a stimulus. This means that A communicates something to B, on which B reacts in X way. Diagrammatically Stevens presents it this way:

$$A \longrightarrow B = X.$$

Thus Stevens, in Cherry (1957), saw communication in the traditional S-R framework as the transmission of stimuli and the evocation of responses. This is in effect a linear-causal train with one stimulus resulting in one response.

Cherry (1957) goes beyond communication as the transmission of stimuli and the evocation of responses, by categorically stating that "communication is essentially the relationship set up by the transmission of stimuli and the evocation of response". (pp. 6-7). Cherry (1966) added to the foregoing by stating that the mere transmission of audible, visual and tactual signs or signals does not constitute communication. He went on to say that the analysis of the word communicate implies sharing (the word is derived from the Latin, communico - to share, to divide). Steinberg and Miller (1975) elaborated on intrapersonal communication as a sharing process in greater detail.

Other communication theorists such as Bateson (1951), Berlo (1960), Ruesch (1951, 1953) and Birdwhistle, in Loeffler

(1978), found the linear "cause-effect" framework inadequate in answering all the questions posed by communication re= search. Bateson (1951) defined psychology as the study of the reaction of individuals to the reaction of other in= dividuals. Thus he saw communication as a reaction and not merely as an action between communicants. He added that

> "We have to consider not only A's reaction to B's behavior, but we must go on to consider how these affect B's later behavior and the effect of this on A." (1951, p. 153).

Thus, in contrast to the linear S-R model mentioned earlier, Bateson's (1951) seminal ideas of reciprocal interaction and circular systems of interaction exerted a great influ= ence on communications thinking. By the 1970's, this trend had received considerable impetus and Birdwhistle, in Loeff= ler (1978), explained his views clearly when he stated that an individual does not merely communicate, he engages in communication. For him, communication as a system is dif= ficult to analyse in a linear model of action and reaction. As a system, it has to be analysed on a transactional level. By this he means that communication per definition takes place between people and is not a one-way process.

At the time when Bateson (1951) was developing his systems oriented ideas on communication, Carl Rogers (1951) was working on his client-centered approach to therapy. This approach revolutionized psychological theory with its em= phasis on the communication techniques empathy, respect

and congruence as the only necessary and essential conditions for successful therapy and effective human relations. At a later stage, Carkhuff and Truax (1965) and Carkhuff (1966, 1967, 1969) devised a "comprehensive model of facilitative interpersonal processes" and provided communication theory with a scientifically operational model for improving communication abilities. Simultaneously, theorists such as Bateson (1951, 1970), Ruesch (1951), and later Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson (1967), Zunin (1976), and Thayer (1967, 1968) were developing the system's approach in more detail. Watzlawick et al (1967) wrote that a single communication transaction was part of a system of feedback loops overlapping in a stimulus-response-reinforcement sequence.

> "A given item of A's behavior is a stimulus insofar as it is followed by an item contributed by B and that by another item contributed by A. But insofar as A's item is sandwiched between the two items contributed by B, it is a response. Similarly, A's item is a reinforcement insofar as it follows an item contributed by B." (Watzlawick et al, 1967, p. 55).

Thus, the theory by this stage included circular models of communication instead of linear models and the concept of feedback in communication started to become significant. In General Systems Theory terminology, which will be discussed in the following chapter, A's output of communication is B's input, and vise-versa. A's output then includes feedback to B as to the nature of their relationship and vice-versa and as Watzlawick et al (1967) pointed out,

the pattern becomes a system of feedback loops overlapping in a stimulus-response-reinforcement sequence. The importance of the foregoing is that communication can be seen from within a circular framework as a system of feedback loops overlapping in a stimulus-response-reinforcement sequence.

At this stage in this study, the development of psychological theory and communications theory has been outlined up to the basics of communication from within the General Systems Theory framework.

Communication as seen from within a cybernetic framework will be elaborated on in greater detail after the General Systems Theory concepts have been discussed in the following chapter. For the purpose of this thesis, cybernetics within the General Systems Theory appears to be the culmination of the contemporary development of scientific and hence of the development of psychological theory. Therefore the concepts of communication as seen from within this framework are of salient importance in research.

2.3 FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM

It now becomes necessary to outline the problem dealt with in this thesis in more detail. A conclusion reached earlier is that the individual needs to be able to communicate effectively to attain satisfactory adjustment to his physical, psychological and socio-cultural environment. Thus communication is an important field of research for the psychologist. As mentioned in the introduction, communication abilities, following Rogers (1957) and Truax and Carkhuff

(1965) can be learned and it is often the task of the psychol= ogist to facilitate this necessary learning and change in his clients. The goal of this thesis then is to do research in= to a specific technique for the improvement of communication abilities. It was decided to concentrate on a specific technique inasmuch as the range of communication techniques used in Counselling and Psychotherapy is virtually unlimited. The reasoning behind this is after Watzlawick et al (1967) who see behavior and communication as synonyms and write that "It is impossible not to communicate" (p. 48). They go on to say that behavior has no opposite, and that all inter= action has a message and is therefore communication. There= fore, *any technique* used in counselling and therapy, or taught to the client, may be included under the rubric of communication. This obviously makes the field of communi= cation research as wide as the scope of human behavior. Bergin and Strupp (1970) as well as Heller (1971) and Kies= ler (1971), recommend that psychological research should move away from gross, complex and relatively non-specific trends to "greater specificity and, concomitantly, greater power in the sense of making therapeutic operations and strategies count therapeutically". (Bergin and Strupp 1970, p. 429). Their interpretation is that the general paradigm of inquiry to attain this greater specificity ap= pears to be the "individual case study and the experimental analogue approach" (p. 432). Heller (1971) adds to this that laboratory analogues are designed to isolate, quantify and experimentally manipulate factors whose direct ob= servation would be obscured by variables, or would be too expensive. After reviewing the productive analogue re= search on modelling and referring specifically to video-

modelling, Heller (1971) comes to the conclusion that "we are beginning to see the emergence of a new therapeutic tool, one that deserves careful attention from clinical researchers to determine the parameters of its utility" (p. 136). Thus, recent developments in psychological research are laboratory analogues using video-techniques. These video-techniques include video-modelling and video-feedback.

Research into video-feedback as a technique, includes among others, the use of structured versus unstructured feedback, Pompe van Meerdervoort (1976); feedback with individuals, Saunders (1977); feedback in groups, Stoller (1968, 1969); feedback to marital couples, Rademeyer (1974); and immediate feedback, Le Roux (1978).

The common-denominator of all the studies using video-feed= back, is that all the individuals, dyads and groups were confronted with video playbacks of <u>their own behavior</u> in the laboratory setting. The general consensus of research findings seems to indicate that this confrontation, instead of resulting in the desired unfreezing and attitude change, appears to be too threatening and results in resistance to change. Feedback forms an integral part of the circular framework and would appear to be the logical technique avail= able for the purpose of improving communication abilities. However, research by Anderson (1978), Campbell (1978); Close (1977), Luttig (1976), Meyers (1978), Newman (1976), Pompe van Meerdervoort (1976), Pound (1977), Price (1978), Pruden (1977), Saunders (1977), Thweatt (1978), Van Zyl (1975), Weiner (1977), Wilkenson (1974), Williams (1978)

and Wise (1978), using the feedback technique to change be=havior, proved unsuccessful. Perhaps the reason for this lies in Stoller's words, in Solomon et al (1970):

> "One of the major technical problems in the field concerns the difficulties of presenting such feed=back as to facilitate its acceptance by the indi=vidual as well as maximizing its potential useful=ness to him". (p. 57).

Other researchers such as Van Zyl (1974), suggested that results may prove more successful if more detailed feedback is given more regularly. Pompe van Meerdervoort (1976), from another vantage point, suggested that different types of feedback may have different effects on different person=ality types. The conclusion that may be reached is that it appears as if feedback of the clients' own behavior and used as a technique to facilitate attitude change, has not proved to be too successful.

Modelling and especially video-modelling as a laboratory analogue technique is the alternate method used in recent research. Theoretically, as will be outlined in the fol=lowing chapter, modelling as a global technique and video-modelling as a specific laboratory analogue technique, is based on sound scientific principles and as such appears to be successful in bringing about behavioral change.

With the foregoing as background, it was decided to concen=trate on video-modelling as the technique used to improve communication abilities. The question arose as to what

effect it would have on the experimental subjects if they were confronted, not with their own inadequate communication abilities, but with those of other models. The rationale behind the necessity for unfreezing (to be discussed in a later section) to take place before learning is possible, was accepted, and it was decided to use other people's inadequate communication abilities as a possible technique to facilitate unfreezing. It was further hypothesized that the use of other models to illustrate poor communication, would not prove threatening to the experimental subjects and would consequently not arouse the resistance mentioned in connection with video-feedback experimentation. Under these circumstances, it was hypothesized, learning would more readily take place. For the purpose of this study then, contrast modelling is the modelling of poor communication techniques in contrast to the modelling of good communication techniques.

It is used in the laboratory analogue situation to illustrate to the experimental subjects how not to communicate in the hope that it will result in the unfreezing necessary for learning to take place. It will furthermore provide each subject with a non-threatening criterium with which they can privately compare their own communication abilities. This will then hopefully result in the realization that perhaps "not all is right in his relationships with others" (Schein and Bennis 1965, p. 273). This is the process of disconfirmation which leads to the attitude change of unfreezing necessary for behavior change to be facilitated.

In the following section, the rationale behind modelling as a technique to facilitate learning, will be discussed.

2.4. MODELLING

According to Sahakian (1970), observational learning or mo= delling (the term introduced by Bandura (1965)) is primari= ly concerned with processes whereby observers organize cer= tain response elements into new patterns of behavior. They do this on the basis of information conveyed to them by mo= delling stimuli.

Bandura and Walters (1963) and Bandura (1965, 1969, 1971) wrote that modelling influences can produce three differen= tiable types of effects in observers. These include the acquisition of new forms of behavior, the strengthening or weakening of existing responses in the person's behavioral repertoires and finally the facilitation of discriminative responses in the same category of socially sanctioned pre= viously learned responses. Observational learning has been an important subject of psychological research for a considerable length of time.

In the previous section, attention was given to the chrono= logical development of psychological theory and the concomit= ant trend of communication theory. It is suggested that the same development has basically taken place in learning theo= ry. Most of the current research in observational learn= ing, according to Sahakian (1970), is being conducted from within the operant conditioning or the social learning frameworks. Both of these approaches make similar assump=

tions about the factors affecting pre-existing matching re= sponses, but they differ on the conditons governing the ac= quisition of response patterns by means of observation learn= ing. Bandura (1969) mentions five theoretical conceptions of observational learning. The earliest theories of Mor= gan, Tarde, and McDougall regarded observational learning as instinctive. The classical conditioning theories of psychologists such as Humphrey, Allport and Holt explained observational learning in terms of associative principles. The advent of reinforcement theory resulted in a shift from classical conditioning to instrumental conditioning as the means whereby any learning takes place. The Social Learn= ing theory of Miller and Dollard (1945), is essentially a drive-cue-response-reward theory, maintaining that observ= ational leaning is contingent upon the reinforcement of imi= tative behavior. In brief, the relationship between the fundamental factors of drive-cue-response and rewards is as follows: A drive impels responses. The latter are elicited by environmental cues. If the first response is not followed by a reward reducing the drive, it is replaced by another response. The extinction of non-rewarding re= sponses produces random behavior. If one response is fol= lowed by a reward and thus the drive is reduced, the con= nection between the cue and the particular response is strengthened so that the next time that the same drive and other cues are present, this response is more likely to occur. This strengthening of the cue - response connection by means of reinforcement is the basis of all learning in= cluding observational learning. Bandura (1969) wrote that according to this theoretical conception, the necessary conditions for learning through modelling "include a moti=

vated subject who is positively reinforced for matching the correct responses of a model during a series of initially random, trial-and-error responses" (p. 122). He adds to this the criticism that the S-R paradigm requires the subject to perform the imitative response before he can learn it. Therefore it accounts more adequately for the performance of previously learned matching responses than for their acquisition. Furthermore, people are selective in what they learn and observational learning entails more than S-R patterns. Modelling often takes place without reinforcement and the first appearance of the acquired response may be delayed. Thus a temporal factor is also introduced into the problem. From the foregoing it can be concluded that a pure learning theory S-R framework does not provide an adequate model to account for the organized complexities of observational learning. Human learning entails more than the deterministic S-R sequence patterns as there are numerous interactive variables in the learning process. In an attempt to find answers to these problems, researchers such as Mowrer (1970, 1972) and Bandura (1963, 1965, 1969) suggested alternative theoretical conceptions of observational learning. Mowrer's (1960) affective feedback theory of observational learning in Sahakian (1970) takes reinforcement into account, but places additional emphasis on the classical conditioning of positive and negative emotions. He distinguishes between direct and vicarious 'empathetic' reinforcement in imitation.

The final theoretical conception of observational learning is Bandura's 'Contiguity-mediational' theory. According to Sahakian (1970) the modelling theory developed by Bandura

emphasizes the important roles played by vicarious, symbolic and self-regulatory processes in psychological functioning. Bandura drew attention to the fact that virtually all learning resulting from direct experiences can also occur on a vicarious basis (through observation) seeing that it could be cognitively mediated in terms of the consequences for the observer. In contrast to the associative learning theories mentioned earlier, Sahakian (1970) says that Bandura's re= search shows that cognitive processes mediate learning pro= duced through both classical and instrumental conditioning. By means of this cognitive mediation, people regulate their own behavior, to a certain extent, by visualizing the con= sequences of the behavior they initiate. The learning ac= companying observation can thus be explained in terms of self-control processes rather than direct S-R causal trains.

According to Bandura (1969), modelling phenomena involve four interrelated subprocesses which determine whether and how modelling will take place. These processes specify the necessary conditions that are prerequisites for effective modelling to take place and are thus important for research. These processes outlined by Bandura (1969, 1970), are at= tentional processes, retention processes, motoric repro= duction processes and reinforcement and motivational pro= cesses.

(a) Attentional Processes

Before any modelling can take place the observer must at a sensory level, attend to, recognize or differentiate the distinctive features of the model's responses. Discrimin=

ative observation is therefore essential. Numerous atten= tion-controlling variables will determine which modelling stimuli will be observed and which will be ignored. These variables include incentive conditions and observer and mo= delling cue characteristics.

Research has high-lighted a number of these variables, for example the status of the model Bandura and Walters, (1963). Sex of the model, Flanders, (1968); Role expectations, Feist and Rosenthal, (1973); Motivation of the observer, Bandura and Rosenthal, (1966); Complexity of the stimuli, Hersen, Eisler and Miller (1976); Modelling combined with reinforcement, Krumboltz and Thoresen (1976) and Modelling with groups, Krumboltz and Thoresen (1976).

(b) Retention Processes

To reproduce modelled behavior at a later stage without the presence of the stimulus cues, necessitates a retention pro= cess whereby the person retains the original observation cues in some symbolic form. Besides rehearsal operations, observational learning involves imaginal and verbal repre= sentational systems. Modelling stimuli that have been coded into images or words in the memory system, function as guidelines for future behavior. Sahakian (1970) refers to research done by Bandura et al (1966) and Gerst (1969) indicating that symbolic coding takes place by means of imagery and words and that precise labeling resulted in more successful modelling than imagery and verbalization and that all three methods were significantly more successful than passive observation. Thus it appears that 'cognitive

mediation' as postulated by Bandura, is an integral part of successful modelling and it is more complex than merely the reinforcement of stimuli resulting from passive observation.

Bandura (1969) wrote that factors influencing retention include the "rate, temporal distribution, and serial organization of stimulus inputs" (p. 141). In one study Bandura et al (1966), it was found that modelling cues presented in smaller units and at spaced intervals to children, were remembered better than one complex patterned modelling cue.

(c) Motoric Reproduction Processes

This entails the use of the symbolic representations mentioned in the previous section to monitor the practicing of behavior being modelled. In guided learning experiences the person follows an externally depicted pattern or instructions. In delayed modelling behavioral reproduction is monitored by symbolic representations of absent stimuli. In highly co-ordinated motor skills, the person cannot observe many of the responses he is making and must rely on proprioceptive feedback cues. Therefore highly co-ordinated motor skills require the guidance of a model and varying amounts of overt practice.

(d) Motivational and Reinforcement Processes

A person may have gone through all the aforementioned processes, but learning need not necessarily take place if negative sanctions or unfavorable incentive conditions prevail. If positive incentives are introduced, learning

takes place. Incentive variables influence the attention, retention and motoric reproduction processes.

Bandura (1970) wrote that behavior is learned by directly experienced consequences of external stimuli, by vicarious reinforcement and by self-reinforcement. Sahakian (1970) on modelling theory, wrote that people regulate their own actions to a certain extent by self-generated and self-evaluative consequences. He went on to say that at this higher level of psychological functioning, people set themselves certain performance standards and they respond to their own behavior in self-rewarding or self-punishing ways, depending on whether their performance falls short of, matches, or exceeds their self-imposed demands.

After a comprehensive survey of research into animal as well as human learning, Bandura (1969) wrote that "the rate and level of observational learning will be governed by the extent to which subjects possess the requisite *sensory capacities* for accurate receptivity of modelling stimuli, the *motor capacities* necessary for precise behavioral reproduction, and the *capacity for representational mediation and covert rehearsal*, ..." (p. 147, 148). These then are the basic necessary conditions for observational learning. Modelling stimuli can be presented behaviorally, pictorially or verbally. Bandura (1969, 1970) wrote that a number of different treatment procedures in counselling and therapy have been derived from social-learning principles. Modeling can be used to achieve diverse psychological changes. He goes on to say that the overall findings indicate that

an effective form of treatment is one in which the therapists themselves model the desired behavior and arrange optimal conditions for clients to engage in similar activities, until they can perform the behavior skillfully themselves. This can be done behaviorally or, as in this study, by means of video-tape modelling. Bandura (1970), referring to research done by Stilwell, Thoresen, Hosford, Krumboltz, and Thoresen and Krumboltz, states that videotape modelling could increase the effectiveness of modelling by rendering it less vulnerable to a variety of extraneous variables. Since modelling combined with performance is generally superior to modelling alone (more of the sub-processes become involved), he suggests that after each demonstration sequence, subjects should practice the modelling behavior. In any research, it is essential that sufficient attention should be given to the four sub-processes. Finally, Bandura (1970) lists three major components which appear to be more effective than others in implementing the four modelling principles. Firstly, desired behavior should be repeatedly modelled, preferably by multiple models who demonstrate increasingly difficult behavior. Secondly, observers should be given sufficient opportunities to practice the behavior under favorable circumstances and under the guidance of the model. Thirdly, the arrangement of reinforcement contingencies is important.

A survey of recent literature on research using modelling as a technique, shows that the following studies obtained positive results: Bailey, Deardorff and Nay (1977), Dalton, Sunblad and Hylbert (1973), Doster McAllister (1973), Eisler Hersen and Miller (1973), Frankel (1971), Kazdin (1975),

Le Roux (1978), O'Conner (1972), Payne, Weiss and Kapp (1972), Perry (1975), Rachman (1972), Saunders (1977), Stone and Jackson (1975), Stone and Vance (1976), Theron (1976), Walter (1976) and Weiner (1976).

Inasmuch as videotape modelling is the method used in this study in an attempt to improve communication abilities, reference will be made to other similar studies using the same technique. The first researchers to be mentioned who used videotape modelling to improve communication abilities, are Bailey, Deardorff and Nay (1977) who showed that videotape modelling produced the most significant change in *a therapist training programme*. The other variables were feedback and roleplaying.

Another researcher, O'Connor (1972), showed that videotape modelling was more effective than shaping in modifying *social withdrawal* in nursery school children.

The following researches also obtained positive results using videomodelling: Frankel (1971), Dalton Sundblad and Hylbert (1973), Payne, Weiss and Kapp (1972), Perry (1975), Stone and Vance (1976), Uhlemann, Lea and Stone (1976), Weiner (1976), Le Roux (1978, Saunders (1977).

It appears then that the theoretical rationale of modelling has, to a certain extent, been confirmed by numerous researchers. In the following chapter the heuristic significance of General Systems Theory as a framework for both communication, modelling and learning will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3

3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Many researchers, for instance Von Bertalanffy (1956, 1968, 1975), Rademeyer (1974), and Kramer and De Smit (1977), have stressed the importance of the utilization of a sound theoretical model in research. As mentioned in the previous chapter, videomodelling is the technique used in this study to attempt to improve communication abilities. As Rademeyer (1974) pointed out, research involving the value of the videotape technique, would of necessity have to be based on a sound theoretical framework. Kramer and De Smit (1977) quoted Apostel's ideas concerning the function of frameworks. Apostel felt that frameworks were essential to the production of new scientific results, or the verification of existing results, or to demonstrate relationships between results, thus, it appears that the use of a model is essential in research inasmuch as it provides the theoretical framework and foundation for the interpretation of the study.

Before enlarging on the problem of this thesis, it is necessary to outline a possible model that is heuristic enough to include concepts in terms of

(a) The significance of communication
(b) The relationship aspect of communication
(c) Techniques facilitating the acquisition of interpersonal competence in communication, seeing that

these are the focal topics of this study.

As the system's model is the model used for this thesis, it is necessary to outline the reasons as to why this model provides a more heuristic framework than other possible alternatives.

Kramer and De Smit (1977) say that models are often subdiv=ided into linear and non-linear models. General Systems Theory is a non-linear model and is supposed to improve on the inadequacies of the linear models. In the following section attention is paid to some of the scientific argu=ments dealing with the inadequacies of linear models in social research.

Linear models, according to Von Bertalanffy (1969), formed part of the mechanistic approach of classical science. This approach concentrated on bivariate linear causal train pro=blems. That is problems of one cause and one effect. In addition to this, Kramer and De Smit (1977) state that lin=ear systems are characterized by 'homogeneity and additivity'. Homogeneity means that change in input by an amount of factor k, results in change in output by an amount of fact=or k. A system is additive if the output for two inputs is equal to the sum of the outputs of the individual inputs. Kramer and De Smit (1977) go on to state that a system is not linear if it does not satisfy both conditions of homo=geneity and additivity. Furthermore, for systems with a memory, this may cause difficulties inasmuch as the <u>state</u> of the system then plays a role. Thus it appears that problems of 'organized complexity', which characterize most

of the problems studied by the social scientist, are not easily solved when viewed from within a linear framework. The reason for this, if one follows Von Bertalanffy's (1956) and Kramer and De Smit's (1977) line of thought, is firstly that human behaviour is far more complex and organized than merely a linear cause and effect phenomenon. Secondly, if one takes Kramer and De Smit's (1977) criteria for linear systems into account, it becomes obvious that human behaviour does not meet the criteria of homogeneity and additivity, and therefore can not be categorized within the linear framework. Furthermore, human behaviour is amongst those characterized as having a memory and thus the state variable plays a role. Consequently behaviour cannot be a result of one cause and neither will one cause have merely one result. This obviously implies complexity beyond the reach of the linear framework for the solution of problems. To handle this complexity, Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1956) proposed the development of General Systems Theory.

3.2 GENERAL SYSTEMS THEORY

Von Bertalanffy's far-sightedness went beyond providing solutions to isolated problems of organized complexity. He wrote that:

> "1. There is a general tendency toward integration in the various sciences, natural and social.
> 2. Such integration seems to be centered in a general theory of systems.
> 3. Such theory may be an important means for aiming at exact theory in the non-physical fields of science.
> 4. Developing unifying principles running vertically

through the universe of the individual sciences, this theory brings us near to the goal of the unity of science.

5. This can lead to a much needed integration of scientific education." (1956, p.5).

Twenty years later, Kramer and De Smit (1977) summarized the functions of systems thinking as providing a multidisciplinary means of communication and a heuristic approach inherent in the methodology. Thus, it seems as if Von Bertalanffy's (1956) original objectives were realistic and have to a large extent been attained.

In conclusion, it can be said that the system's approach advocated by Von Bertalanffy (1956) and summarized by Kramer and De Smit (1977) is a non-linear methodology based on the following premises:

1. In order to cope with the fact of organized complexity phenomena in general can be viewed as systems of interacting elements;
2. Reality is regarded in terms of wholes, and the essence of General Systems Theory is that the whole is more than the sum of its parts;
3. The system's environment is regarded as essential; systems in interaction with the environment as open systems; and systems not in interaction with the environments, as closed systems.

Kenneth Boulding in 1956 quoted by Rubin and Kim (1975) was one of the first to expand on the first premise mentioned above and provide a theoretical heirarchy of systems.

He refers to General Systems Theory as 'the skeleton of science' and sees the quest of General System Theory as providing a systematic theoretical construct to discuss the general relationships of the empirical world. He outlines two possible approaches for structuring General Systems Theory. The first is observation of the empirical world from which several general phenomena found in various disciplines can be isolated. These general phenomena can be used to construct general theoretical models relevant to them. The second approach is the method used by Boulding and outlined as follows:

He classifies the empirical fields of systems in a complex heirarchy and suggests a level of abstraction appropriate to each. This method leads to a 'system of systems'. Boulding classified nine such levels:

1. The most basic level is the static structure. It could be termed the level of frameworks. An example would be the geography and anatomy of the universe.
2. The second level is the simple dynamics system incorporating necessary predetermined motions. This could be termed the level of clockworks.
3. The next level would be a cybernetic system characterized by automatic feedback control mechanisms. This could be thought of as the level of the thermostat.
4. The fourth level is called the 'open system'. It is a self maintaining structure and is the level where life begins to differentiate from non-life. This is the level of the cell, capable of information-transmission.

5. The fifth level can be termed the genetic-societal level. It is typified by the plant and preoccupies the empirical world of the botanist. Certain cells have different functions from other cells, but there is still the quality of 'equifinal growth' on 'blueprinted growth'.
6. The next is the animal system level which is characterized by increased mobility, teleological behaviour, and self-awareness.
7. The seventh level is the human level. The major difference between this level and the sixth level is man's possession of self-consciousness and capacity to think abstractly.
8. The next level is that of social organizations. The important unit in this level is not the individual, but the organizational role that the individual assumes.
9. The ninth and final level is that of transcendental systems. This allows for ultimates, absolutes and the 'inescapable unknowables', which also exhibit relationship and systematic structure.

At present, varying degrees of knowledge exist at each of these levels. In each succeeding level, there is more and more incompleteness. An advantage of this classification according to Boulding, is that it gives an idea of the gaps existing in scientific knowledge. General Systems Theory can be of assistance in research into these gaps.

As an initial step, the researcher generally uses models of a lower level to study phenomena classified in a higher

level. According to Kramer and De Smit (1977), adequate models are found from the first, second third and at most at the fourth level. They say that adequate descriptive models for practically all of the different sciences are found at the first level. As an example they cite the use of an organization chart in administrative sciences and explain that this is using a first-level model in order to obtain insight into an eighth-level system. Boulding's (1956) classification gives a perspective to the risk involved in utilizing a first level model to obtain insights into an eighth-level system, and Kramer and De Smit (1977) emphasize the fact that in so doing, a number of relevant aspects are omitted from the observation. They stress the fact that the researcher must always bear the above in mind and be aware of the risks involved in oversimplification in the analysis of the phenomena.

As mentioned in a previous section, General Systems Theory provides the theoretical framework of this thesis. Bearing in mind Von Bertalanffy's (1956) premises underlying the theory, and also Boulding's (1956) 'system of systems', the following step is to describe the basic concepts and terminology of system's theory.

3.2.1. Systems

Miller (1969) wrote that

> "Systems are bounded regions in space and time, involving energy-interchange among their parts which are functionally related". (p. 44).

Hall and Fagen (1975) define a system as a set of objects together with relationships between the objects and their attributes (p. 52). From these definitions we see that a system consists of sub-systems - that is a set of elements or objects - which, because of their inter-relation, are characterized by organization, interaction and interdepen= dency. Watzlawick et al (1967) and Von Bertalanffy (1968) stress that because of this interdependency of parts, a change in one element will effect the system as a whole. Conversely, Kramer and De Smit (1977) state that a rela= tionship exists if a change in a property of one entity results in a change in a property of another entity.

Thus, the concepts of system and relation are to all intents and purposes impossible to conceive of in isolation. From the foregoing it can be concluded that system implies rela= tion, and a relation can only take place in a system. Furthermore, following Boulding (1956), the whole of reali= ty can be seen as consisting of conglomerates and heirarchies of systems in interaction.

From the foregoing, and following Von Bertalanffy's (1956) third premise, namely that the system's environment is re= garded as essential, it can be seen that systems cannot exist in isolation and always exist in a supra system, that is in environment. Hall and Fagen (1977) state that this environment includes a system's total environment and a system's relevant environment. Everything not belonging to the system is included in the system's total environ= ment. A system's relevant environment consists of:

> "The set of all objects a change in whose attributes affect the system and also those objects whose attributes are changed by the behavior of the system." (Hall and Fagen, 1977, p. 56).

The system boundary differentiates the system from its environment and is arbitrarily determined by the observer. Depending on the system under observation, objects that are parts of one system or subsystem can be considered parts of the environment of another system or subsystem. Systems may be studied at the microscopic or macroscopic levels, depending on the observer's interest, training and specialization.

As an example of the former, a biologist studying a cell does so at a microscopic level, a social scientist investigating the economics of the arms race does so at a macroscopic level. The crux of the matter is that they are both investigating systems in interaction with their environments.

3.2.2. Open and Closed Systems

Within the General Systems Theory framework, systems are classified as being open or closed. This differentiation is primarily based on the system's interaction with its environment. In addition, there are however other concepts which clarify the basic differentiation further. These concepts include the principle of equifinality and the second law of thermodynamics or the principle of entrophy. The following section will deal with the basic classification and the additional concepts.

Von Bertalanffy (1956), as well as Hall and Fagen (1956), Watzlawick et al (1967), Chin (1969) and De Greene (1972), write that open systems have permeable boundaries and ex= change energy, materials and information in the form of inputs and outputs with their environments. Closed sys= tems are the opposite and are considered to be isolated from the environment. Add to this Chin's (1969) concept that because of the basic assumption of relation and inter= action in systems thinking, closed systems cannot be found in reality. The concept however enables the observer to analyse the system as if it were temporarily closed, not influenced by the environment and not changing at the time of analysis. The observer, as it were, opens the system to an environmental influence, allows it to close and in so doing is able to observe the dynamics of the system. The conclusion that may be reached from the forementioned is that only open systems are found in reality. Systems may be relatively closed but not categorically closed, as some form of interaction with the environment must take place before one can theorize in terms of systems. Accord= ing to Chin (1969), systems may be temporarily closed for the purpose of investigation.

The principle of equifinality (that is equal end) intro= duced by Von Bertalanffy (1956), means that the same time-independent state may be reached from different initial conditions and via different ways. This is because, according to systems thinking, it is not the initial con= ditions which determine the system's outcome, but the in= teraction (in the form of the nature of the organization) found in the system. Von Bertalanffy (1956), followed by

Watzlawick et al (1967) and Rademeyer (1978), state that open systems by nature have variable end states independent of initial conditions and tending to equifinality within system parameters. They also state that the end-state of closed systems is always fixed because they do not interact with their environment. Therefore their end-state can only be determined by initial conditions.

The second Law of Thermodynamics and the concept of entrophy also differentiates an open system from a closed system. According to Katz and Kahn (1966) and Litterer (1969), this law states that a system moves towards equilibrium, and in doing so, tends to run down. Von Bertalanffy (1968) wrote that closed systems are characterized by maximum entrophy and minimum free energy, and that closed systems would become increasingly entrophic with time. Katz and Kahn (1966) and Buckley (1967, 1968, 1970) added that open systems tend to decrease in entrophy and to elaborate their structure, and that by doing so, they are negentrophic. This is because of the open system's interaction with its environment. James Miller (1965) explained the relationship between entrophy and negentrophy in open systems clearly by saying that open systems maintain a steady state of negentrophy even though entrophic changes occur in them as they do everywhere else. This they do by taking in inputs of matter and energy higher in complexity of organization, or in negentrophy, that is lower in entrophy than their outputs. Thus they are able to restore their own energy.

Katz and Kahn (1966) wrote that energy interchange in the

form of information interchange takes place in an open system. This interchange can be used as a measure of order in the sys= tem. Entrophy as the process of running down is the opposite of order and thus of information interchange. De Greene (1972) adds to this that entrophy can be considered a measure of probability of randomness and disorder.

According to Katz and Kahn (1966), a closed system, while it is becoming increasingly entrophic and before it runs down, reaches a state of equilibrium. They describe this state of equilibrium as being reached when the system attains the most probable distribution of its elements. Furthermore, James Miller (1965) said that equilibrium is attained by a closed system but only approximated by an open system. He goes on to say that the state of equilibrium of the closed system is different from the steady state of negentrophy of the open system. Equilibrium can thus be understood as a state of balance attained by closed systems and steady state the state of balance attained by open systems. Kramer and De Smit (1977) also use the term equilibrium with reference to a closed system and see equilibrium as the equivalent of a steady state, but use the term steady state when referring to open systems. This would then mean that the system would have an input and an output, but the value of the correspond= ing state would not change.

Katz and Kahn (1966) write that the tendency towards a steady state is, in its simplest form, homeostatic, as in the main= tenance of body temperature. The underlying principle is the preservation of the character of the system.

Open systems exhibit growth as they maximize their basic character. Depending on the latter, open systems may be characterized by progressive steady states and non-progressive steady states (Rademeyer, 1978). In progressive steady state systems, the system reacts to inputs by attaining a steady state which differs from the initial steady state in a positive way, non-progressive steady state systems are characterized by sameness and resistance to change. This further elaboration of the basic structure characterizing progressive steady states is termed morphogenesis by some theorists (Maruyama, 1960, 1968 and Buckley, 1967) and refers to those processes which tend to elaborate or change a system's given form, structure or state. According to Maruyama (1960), the prefix 'morpho' in the terms morphogenesis and morphostasis, refers to the structure of the system. He defines morphogenesis as "the process of generating, or increasing the structuredness of a structure" and morphostasis as "the process of maintaining the structuredness of a structure" (Maruyama, 1960, p. 255).

From the foregoing it can be concluded firstly that social systems, because of their inability to exist in isolation, are characterized by interaction with their environments and are thus always open systems and secondly, that the maintenance of a steady state in open morphogenetic living systems must rely on the flow of information on an Intra- or Inter-system level. This is accomplished by feedback mechanisms.

3.2.3 Feedback

Kim (1972), after Von Bertalanffy, defined feedback as:

> "A portion of a system's output which is fed back or recycled to the system as input, thereby affecting the functioning of the system such that it is able to regulate itself and reach a preset or adaptive goal" (p, 131).

Implicit in this definition is self-regulation and goal directed behavior. The cyclical nature of feedback is explicit. Basically, feedback can either be positive or negative. Negative feedback operates to counteract differences (deviation counteracting) in the steady state of the system and thus plays a role in maintaining the stability of the system. Positive feedback operates to amplify differences (deviation amplifying) in the steady state of the system and thus leads to change or to the loss of stability or equilibrium (Watzlawick et al, (1967); Hoffman (1971); Rademeyer (1978); Beishon J. and Peters Y. (1972); Klin, G. (1972) following Maruyama (1960) defined positive feedback in terms of 'deviation amplifying multilateral mutual causal processes' and as mentioned previously, referred to this phenomenon as morphogenesis.

They defined negative feedback in terms of 'deviation counteracting multilateral mutual causal processes' and saw this phenomenon as morphostasis.

Feedback, for the purpose of this study, can thus be understood as a phenomenon whereby two or more open systems interact with one another. In other words, one system's output is another system's input and visa versa. Following Maruyama (1960), the model becomes one of multilateral <u>mutual</u> causality.

This, however, is not the whole picture. as it is difficult to predict or control the type of feedback, and to determine whether the outcome of the feedback will maintain, change or destroy the system (Buckley, 1968). To complicate matters further, it is possible that positive and negative feedback counterbalance one another in a given system. Maruyama (1968) maintains that in such an incidence, the 'strength' of the amplifying or counteracting feedback will determine the system's response. Hoffman (1971), quoting Bateson, wrote that the 'timing' of the feedback and the state of the sys= tem itself determines the outcome. Furthermore, if one bears Boulding's heirarchical framework of systems in mind, Hoffman's statements become significant namely that:

> "Feedback in living systems must always be viewed in terms of *several levels of system at once"* (1971, p. 293),
>
> and
>
> "An important source of destructive interaction can be a discrepancy between the goals of two systems on different levels". (1971, p. 293).

It appears thus that feedback occurs in a system and between the system and other systems within its relevant environment and unless the goals of the individual system and the other systems are compatible, it is difficult for successful in= teraction to take place.

But, according to the literature, the feedback phenomenon is far from theoretically clear. Kim (1975) attempts to clari= fy this state of affairs by providing a reconceptualization of the feedback concept. He maintains that deviation or difference implies two points of reference and depending on

one's vantage point, one may reach different conclusions as to whether feedback is positive or negative. After analy= zing criteria for deviation used by scientists, he concludes that there are at least three criteria for deviation implicit in the literature, summarized as follows:

> "1) Deviation Criterion I - deviation between the values of the 'goal' and of the 'output',
>
> 2) Deviation Criterion II - Deviation between the values of the 'initial kick' and of the 'final output', and
>
> 3) Deviation Criterion III - Deviation between the values of the 'output' of one subsystem and of the 'output' of another". (Kim, 1975, p. 211).

Kim (1975) identifies a 'Deviation Criterion IV' in which the two points of reference are "degrees of negentrophy" and in which the deviation between the output levels becomes greater.

"That is, the system generates enough structure to compensate the increasing entrophy, *and* to increase the level of structure". (Kim, 1975, p. 215).

The implications of Kim's theory are that there are three, not two different types of feedback processes, namely mor= phostasis - structure maintaining; downward morphogenesis - structure decreasing; and upward morphogenesis - structure-increasing processes.

Using two nations in an arms race struggle as an example, he outlines the following possible outcomes of their interaction:

They may build up or reduce the arms level, but the balance of power could be maintained at a constant level (morphosta= sis). Alternatively, they could build up or reduce the arms level, and the gap between the power level could decrease (downward morphogenesis). Finally, they could build up or reduce arms levels, and the gap between the power levels could increase (upward morphogenesis).

Thus, Kim's (1975) reconceptualization of the feedback pheno= menon takes into account the steady state ('level of structure') of a system and the level of negentrophy. An increase in the level of structure of a system does not imply an increase in size, but an increase in the level of negentrophy. Thus, to use the previous examples, morphostasis implies that the system would maintain the steady state of negentrophy. Down= ward morphogenesis indicates that the system would move from a high negentrophic to a low negentrophic state and upward morphogenesis means that the system would move from a low negentrophic state to a high negentrophic state.

Kim's (1975) framework, based on the different deviation cri= teria and taking the type of steady state of a system and le= vel of negentrophy into account, provides a theoretical frame= work to answer questions posed by previous research. For in= stance, Buckley's (1968) questions as to the difficulties en= countered in the prediction and control of the type of feed= back, and Maruyama's (1968) questions with regard to the counterbalancing effect of both types of feedback in a given system, could be answered from within this framework. The reason for this is that Kim's work provides a more analytical

framework with regard to deviation criteria, steady states and levels of negentrophy and makes allowances for deviation amplifying and deviation counteracting mutual causal processes within the same system.

Finally, it should be mentioned that the feedback concept, although it is not theoretically clarified, is one of the cornerstones of systems thinking and as such forms an integral part of a great deal of research.

3.2.4. Coding

All open systems maintain their interaction with their environments in the form of input and output by means of energy exchange. The higher the position of the system on Boulding's (1956) heirarchy, the more complex the interaction and thus the more complex the energy exchange. Associations are made between inputs to enable the system to cope with the quantities of energy and this process of association is termed coding and is used as part of the systems output. This coding entails using signs, symbols and abstractions to represent events, objects or processes, and is essentially a process of information transfer between the system and its environment. Inasmuch as feedback is a portion of a system's output which is fed back as input, feedback involves a certain amount of information exchange between the system and its environment (Rademeyer, 1978).

According to Boulding's (1956) heirarchy, the transmission and interpretation of information plays an essential role in systems above the third level - that of control

mechanisms or cybernetic systems. The theory of control mechanisms by means of information exchange is called cybernetics.

The following section will deal with the relationship between cybernetics and General Systems Theory, which will bring us closer to a possible solution to our problem.

3.2.5 Cybernetics

Norman Wiener (1948) initiated the theoretical development of this new discipline and defined cybernetics as the science of control and communication in the animal and the machine. Furthermore, he said that cybernetics was not a science that studied systems, but a science that studied the behavior of systems.

Von Bertalanffy (1968) saw cybernetics as forming a part of General Systems Theory inasmuch as the concept of control is based on the concepts of information and feedback. Cybernetic systems are, however, a special category of systems - showing 'self-regulation'.

The interaction of a living system and its environment is based on the concepts of energy exchange in the form of information and feedback. The system is able to monitor its behavior by means of self-regulatory cybernetic cycles, that enable it to maintain a certain steady state. This cybernetic cycle between information-input and energy-output constitutes the system's control system.

Rademeyer (1978) formulated a theoretical step by step resumé of the stages involved in a cybernetic self-regulatory cycle. The stages are as follows:

1. The steady state of a system is disturbed as a result of environmental stimuli;
2. The system reacts with goal-directed (strategic) behav= ior to restore the steady state;
3. The nature of the strategic behavior is determined by the feedback received (in the form of information) as to the goal approximation attained in relationship to the goal aimed for.

This feedback is either positive or negative depending on whether it amplifies or counteracts the deviation from the desired goal.

Rademeyer (1978) stresses the fact that in a self-regulato= ry cybernetic system, the system's potential for strategic goal directed behavior determines the outcome, not the feed= back as such:

> "It is not the feedback which is either negative or positive, but the cybernetic cycle as a unit." (Rademeyer, 1978, p. 11).

The critical issue in the cybernetic cycle as applied to human learning, is the principle of self-control in the absence of any current external reinforcement contingencies and the principle of the delaying of the gratification of immediate reinforcers in anticipation of later ones. Kanfer

and Phillips (1970), elaborating on the cybernetic self-control cycle, conclude that knowledge-of-results and internal criteria such as self-control in terms of desired goals determine the learning process. This would clarify the relationship between self-monitoring, performance criteria and self-reinforcement. Thus the concept of clear goal setting within the cybernetic self-control cycle is important. In this respect Kolb and Boyatzis' (1970) study is significant. Their experiment showed that conscious goalsetting plus constant self-monitoring play an important role in the process of self-directed behavior change.

3.3 SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEM

In an earlier section, the chronological development of Psychological and communications theory was discussed. It was suggested that the General Systems Theory approach represented a culmination of contemporary trends in psychological and communications thinking. The circular cybernetic loop as an alternative to linear causal trains of thought was outlined and the heuristic potential of General Systems Theory as a multidisciplinary model was discussed. In this section, the development of communication theory from within a general systems framework will be further elaborated. Churchman (1968) differentiates between the functional analysis and the descriptive analysis of communication. He contends that a functional analysis is essential to the development of a systems orientation in communication study. To clarify the difference, Churchman uses the automobile as an example. A descriptive analysis of a car begins by outlining the parts, a functional analysis considers what

the whole car is used for. Ruben (1975) wrote that a great deal of attention has been devoted to models explaining how communication works. Like the definition of the car in terms of its parts and how they work together, communica= tion has been studied by focussing upon source, message, channel, and receiver and the interactions between them, Lasswell, Shannon and Weaver and Schramm in Thayer (1968). Even though Ruesch (1957) wrote that "communication is that function which is basic to all social behavior" (p. 125), and the term function implies process, early theorists con= centrated on a descriptive analysis of communication and did not focus on the functional or process analysis of com= munication in human adjustment, as did psychologists such as Rogers (1961), Bateson (1951), Watzlawick et al (1967), Thayer (1968), Buckley (1968) and Haley (1963).

As mentioned in an earlier section, Watzlawick et al (1967) wrote of an item of communication as part of a system of feedback loops overlapping in a stimulus-response-reinforce= ment sequence. Thus, their descriptive analysis includes circular patterns and feedback but their emphasis lies on the functional nature of communication. In this respect they say that communication not only conveys information, but at the same time and this is important, it imposes be= havior. Ruesch and Bateson (1951) defined these two cha= racteristics of communication as the report and the command aspects respectively. According to Watzlawick et al (1967) the differences between these two processes is as follows:

> "The report aspect of a message conveys information and is therefore, synonymous in human communication

> with the *content* of the message.....The com= mand aspect on the other hand, refers to what sort of message it is to be taken as, and, therefore, ul= timately to the *relationship* between the communi= cants" (p. 51, 52).

In any interaction the command aspect always classifies the report aspect and is thus communication about communication or metacommunication. Watzlawick et al (1967) say that re= lationships are rarely defined deliberately or with full awareness but,

> "it seems that the more spontaneous and 'healthy' a relationship, the more the relationship aspect of communication recedes into the background. Con= versely, 'sick' relationships are characterized by a constant struggle about the nature of a relation= ship, with the content aspect of communication be= coming less and less important". (p. 52).

Thus, it can be expected that any relationships character= ized by communication problems will in fact be character= ized by problems connected with the definition of the re= lationship and attempts on the part of the communicants to control the nature of the definition of the relation= ship. These factors then are the crux of the functional nature of communication. A functional approach to human communication necessitates the use of a heuristic multidis= ciplinary model and General Systems Theory seems to meet the criteria for such a model.

According to General Systems Theory, the whole of human enterprise is seen as a complex network of functionally in=

terrelated individual living open systems interacting in multi-individual open systems. According to Miller (1968), information processing is one of the two basic processes of living systems. The other is energy exchange in the form of input, throughput and output. This information ex= change and subsequent coding is communication. Building on this notion Thayer (1968) wrote that communication can be seen as one of the two basic processes of all living systems. One is the transformation of food into energy and the other is the transformation of "event data" (p. 17) into information. Thayer (1968) goes on to say that all living systems including people, 'exist only in and through' these two basic processes. In this light, Ruben (1975) writes that 'communication can be regarded as essential' to the birth, growth, development, change, survival or death of 'all that is human'. Thus, by means of intrapersonal, interpersonal and mass communication, the individual, as a system with varying degrees of openness, maintains a pro= gressive, or non-progressive steady state in a relevant en= vironment. The dynamic interaction of the individual and the environment depends on information exchange by means of cybernetic self-control and deviation amplifying or devia= tion counteracting feedback. The goal of the system is to maintain or regain the steady state. The individual steps of goal, strategy and feedback in the cybernetic cycle are the intrinsic phases involved in <u>any</u> information ex= change (communication) of a system with its environment and, according to Rademeyer (1978), "interpersonal dynamics is a matter of interlocking cybernetic cycles or control systems" (p. 50). Thus, implicit in information exchange

or communication, is external control by means of interlock= ing cybernetic control systems and internal control by means of cybernetic self-control for the purpose of maintaining or regaining the system's progressive or non-progressive steady state. This is the essence of the functional nature of com= munication as seen from within the General Systems Theory framework. The underlying crux of the matter is that this interlocking takes place at the input level with each system having its own cybernetic self-control cycle within the en= vironment of the interaction system. If the relationship is spontaneous and 'healthy', the interaction can focus on the content of the message. Conversely, if the relation= ship is undefined or, at the extreme, 'sick', the focus of the interaction is on the definition of the relationship with the content of the message receding into the background un= til the relationship becomes defined. Thus, before intern= al cybernetic self-control can be activated, the external control of the nature of the relationship must be clarified. Successful communication in synopsis then, depends on three factors: one, the environment must be psychologically com= fortable for both systems. This is the <u>essential pre-requisite</u> for two: the definition of the type of rela= tionship that both systems will allow to take place and three: the goals of both systems must be compatible. The implications of the foregoing for the purpose of this thesis are as follows: The laboratory learning situation used to improve communication abilities of individuals, includes two individual interlocking cybernetic control systems, namely that of the trainer and that of the student, each with their own goals

in the situation. Each individual cybernetic control system can only interact with that of the other on an input level. If the input of one influences the cybernetic cycle of another positively, the cybernetic self-control cycle becomes activated and the system being influenced will go through the stages of the cybernetic self-control cycle to regain or maintain the steady state. Thus, any information exchange can only be assimilated at the input level and feedback from an interlocking system becomes the recipient system's input. Depending on the needs of the recipient system, on the nature of the relationship, and whether the goals of both systems are compatible within a favorable interaction environment, the input is ignored or perceived, processed and symbolically represented. This influences the subsequent intra-system goal, strategy and feedback, and the cybernetic self-control cycle as a whole becomes positive or negative. Thus, the crux of information exchange or communication is at the input level and the emphasis in an interaction falls on the nature of the information exchange as this is the salient factor that will determine whether and how the input is perceived and processed. Together with what and when, the how of the information input determines the result on the cybernetic self-control cycle. According to this view, there must be certain processes that are more effective than others in influencing the success of any communication outcome. This brings us back to the ideas of Rogers (1956) concerning the necessary conditions of empathy, respect and congruence in successful therapy and in human communication in general.

The processes of empathy, respect and congruence are, according to the literature, more effective in facilitative human communication and may be integrated into General Systems Theory as the means whereby information is more effectively exchanged.

As mentioned in an earlier section, Carkhuff and Truax (1966, 1967) rendered Rogers' theory scientifically operational and by doing so devised a 'Comprehensive Model of Facilitative processes'. This model consists of a scale ranging from Levels one to five and the core facilitative dimensions are "empathetic understanding, positive regard, genuineness, and concreteness or specificity of expression" (1967, p. 4). On all dimensions, Level three is defined as the minimally facilitative level of interpersonal functioning. Carkhuff and Berenson (1967), Carkhuff (1967) and Carkhuff and Truax (1966), suggest that persons functioning at level one are essentially oblivious to human encounters. Those functioning at level two, view their world with distorted perspective. Client populations comprise people functioning between levels one and three. Carkhuff (1967) says that people functioning at the lower end of the scale need therapy, and those functioning at a higher level require counselling. Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) found that counsellors and therapists function between levels one and four with a mean of 2.5 and that Level four and five persons are found infrequently in both client and counsellor populations. They go on to say that these levels signify a high degree of functioning and that there is a direct correlation between the level of functioning and mental health. Carkhuff, (1967) wrote that the significance of this model is that persons functioning

at a higher level of core conditions can, in a relationship, enable persons functioning at a lower level to achieve a higher level of functioning in the core conditions. The converse is however not possible. This then is the foun= dation of research into the ability of individuals to faci= litate more effective communication in a therapeutic, coun= selling and, in fact, in any human relationship. Carkhuff and Truax (1965), Berenson, Carkhuff and Myrus (1966), Truax and Lister (1971), and Carkhuff (1966) have all shown that experienced therapists could enable trainees to function at levels of effective therapy nearly comparable to their own functioning. Add to this Carkhuff's (1965) findings that lay personnel in a mental hospital trained in this model by means of a relatively brief program became effective lay men= tal health counsellors.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the conditions of empa= thy, respect and congruence are essential to effective human communication and that they may be learned in a facilitative relationship.

At this stage, it is necessary to elaborate further on how this learning takes place, and brief reference will be made to two theories of learning, namely that of Schein and Bennis (1965) and that of Kolb and Fry, (1975).

Schein and Bennis (1965) and Schein (1969) write that learn= ing entails a cognitive, an emotional and a behavioral ele= ment. Learning takes place in cycles of interdependent learning steps. The learning cycle is a series of over= lapping steps that starts with dilemmas or with disconfirming

information, which in turn produces attitude change. The learning model suggested by Schein and Bennis (1965) is based on the three phases which Lewin in 1939 identified as the stages of change (1) unfreezing, (2) changing, (3) re=freezing. Attitude change to Schein and Bennis (1965) is a central component of the learning process and they outline the stages as follows:

"Stage 1. Unfreezing:

1. Lack of confirmation or disconfirmation;
2. Induction of guilt anxiety;
3. Creation of psychological safety by re=duction of threat or removal of barriers to change;

Stage 2. Changing:

1. Scanning the interpersonal environment;
2. Identifying with a model;

Stage 3. Refreezing;

1. Personal - integrating new responses in=to the rest of the personality and atti=tude system;
2. Relational - integrating new responses into ongoing significant relationships." (p. 275).

Writing specifically about learning through laboratory train=ing, they say that the disconfirming information may come to the person before or early in the training session and that he must then come to accept the goals of training before learning can take place. This disconfirming information

gives the person cues as to the fact that "not all is right in his relationships with others" (p. 273). They go on to say that "In order for change to occur, however, some psychological safety must be present in the situation or else the person will simply become defensive and more rigid." (p. 276). Thus, Schein and Bennis' (1965) theory of learning may, because of their emphasis on psychological safety, be integrated with the theories of communication mentioned earlier. *If* a person high in the core-dimensions interacts with a person lower in the core-dimensions, *then* learning may take place through the stages of unfreezing, changing and refreezing. Furthermore, Schein and Bennis' (1965) theory may also be integrated with Bandura's (1969) theory of modelling inasmuch as in Stage 2.2. of their learning process, they specifically refer to the necessity of 'identifying with a model'. Finally, in General Systems terminology, unfreezing may be equated with the stages of goal acquisition, changing with strategy implementation and refreezing with feedback in terms of goal approximation.

The other theory of learning applicable to this study, is Kolb and Fry's (1975) theory of Experiential learning. This theory is based on Kurt Lewin's (1939) work on group dynamics and it forms the contemporary cornerstone of organizational development. This theory states that learning change and growth are optimally facilitated by an integrated cyclical process consisting of (1) concrete experiencing, followed by (2) reflective observation- concerning data about that experience. This data is then (3) analysed by means of abstract conceptualization and (4) the implications of these concepts are tested in new situations and serve as

guides in acting to create new experiences. The experiential learning model emphasizes that learning and change result from the integration of concrete emotional experiences with cogni= tive processes. Learning then, "involves the labelling or relabelling of immediate existential experience" Kolb and Fry (1975, p. 34). This theory has implications for labora= tory learning as well. If learning is an integrated process of concrete experiencing, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation, then, the re= searcher's experimental design, for optimal results, should include all four stages.

In synopsis then, utilizing General Systems Theory termino= logy and taking the states of the cybernetic cycle into account with communications-, modelling- and learning theory as background, the rationale behind this study is as follows: The *goal* of this study is to enable individuals to observe and experience facilitative core dimensions of communication and in so doing, via Schein and Bennis' (1965) and Kolb and Fry's (1975) theories of learning, to acquire more effective communication abilities. The *strategies* used are video-modelling, and contrast video-modelling and the feedback will be the degree of success of the experiment. In an earlier section, the necessity of the compatibility of goals in com= munication was stressed. To ensure this, brief instructions, (appendix C) as to the importance of basic facilitative abili= ties in communication, will be given to the experimental persons. Thereafter video-modelling in the form of input will be shown to them. If the experimental relationship is non-threatening and facilitative and the input succeeds in unfreezing their attitude, their cybernetic self-control

cycle will become activated and they will be able to learn from the strategies being modelled. During the phase of active experimentation built into the experimental design, the experimental persons will be able to utilize the stra= tegies modelled and in doing so obtain feedback as to their goal approximation. This will enable them to formulate further goals related to what they have learned in the ex= perimental situation.

From the foregoing and taking the research findings mentioned in an earlier section into account, it is clear that model= ling is an integral part of learning and is an important strategy for facilitating behavior change used by research= ers working from within the General Systems Theory frame of reference. Because of this, more attention could be given to the nature of the modelling input. Previous research has always concentrated on the use of highly competent mo= dels illustrating idealistic behavior, or on feedback of the experimental person's own behavior in terms of preset goals. Thus, in this experiment, it was decided to use video-model= ling of ideal communication and contrast video-modelling illustrating poor communication as the independent variables. The author feld that video-tapes, showing the two poles of the spectrum of communication would enable the experimental person to place herself more accurately on the continuum and, in so doing, formulate a clearer goal for change. Thus, two video-tapes illustrate destructive communication inter= action in terms of the core-dimensions and two other tapes show the same models engaged in facilitative communication in terms of the core-dimensions.

CHAPTER 4

4 METHOD

4.1 THE PROBLEM

In the previous chapter the goal of this study was described as the investigation of yet another method to improve commu= nication abilities. It was decided to concentrate on three core-dimensions of communication, namely empathy, respect and congruence.

Attention is drawn again to the previously discussed dis= tinction between a functional and a descriptive analysis of communication. The reader will remember that it was pos= tulated that a functional analysis of communication could provide the therapist with a framework for teaching the in= dividual how to improve his communication skills. This is because a functional analysis provides certain guidelines as to the practical implementation of specific communication abilities and it was concluded the ideal would be to teach the individual these specific functional techniques.

Bergin and Strupp (1970) recommend this trend in psychothe= rapy research by saying that research should move

> "away from the gross, complex and relatively non-specific to greater specificity and, concomitantly, greater power in the sense of making therapeutic operations and strategies count therapeutically." (p. 429).

They cite contributions made by researchers in client-cent= ered therapy on the specification of the three elements of

effective communication, namely empathy, respect and congruence. They say that the impact of these studies would not have been as significant as it is, if the researchers had not specified particular variables of the communication process, but had merely described the structural nature of good communication and its favorable environment.

Bergin and Strupp (1970) also state that the general paradigm of inquiry to attain this greater specificity appears to be the "individual experimental case study and the experimental analogue approach" (p. 432). Heller (1971) adds that labo= ratory analogues are designed to isolate, quantify and expe= rimentally manipulate factors whose direct observation would be obscured by variables, or would be too expensive. After reviewing the productive analogue research on modelling, Heller (1971) comes to the conclusion that "we are beginning to see the emergence of a new therapeutic tool, one that deserves careful attention from clinical researchers to de= termine the parameters of its utility" (p. 136).

It may then be concluded that analogue research has proved fruitful in studies dealing with both communication and modelling, and a laboratory analogue method will thus be used in this study (bearing in mind Heller's (1971) and Kiesler's (1971) warning concerning the problem of general= izability). The next focus of attention would appear to be the more effective ways in which these specific communi= cation abilities could be taught and how they could be learnt. In a previous section it was said that this study would not incorporate video-feedback as a strategy in teach=

ing better communication skills. The reason for this lies in the quoted research showing that feedback in general, and video-feedback in particular, tends to arouse resistance in the learner, thus making it too threatening to be useful as a technique. In addition to this, Kim's (1975) reconceptu= alization of the feedback process was discussed and his re= cognition of the oversimplification of the process in the research literature was outlined. Furthermore, the uncla= rified nature of feedback in intersystem interaction and in the intrasystem cybernetic self-control cycle was mentioned.

Thus it was decided to concentrate on video-modelling as the strategy used for teaching communication skills. This video-modelling was subdivided into modelling and contrast modelling. The problem of this study can then be outlined as follows:

What is the effect of modelling and contrast-modelling on communication?

The former paragraphs deal with the means whereby communi= cation may be taught. Now we turn to how the teaching is best received and incorporated into the cybernetic self-control cycle. In a previous section it was suggested that learning could take place through the stages of unfreezing, change and refreezing, if these stages were seen as part of the intra-system learning process.

In additon to this, Kolb and Fry's (1975) ideas concerning the experiential learning process can be seen as the means whereby laboratory learning can take place on an inter- and

intra-system level. Both these models were explained accord= ing to the cybernetic cycle within General Systems Theory.

In order to formulate meaningful hypotheses it now becomes necessary to tie up the strategies and the framework used in this analogue study, namely to General Systems Theory and especially to the cybernetic cycle.

4.1.1 Video-modelling

According to the theoretical rationale discussed earlier, video-modelling, for the purpose of this study, is seen as the input into the cybernetic self-control cycle. This input is non-threatening, in that the individual is confront= ed, not with his own behavior, but by that of a model. How= ever, the goal as well as the strategies to reach that goal, are explained clearly at the outset of the experiment. Un= der these circumstances, and assuming that the learner is functioning at a lower level of communication efficiency than the models, unfreezing can take place and the cybernetic self-control cycle can be activated. From this the fol= lowing hypothesis can be formulated:

Hypotheses 1. Video-modelling will arouse minimal resist= ance in the individual and will have an influence on the improvement of interpersonal communication.

4.1.2. Contrast Modelling

Contrast Modelling as used in this study, is still part of video-modelling and as such, input into the cybernetic self-control cycle. Again it is non-threatening in that it is

not the individual's own behavior that is used as input. However, bearing the cybernetic cycle and Schein and Bennis' (1965) phases of learning in mind, it would appear that the contrast modelling acts as input and could result in unfreez= ing but, it does not provide the subject with the necessary positive modelling or behavioral strategies to facilitate the change phase in the learning process. Therefore the contrast modelling will have no effect on the interpersonal communication of the subjects.

Hypotheses 2.
Contrast modelling will have no effect on interpersonal com= munication.

4.1.3. Modelling plus Contrast Modelling (Interaction effect)

Here both a model and a contrast model are used as input in= to the cybernetic self-control cycle. It is also the same model and contrast model as used before and for the same reasons will not arouse resistance in the learner. Both the goal and the strategies are clearly explained as before. The assumed result is that, not being threatened by the in= put and receiving both positive and negative modelling of the goal and strategies (providing that the individual is at a low level of communication efficiency) unfreezing can take place and the cybernetic self-control cycle can be activated and subsequent learning can be facilitated.

From this, a third hypothesis can be formulated.

Hypotheses 3. The successive presentation of a contrast-

model and a model will arouse minimal resistance in the indi= vidual and will have an influence on the improvement of inter= personal communication.

4.2. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The three stated hypotheses must now be operationally tested. This implies that certain independent variables become rele= vant. In this study, modelling, contrast modelling and the interaction of modelling and contrast modelling, are the independent variables. The dependent variables are the strategies to be taught, namely empathy, respect and congru= ence. The effect of the independent variables on the three dependent variables will be measured on a five-point scale constructed by Carkhuff (1969).

In this section, these independent and dependent variables will be discussed firstly and then attention will be paid to the research model, the sample, the experimental proce= dure and finally to the analysis of the data.

4.2.1. Independent variables. (Strategies)

The strategy used in this study was video-modelling. Ban= dura's (1970) three major components which appear to be more effective than others in implementing the four modelling principles were incorporated into the design. These are as follows: firstly, desired behavior should be repeatedly modelled, preferably by multiple models. Secondly, observ= ers should be given sufficient opportunities to practice the behavior under favorable circumstances. Thirdly, reinforce= ment contingencies should be arranged.

Care was taken to select models that could still pass for students. Three females and one male were approached.

Two sets of models were made (one set) by a registered Coun=selling Psychologist and a final year Psychology III student (Appendix A_1 and B_1) and the other by a registered Counsel=ling and a registered Clinical Psychologist (Appendix A_2 and B_2). The emphasis was on the verbal and non-verbal clarity of the core-communication dimensions, empathy, re=spect and congruence. In order to ensure the maximum re=presentation of the core-dimensions, and with the question=ability of congruence in role playing in mind, it was de=cided to tape impromptu sessions. The individuals taking the part of the client were asked to consider an authentic problem of their own to discuss and the therapist was asked to conduct the session as him or herself, bearing the core-communication dimensions in mind. This was arranged three days before the actual video-taping. On all four of the tapes, a female discusses her problem with her student friend. In the first two examples, the emphasis is on poor verbal and non-verbal communication techniques in terms of empathy, respect and congruence (contrast modelling). In the final two examples, emphasis is placed on optimal verbal and non-verbal communication techniques in terms of empathy, respect and congruence (modelling). Thus, in turn, the same couples modelled firstly poor and then good communication abilities. The duration of all four models was five minutes.

4.2.2. Dependent variables

The three core-communication dimensions and the scales for

the assessment of interpersonal functioning, are described below:

Empathy

Accurate empathy entails 'feeling-with' the other and involves firstly the ability to perceive the feelings and experiences of another person and secondly the ability to accurately and sensitively communicate this understanding to the other person. Empathetic understanding enables one person to view another's world of experiencing from the other's emotional and perceptual frame of reference. Thus, empathy is an understanding with another, rather than a diagnostic or evaluative understanding of another. Yet, because the empathetic person cannot truly be another, he can be both subjectively involved with the other's experiencing and objective enough to enable him to sense the meaning of the other's experiencing in its context. Truax and Mitchell (1971) sum this up succintly by saying that in one sense the empathetic person helps to clarify another's understanding of himself "by serving as a mirror to his emotional and phenomenological self" (p. 318). They go on to say that the empathetic person not only shows a sensitive understanding of the other person's apparent feelings, but also clarifies and expands on non-verbal and contextual cues. Add to this Roger's ideas, in Hammond et al (1977), on the limits of the clarification when Rogers said that being empathetically attuned to a client also includes

> "sensing meanings of which he/she is scarcely aware, but not trying to uncover feelings of which

> the person is totally unaware, since this would be too threatening." (p. 4).

and this gives a picture of the nature, scope and limits of empathetic understanding and the communication of this understanding. Hammond et al (1977) using a mirror as illustration, sum up the latter clearly when they say that the function of an emotional mirror is to reflect feelings as they are, but not with any distortion or additions, and one may conclude that the function of the empathetic person is the same.

Carkhuff's (1969) scale for the measurement of empathetic understanding in interpersonal processes is described ver= batim as follows:

> "Level 1.
> The verbal and behavioral expressions of the first person either *do not attend to* or *detract signifi= cantly* from the verbal and behavioral expressions of the second person(s) in that they communicate significantly less of the second person's feelings than the second person has communicated himself.
> Examples: The first person communicates no aware= ness of even the most obvious, expressed surface feelings of the second person. The first person may be bored or uninte= rested or simply operating from a pre= concieved frame of reference which totally excludes that of the other person(s).
> In summary, the first person does everything but ex= press that he is listening, understanding, or being sensitive to even the feelings of the other person in such a way as to detract significantly from the com= munications of the second person.

Level 2.

While the first person responds to the expressed feelings of the second person(s), he does so in such a way that he *subtracts noticeable affect from the communications* of the second person.

Examples: The first person may communicate some awareness of obvious surface feelings of the second person, but his communi= cations drain off a level of the affect and distort the level of meaning. The first person may communicate his own ideas of what may be going on, but these are not congruent with the expressions of the second person.

In summary, the first person tends to respond to other than what the second person is expressing or indicating.

Level 3.

The expressions of the first person in response to the expressed feelings of the second person(s) are essentially *interchangeable* with those of the second person in that they express essentially the same af= fect and meaning.

Example: The first person responds with accurate understanding of the surface feelings of the second person but may not respond to or may misinterpret the deeper feelings.

In summary, the first person is responding so as to neither subtract from nor add to the expressions of the second person; but he does not respond accurate= ly to how that person really feels beneath the sur= face feelings. Level 3 constitutes the minimal le= vel of facilitative interpersonal functioning.

Level 4.

The responses of the first person add noticeably to the expressions of the second person(s) in such a way as to express feelings a level deeper than the second person was able to express himself.

Example: The facilitator communicates his under=

standing of the expressions of the second person at a level deeper than they were expressed, and thus enables the second person to experience and/or express feelings he was unable to express previously.

In summary, the facilitator's responses add deeper feeling and meaning to the expressions of the second person.

Level 5.

The first person's responses add significantly to the feeling and meaning of the expressions of the second person(s) in such a way as to (1) accurately express feelings levels below what the person himself was able to express or (2) in the event of on going deep self-exploration on the second person's part, to be fully with him in his deepest moments.

Examples: The facilitator responds with accuracy to all of the person's deeper as well as surface feelings. He is "together" with the second person or "tuned in" on his wave length. The facilitator and the other person might proceed together to explore previously unexplored areas of human existence.

In summary, the facilitator is responding with a full awareness of who the other person is and a comprehensive and accurate empathic understanding of his deepest feelings." (p. 316, 317).

Respect

Respect refers to a nonpossessive caring for and affirmation of another's individuality. The respectful person empathetically understands the other and accepts the other with all his positive characteristics and failings. He also accepts the other individual's rights and abilities to make his own decisions with responsibility. A relationship with respect is one in which there is equality, mutuality and shared

thinking about problems. Truax and Mithcell (1971) in reference to this say that warmth does not imply passivity or unresponsivity: "non-possessive warmth is an outgoing positive action involving active personal participation" (p. 317).

Carkhuff's (1969) scale for the measurement of respect in interpersonal processes is described as follows:

"Level 1.

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the first person communicate a clear lack of respect (or negative regard) for the second person(s).

Example: The first person communicates to the second person that the second person's feelings and experiences are not worthy of consideration or that the second person is not capable of acting constructively. The first person may become the sole focus of evaluation.

In summary, in many ways the first person communicates a total lack of respect for the feelings, experiences, and potentials of the second person.

Level 2.

The first person responds to the second person in such a way as to communicate little respect for the feelings, experiences, and potentials of the second person.

Example: The first person may respond mechanically or passively or ignore many of the feelings of the second person.

In summary, in many ways the first person displays a lack of respect or concern for the second person's feelings, experiences, and potentials.

Level 3.
The first person communicates a positive respect and concern for the second person's feelings, experiences and potentials.
Example: The first person communicates respect and concern for the second person's ability to express himself and to deal constructively with his life situation.
In summary, in many ways the first person communicates that who the second person is and what he does matter to the first person. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative interpersonal functioning.

Level 4.
The facilitator clearly communicates a very deep respect and concern for the second person.
Example: The facilitator's responses enables the second person to feel free to be himself and to experience being valued as an individual.
In summary, the facilitator communicates a very deep caring for the feelings, experiences, and potentials of the second person.

Level 5.
The facilitator communicates the very deepest respect for the second person's worth as a person and his potentials as a free individual.
Example: The facilitator cares very deeply for the human potentials of the second person.
In summary, the facilitator is committed to the value of the other person as a human being." (p. 317, 318).

Congruence

Congruence, genuineness or authenticity refers to a natural, sincere, spontaneous, open and thus non-defensive manner of relating to another. A congruent person relates to others so that his communications match his actual feelings and

thoughts. When appropriate, the congruent person can ex= press his feelings and thoughts as something belonging to him and separate from the other, without imposing his senti= ments on that other. Truax and Mitchell (1971) say that "genuineness on non-defensiveness or non-phoniness is most basic to a human relationship" (p. 314) as this makes a trusting and open relationship possible. Once this is established, respect provides the non-threatening context, and finally the empathetic understanding enables the other person to grow or change.

Carkhuff's (1969) Scale for the measurement of congruence is as follows:

"Level 1.
The first person's verbalizations are clearly unre= lated to what he is feeling at the moment, or his only genuine responses are negative in regard to the second person(s) and appear to have a totally de= structive effect upon the second person.
Example: The first person may be defensive in his interaction with the second person(s) and this defensiveness may be demonstrated in the content of his words or his voice qua= lity. Where he is defensive he does not employ his reaction as a basis for poten= tially valuable inquiry into the relation= ship.
In summary, there is evidence of a considerable dis= crepancy between the inner experiencing of the first person(s) and his current verbalizations. Where there is no discrepancy, the first person's reactions are employed solely in a destructive fashion.

Level 2.
The first person's verbalizations are slightly unrelated

to what he is feeling at the moment, or when his responses are genuine they are negative in regard to the second person; the first person does not appear to know how to employ his negative reac= tions constructively as a basis for inquiry into the relationship.

Example: The first person may respond to the se= cond person(s) in a "professional" man= ner that has a rehearsed quality or a quality concerning the way a helper "should" respond in that situation.

In summary, the first person is usually responding according to his prescribed role rather than expres= sing what he personally feels or means. When he is genuine his responses are negative and he is un= able to employ them as a basis for further inquiry.

Level 3.

The first person provides no "negative" cues between what he says and what he feels, but he provides no positive cues to indicate a really genuine response to the second person(s).

Example: The first person may listen and follow the second person(s) but commits nothing more of himself.

In summary, the first person appears to make appropri= ate responses that do not seem insincere but that do not reflect any real involvement either. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative inter= personal functioning.

Level 4.

The facilitator presents some positive cues indicat= ing a genuine response (whether positive or negative) in a nondestructive manner to the second person(s).

Example: The facilitator's expressions are congruent with his feelings, although he may be some= what hesitant about expressing them fully.

In summary, the facilitator responds with many of his own feelings, and there is no doubt as to whether he really means what he says. He is able to employ his

responses, whatever their emotional content, as a basis for further inquiry into the relationship.

Level 5.
The facilitator is freely and deeply himself in a nonexploitative relationship with the second person(s).

Example: The facilitator is completely spontaneous in his interaction and open to experiences of all types, both pleasant and hurtful. In the event of hurtful responses the facilitator's comments are employed constructively to open a further area of inquiry for both the facilitator and the second person.

In summary, the facilitator is clearly being himself and yet employing his own genuine responses constructively." (p. 319, 320).

4.2.3. Research model

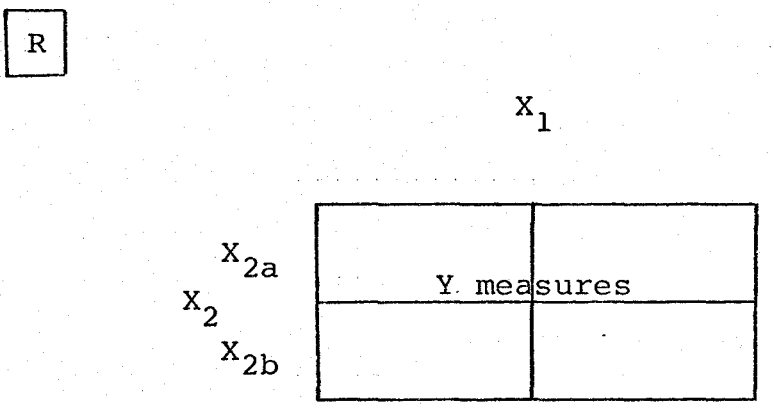
The goal of this experiment is to study the effect of the different independent variables on the three dependent variables. This implies that one variable should be manipulated while the others are held constant. In this way the differential effect of the manipulated variables on the dependent variables could be determined.

Kerlinger (1973, p. 333) gives the following diagrammatical design to provide the framework for this research model.

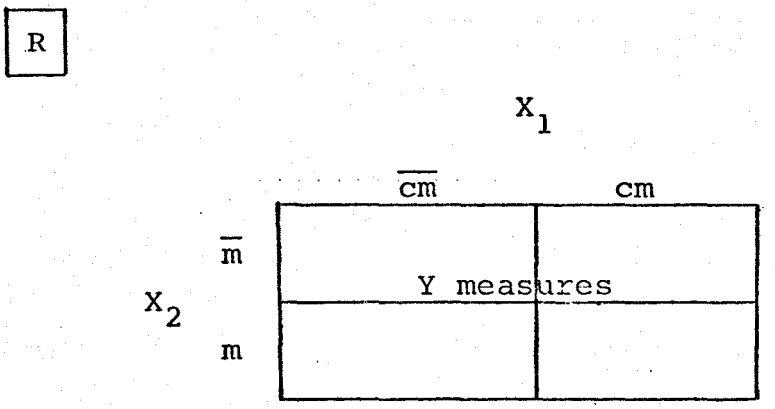
R	X_{1a}	Y
	X_{1b}	Y
	X_{2a}	Y
	X_{2b}	Y

R = randomization of sample
X = independent variables
Y = dependent variables

He goes on to say that the design would be more easily re=cognizable if it were set out in a 2 x 2 factorial design:



For the purposes of this experimental study, this design can be utilized in the following manner:



In this design, it is obvious that four experimental groups are used and the meaning attached to the symbols used, is as follows:

R - The experimental sample was drawn from a popula=tion of female first year university students in a random manner and subsequently each individual was randomly assigned to one of the four experi=mental groups.

X - Independent variables;

Y - Dependent variables;

$\overline{m}$ - Group receiving no modelling;

m - Group receiving modelling;

$\overline{cm}$ - Group receiving no contrast modelling;

cm - Group receiving contrast modelling.

In summary, the four experimental groups are symbolically represented as:

$\overline{m}$: $\overline{cm}$ - Control group;

m : $\overline{cm}$ - Group receiving modelling as input;

$\overline{m}$: cm - Group receiving contrast-modelling as input;

m : cm - Group receiving both modelling and contrast-modelling as input.

Kerlinger (1973) says that this design is probably amongst the most statistically and probabilistically effective designs for many experimental purposes in education and psychology. By randomization of subjects and random assignment of subjects into experimental groups, "Theoretically all possible independent variables are controlled" (p. 331). Furthermore, the design provides comparisons between experimental and control groups and between the two different experimental groups. Campbell (1957) refers to this research design as a "posttest-only control group design" (p. 304) and says that the groups in this design are made equivalent by random sampling assignment. This factor is relevant to the internal validity of the results of the experiment. As mentioned earlier, researchers such as Heller (1971) and Kiesler (1971) warn about the generalizability of findings in analogue research. Campbell (1957) wrote

that external validity and thus representativeness or generalizability is often incompatible with internal validity in designs in that "the controls required for internal validity often tend to jeopardize representativeness" (p. 297). Taking this into account, the internal validity is considered to be the most important criterium in this study, even though external validity may be somewhat sacrificed.

4.2.4. Sample

The population consisted of first year female psychology students at the University of the Orange Free State in 1979. The sample without replacement was drawn from the population with the aid of a table of random numbers by a statistician. The population consisted of female students, firstly because the proportion of male first year psychology students is relatively small in comparison to that of the female students, and secondly, in this way, the possible sex variables were also eliminated from the experiment. Forty students were individually randomly assigned to one of the four experimental groups by a statistician using a table of random numbers.

The arrangement of the sample was as follows:

TABLE 4.1

ARRANGEMENT OF SAMPLE

Experimental groups	N
$\overline{m}$: $\overline{cm}$	10
m : $\overline{cm}$	10
$\overline{m}$: cm	10
m : cm	10

4.3. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

The experiment was conducted in a laboratory setting with closed-circuit television. The television cameras were visible but remotely controlled by the researcher. The sessions took place on an individual basis and the research=er was assisted throughout the experiment by a registered Counselling psychologist. The researcher operated the te=levision equipment and gave the instructions to the experi=mental persons. The Counselling psychologist took an ac=tive part in the experiment as the client with a problem. This was done to ensure that each experimental person was involved in the laboratory relationship with the same 're=port' and 'command' aspects of communication. Four typical problems that are found amongst students were selected and these were randomly chosen for discussion with the experi=mental persons (see Appendix C.).

The experimental procedure was conducted by the researcher operating the apparatus and manipulating the independent variables. The assisting Counselling Psychologist was un=aware of the group into which each experimental person was placed.

The first phase in the procedure involved a short talk (be=tween 2 to 5 minutes) between the researcher and the sub=ject. The object of this was to put the subject at ease as to the nature of the experiment, namely that it dealt with communication, that their assistance was appreciated and all that was really required of them was to respond spon=taneously as themselves to the problem posed to them by the

other person. The structure and timing of the experiment was also briefly explained to them. A short practice session would be the first step. Then a five-minute video-tape of their interaction with the client would be made. They would then be given written instructions (Appendix D) to enable them to understand the goals more clearly. Thereafter a short practice session would take place and finally another five-minute video-tape would be made.

The experimental procedure took place after the experimental person had read the written instructions (Appendix D). These instructions were identical for all experimental persons except for the final sentence. This final sentence was different for all four groups and was merely a further explanation of the experimental procedure relevant to the group to which the experimental person had been assigned.

The detailed procedure for each group is as follows:

Group 1. Control Group.

The first phase took place as outlined above with the researcher briefing the person as to the nature, structure and timing of the experiment. The researcher then left the laboratory and the Counselling psychologist entered into the laboratory. She then explained the core-dimensions briefly to the experimental person. To ensure that the person was at ease, a short practice session took place before the five-minute video-tape was made. The researcher then entered the laboratory and gave the person Instructions (Appendix D) to read while the Counselling psychologist

left the laboratory. No experimental manipulation of the independent variables took place. The Counselling Psychol= ogist re-entered the laboratory, a practice session ensued and finally a further five-minute video-tape was made.

Group 2. Video-modelling Group.

The procedure was identical as for the control group up to the level of written instructions. This group was given instructions 2 (Appendix D) to read while the Counselling psychologist left the laboratory. Thereafter the research= er projected Model 1 (Appendix B_1) on to the television screen. The Counselling Psychologist re-entered the labo= ratory and the second practice session took place. She then left the laboratory again and Model 2 (Appendix B_2) was projected on to the television screen by the researcher. After this, the final five-minute video-tape was made be= tween the experimental person and the Counselling Psycholo= gist.

Group 3. Contrast-video-modelling group

Again, the procedure was identical as for the control and video-modelling group up to the level of written instructions. This group was given instructions 3 (Appendix D) to read while the Counselling Psychologist left the laboratory. Thereafter, the researcher projected Contrast-model 1 (Ap= pendix A_1) on to the television screen. The Counselling Psychologist re-entered the laboratory and the second prac= tice session took place. She then left the laboratory again and contrast-model 2 (Appendix A_2) was projected on

to the television screen by the researcher. After this, the final five-minute video-tape was made between the ex= perimental person and the Counselling Psychologist.

Group 4. Video-modelling and contrast video-modelling group

Here again, the procedure was identical as for the previous three groups up to the level of written instructions. This group was given instructions 4 (Appendix D) to read while the Counselling Psychologist left the laboratory. After this stage had been completed, the researcher projected the contrast-model 1 (Appendix A_1) on to the television screen. The Counselling Psychologist re-entered the laboratory and the second practice session took place. She then left the laboratory again and the Video-model 1 (Appendix B_1) was projected on to the television screen by the researcher. After this, the final five-minute video-tape was made be= tween the experimental person and the Counselling Psychol= ogist.

Schematically, the experimental procedure can be summarized as follows:

TABLE 4.2

SUMMARY OF EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

Stages	$\bar{m}$: $\overline{cm}$	m : $\overline{cm}$	$\bar{m}$: cm	m : cm
1	Instructions	Instructions	Instructions	Instructions
2	Practice 1	Practice 1	Practice 1	Practice 1
3	Video-tape 1	Video-tape 1	Video-tape 1	Video-tape 1
4	Written Instructions	Written Instructions	Written Instructions	Written Instructions
5	1.-----	2. Model 1	3. Contrast-Model 1	4. Contrast-Model 1
6	Practice 2	Practice 2	Practice 2	Practice 2
7	-----	Model 2	Contrast-Model 2	Model 1
8	Video-tape 2	Video-tape 2	Video-tape 2	Video-tape 2

4.3.1 Analysis of Data

In this thesis, the effect of the two independent variables (video-modelling and contrast video-modelling) on the three dependent variables (empathy, respect and congruence) was studied. The significance of the experimental manipulation will be determined by analysing the differences in scores between the groups on the dependent variables. The scoring was done by two intern psychologists who were in no way con= nected with the experiment. These scorers had attended a course in scoring the core-dimensions on Carkhuff's (1969) scale, and the inter-rater reliability for the dependent variables was as follows; Empathy ,97; Respect ,99; and Congruence ,98.

Every response of each experimental person's first and se= cond video-tape session was independently scored by both scorers. This scoring was done directly from the video-tapes and the scorers were unaware of the identity of the

experimental persons or of the group to which they had been assigned. They were also given no information as to wheth= er the video-tapes were from the first or second taping sessions.

After completion of the scoring, the average of each person's individual score according to both scorers was calculated. This average was listed with the individual's experimental group's scores. A 2 x 2 factorial analysis of the data was carried out by means of a standard computer program (Univac, 1973).

The hypotheses relevant to this thesis were formulated in an earlier section. The following nul-hypotheses and al= ternate hypotheses can be formulated with these hypotheses in mind:

Empathy

H_0 (1) : $\overline{cm} = cm$

H_1 (1) : $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

H_0 (2) : $\bar{m} = m$

H_1 (2) : $\bar{m} \neq m$

H_0 (3) : $\overline{mcm} = \bar{m}cm = mc\bar{m} = mcm$

H_1 (3) : $\overline{mcm} \neq \bar{m}cm \neq mc\bar{m} \neq mcm$

Respect

H_0 (4) : $\overline{cm} = cm$

H_1 (4) : $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

H_0 (5) : $\overline{m} = m$

H_1 (5) : $\overline{m} \neq m$

H_0 (6) : $\overline{mcm} = \overline{m}cm = mc\overline{m} = mcm$

H_1 (6) : $\overline{mcm} \neq \overline{m}cm \neq mc\overline{m} \neq mcm$

Congruence

H_0 (7) : $\overline{cm} = cm$

H_1 (7) : $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

H_0 (8) : $\overline{m} = m$

H_1 (8) : $\overline{m} \neq m$

H_0 (9) : $\overline{mcm} = \overline{m}cm = mc\overline{m} = mcm$

H_1 (9) : $\overline{mcm} \neq \overline{m}cm \neq mc\overline{m} \neq mcm$

(Harshbarger, 1971)

The meaning attached to the symbols used in the formulation of the null and alternate hypotheses is as follows:

$\overline{cm}$ = the effect of no contrast-modelling on the dependent variables;

cm = the effect of contrast modelling on the dependent variables;

$\overline{m}$ = the effect of no modelling on the dependent variables;

m = the effect of modelling on the dependent variables;

$\overline{mcm}$/mcm = the effect of no modelling and no contrast-modelling/modelling and contrast-modelling on the dependent variables.

As mentioned, the nul-hypothesis was tested by means of a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance. It was decided to use the 5% level of significance as this is a pilot study.

In the following chapter, the hypotheses will be discussed in terms of the experimental results.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Three hypotheses were formulated in the previous chapter. These were that video-modelling, and the interaction of both video-modelling and contrast video-modelling would exert an influence on the primary core-dimensions of interpersonal communication, and that contrast video-modelling alone would not exert an influence on these dimensions. These core-dimensions were defined as empathy, respect and congruence and Carkhuff's (1969) five point scale was used as the measuring instrument to determine the level of functioning of each experimental person on these core-dimensions before and after the relevant experimental manipulation took place. In order to test these three hypotheses empirically, null as well as alternate hypotheses were formulated.

A registered Counselling Psychologist took the part of the client in all the interaction sessions. This was done to ensure that the environmental and interaction variables remained relatively constant for each experimental person. Four five minute sessions took place between each experimental person and the psychologist. The first and the third sessions were regarded as practice sessions. The second session was video-taped as the illustration of each person's pre-experimental communication abilities in terms of the core-dimensions.

The experimental manipulation was carried out between the second and the third five-minute interaction session. As mentioned, the third session was regarded as a practice session. The fourth session was video-taped as the post experimental session. The data obtained from the pre-experimental manipulation and from the post-experimental manipulation sessions was used for statistical processing to ascertain the effect of the two different strategies on the three dependent variables. The data was analysed by means of a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance. The analysis was done by means of a standard computer program (Univac, 1973). F-values were used to determine the significance of the effects of the different strategies.

As mentioned in an earlier section, Campbell (1957) referred to the research design used in this experiment as a "post-test only control group design" (p. 304). This design complies with the requirements necessary to ensure internal validity, but, before significance can be attached to the research findings, it is necessary to ensure that the groups (even though the sampling and the placement was done randomly) were equal on the dependent variables before the experimental manipulation took place. This step is all the more important, because of the size of the groups used in this experiment.

The second session (first video-tape) was therefore used to ascertain if there was any difference in the groups on the core-dimensions before the experimental manipulation took place. The hypothesis was formulated that the division of experimental persons into the four sub-groups had no effect

on the core-communication dimension abilities of the experi= mental persons.

The following nul and alternate hypotheses were formulated in terms of empathy:

H_0 : $\overline{m} = m$

H_1 : $\overline{m} \neq m$

H_0 : $\overline{cm} = cm$

H_1 : $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

H_0 : $\overline{mcm} = \overline{m}cm = mc\overline{m} = mcm$

H_1 : $\overline{mcm} \neq \overline{m}cm \neq mc\overline{m} \neq mcm$

where

$\overline{m}$ = the effect of the division into groups on the dependent variable in the group that was not shown video-model= ling;

m = the effect of the division into groups on the dependent variable in the group that was shown video-modelling;

$\overline{cm}$ = the effect of the division into groups on the dependent variable in the group that was not shown the contrast-video-modelling;

cm = the effect of the division into groups on the dependent variable in the group that was shown the contrast video-modelling;

mcm/$\overline{mcm}$ = the effect of the division into groups on the de= pendent variable in the group that was/and was not shown modelling and contrast video-modelling.

These hypotheses were tested by means of a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance. The results are shown in table 5.1.

TABLE 5.1.
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AFTER THE DIVISION INTO GROUPS (EMPATHY)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Degrees of Freedom	F	Prob. of F exceeded
Video-modelling	,03422	1	,28723	,595
Contrast-video-modelling	,01806	1	,15160	,699
Interaction	,12656	1	1,06225	,310
Error	4,28923	36		

The critical value at the 5% level of significance is 4,11. Therefore, according to table 5.1, all the nul-hypotheses are accepted and the alternate hypotheses rejected. It can be concluded that the groups did not differ in terms of empathy at the outset of the experiment.

The following nul and alternate hypotheses were formulated in terms of respect:

H_0 : $\bar{m} = m$

H_1 : $\bar{m} \neq m$

H_0 : $\overline{cm} = cm$

H_1 : $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

H_0 : $\overline{mcm} = \bar{m}cm = mc\bar{m} = mcm$

H_1 : $\overline{mcm} \neq \bar{m}cm \neq mc\bar{m} \neq mcm$

The meaning attached to the symbols is the same as that attached to the symbols used in the hypotheses formulated in terms of empathy. As in the previous example, these hypotheses were tested by means of a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance. The results are shown in table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2.
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AFTER THE DIVISION INTO GROUPS (RESPECT)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Degrees of Freedom	F	Prob. of F exceeded
Video-modelling	,00576	1	,07911	,780
Contrast-video-modelling	,02116	1	,29063	,593
Interaction	,04624	1	,63511	,431
Error		36		

The critical value at the 5% level of significance is 4,11. Therefore, according to table 5.2, all the nul-hypotheses are accepted and the alternate hypotheses rejected. It can thus be concluded that the groups did not differ in terms of respect at the outset of the experiment.

The following nul and alternate hypotheses can be formulated with regard to congruence:

H_0 : $\overline{m} = m$

H_1 : $\overline{m} \neq m$

H_0 : $\overline{cm} = cm$

H_1 : $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

H_0 : $\overline{mcm} = \bar{m}cm = m\bar{cm} = mcm$

H_1 : $\overline{mcm} \neq \bar{m}cm \neq m\bar{cm} \neq mcm$

The meaning attached to the symbols is the same as that attached to the symbols used in the hypotheses formulated in terms of empathy and respect. As in the previous examples, the hypotheses concerning congruence were tested by means of a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance. The results are shown in table 5.3.

TABLE 5.3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AFTER THE DIVISION INTO GROUPS (CONGRUENCE)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Degrees of Freedom	F	Prob. of F exceeded
Video-modelling	,09025	1	1,68492	,203
Contrast-video-modelling	,03969	1	,74099	,395
Interaction	,02809	1		
Error	1,92828	36	,52443	,474

The critical value at the 5% level of significance is 4,11. Therefore, according to table 5.3, all the nul-hypotheses are accepted and the alternate hypotheses rejected. It can be concluded that the groups did not differ in terms of congruence at the outset of the experiment.

In summary, it may be concluded that the three groups were equal in terms of the core-dimensions prior to the experimental manipulation of the independent variables. The following section will deal with the interpretation of the results obtained in the second video-tape, that is, after the

experimental manipulation had taken place.

5.2. RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

The research model of this experiment was schematically set out in an earlier section. The detail model of the experi= mental manipulation is as follows:

CONTRAST-VIDEO-MODELLING

Video-Modelling		No Contrast-video modelling	Contrast-video-modelling
	No Video-Modelling	Control	Contrast-video-modelling
	Video-Modelling	Video-modelling	Video-modelling and Contrast-video-modelling

The following symbols will be used in the formulation of the nul and alternate hypotheses with regard to the dependent va= riables; empathy, respect and congruence:

$\overline{cm}$ = the effect of no contrast-video-modelling on the de= pendent variables;

cm = the effect of contrast-video-modelling on the depen= dent variables;

$\overline{m}$ = the effect of no video-modelling on the dependent variables;

m = the effect of video-modelling on the dependent vari= ables;

mcm/$\overline{mcm}$ = the effect of the specific combination of video-modelling and contrast-video-modelling/no video-model= ling and contrast-video-modelling on the dependent

variables.

The following nul and alternate hypotheses were formulated in terms of empathy:

$H_0(1)$: $\overline{m} = m$

$H_1(1)$: $\overline{m} \neq m$

$H_0(2)$: $\overline{cm} = cm$

$H_1(2)$: $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

$H_0(3)$: $\overline{mcm} = \overline{m}cm = mc\overline{m} = mcm$

$H_1(3)$: $\overline{mcm} \neq \overline{m}cm \neq mc\overline{m} \neq mcm$

These hypotheses were tested by means of a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance. The results are shown in Table 5.4.

TABLE 5.4.

POST-EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (EMPATHY)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Degrees of Freedom	F	Prob. of F exceeded
Video-modelling	1,87922	1	11,18321*	,002
Contrast-video-modelling	,03782	1	,22508	,638
Interaction	,08742	1	,52025	,475
Error	6,04943	36		

* Significant at the 5%-level.

TABLE 5.5

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE DIFFERENT GROUPS (EMPATHY)

Video-modelling	No Contrast-video-modelling	Contrast-video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ of video-model groups
No Video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ = 1,586 s = ,310	$\bar{X}$ = 1,741 s = ,383	1,613
Video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ = 2,113 s = ,391	$\bar{X}$ = 2,081 s = ,526	2,097
$\bar{X}$ of contrast-video-modelling group	1,849	1,911	

According to table 5.5, it is obvious that the groups that received video-modelling as a technique obtained significantly higher means in empathy, than those not receiving video-modelling.

According to tabel 5.4 the following conclusions may be drawn:

H_0 (1) : rejected

H_1 (1) : accepted at the 5% level of significance

H_0(2) : accepted

H_1(2) : rejected

H_0 (3) : accepted

H_1 (3) : rejected

It appears therefore that video-modelling as a strategy was significant in bringing about a change in empathy (at the 5% level). Contrast video-modelling as a strategy had no effect

on empathy, nor did the interaction of both strategies bring about a change.

The following nul- and alternate hypotheses were formulated in terms of respect:

H_0 (4) : $\bar{m} = m$

H_1 (4) : $\bar{m} \neq m$

H_0 (5) : $\overline{cm} = cm$

H_1 (5) : $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

H_0 (6) : $\overline{mcm} = \bar{m}cm = mc\bar{m} = mcm$

H_1 (6) : $\overline{mcm} \neq \bar{m}cm \neq mc\bar{m} \neq mcm$

These hypotheses were tested by means of a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance. The results are shown in Table 5.6.

TABLE 5.6

POST-EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (RESPECT)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Degrees of Freedom	F	Prob. of F exceeded
Video-modelling	2,05662	1	17,04121*	,000
Contrast, video-modelling	,00110	1	,00914	,924
Interaction	,01560	1	,12928	,721
Error	4,34467	36		

*Significant at the 5%-level.

TABLE 5.7

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE DIFFERENT GROUPS (RESPECT)

Video-modelling	No contrast-video-modelling	Contrast-video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ of video-model groups
No Video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ = 1,23300 s = ,28535	$\bar{X}$ = 1,283 s = ,23575	1,258
Video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ = 1,726 s = ,41572	$\bar{X}$ = 1,697 s = ,41583	1,71
$\bar{X}$ of contrast-video-modelling group	1,478	1,49	

According to table 5.7, it appears that the groups that received video-modelling as a technique obtained higher means in respect, that those not receiving video-modelling.

The following conclusions may be drawn from the data in table 5.6.

H_0 (4) : rejected

H_1 (4) : accepted at the 5% level of significance

H_0 (5) : accepted

H_1 (5) : rejected

H_0 (6) : accepted

H_1 (6) : rejected

It appears that video-modelling as a strategy was significant in bringing about a change in respect (at the 5% level). Contrast-video-modelling, however, had no effect on respect, nor did the interaction of both strategies succeed in bringing

about a change.

The following nul and alternate hypotheses were formulated in terms of congruence:

H_0 (7) : $\overline{m} = m$

H_1 (7) : $\overline{m} \neq m$

H_0 (8) : $\overline{cm} = cm$

H_1 (8) : $\overline{cm} \neq cm$

H_0 (9) : $\overline{mcm} = \overline{m}cm = mc\overline{m} = mcm$

H_1 (9) : $\overline{mcm} \neq \overline{m}cm \neq m\overline{cm} \neq mcm$

These hypotheses were tested by means of a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance. The results are shown in table 5.8.

TABLE 5.8.

POST-EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (CONGRUENCE)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Degrees of Freedom	F	Prob. of F exceeded
Video-modelling	,82082	1	8,76992*	,005
Contrast-video-modelling	,00306	1	,03272	,857
Interaction	,08556	1	,91498	,345
Error	3,36943	36		

*Significant at the 5%-level.

TABLE 5.9

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE DIFFERENT GROUPS (CONGRUENCE)

Video-modelling	Contrast-video-modelling: No contrast-video-modelling	Contrast-video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ of video-model group
No video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ = 1,275 s = ,35056	$\bar{X}$ = 1,200 s = ,166	1,24
Video-modelling	$\bar{X}$ = 1,469 s = ,377	$\bar{X}$ = 1,576 s = ,28	1,5
$\bar{X}$ of contrast-video-modelling group	1,37	1,39	

According to the data obtained in table 5.9, it appears that the groups receiving video-modelling as a technique obtained higher means in congruence than those not receiving video-modelling.

The following conlusions may be drawn from the data in table 5.8:

H_0 : rejected

H_1 : accepted at the 5%-level of significance

H_0 : accepted

H_1 : rejected

H_0 : accepted

H_1 : rejected

It appears that video-modelling as a strategy was significant

in bringing about a change (at the 5%-level). Contrast-video-modelling had no effect on congruence, nor did the interaction of both strategies succeed in bringing about a change.

5.3. SUMMARY

The results of this experiment are summarized in table 5.10. The meaning attached to the symbols is as follows:

* The independent variable exerted a statistically signi= ficant effect (at the 5%-level) on the dependent variable,

o No significant effect (at the 5%-level) was exerted by the independent variable on the dependent variable.

TABLE 5.10

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Independent variables	Dependent Variables: Empathy	Respect	Congruence
Video-modelling	*	*	*
Contrast-video-modelling	o	o	o
Interaction	o	o	o

From these results it may be concluded that:

(a) Video-modelling appears to be an effective technique in improving the core dimensions of interpersonal communi= cation. In this experiment the results show that vi= deo-modelling, as a strategy, had a significant effect on empathy, respect and congruence. These findings are in line with the quoted research on modelling mentioned earlier. The hypothesis formulated with regard to

video-modelling can thus be accepted.

(b) Contrast-video-modelling as a strategy had no effect on the core-dimensions of interpersonal communication. The hypothesis formulated with regard to contrast-video mo= delling can thus be accepted.

(c) The interaction of Contrast-video-modelling and Video-mo= delling as a strategy had no effect on the core-commu= nication dimensions. The hypothesis formulated with regard to the interaction effect of both strategies must therefore be rejected.

In the following section, the experimental findings will be discussed from within General System Theory with special em= phasis on the cybernetic cycle. As mentioned earlier the unfreezing stage of learning may be seen as the stage of goal acquisition in the cybernetic cycle and the change phase as strategy implementation.

5.4 DISCUSSION

(a) Video-modelling

The video-modelling may be seen as input available to the experimental subject. This input was non-threaten= ing as it was not feedback of her own behavior. Be= cause of this, it could not have effected the steady state and the system was open for learning. Unfreez= ing was made possible because there was a 'lack of con= firmation or disconfirmation' and an atmosphere of psychological safety was created. Furthermore a

certain amount of guilt anxiety could have been induced as the subject privately compared her own communication with the good information exchange of the models. The subject could then have become ready for change and her goals become compatible with those of the researcher. Her cybernetic self-control cycle could have been activ= ated as she 'scanned the interpersonal environment' and 'identified with a model'. Thus, by means of video-modelling and concrete-experiencing in the laboratory situation, learning could possibly have taken place.

(b) Contrast-video-modelling

Contrast modelling may also be seen as input available to the experimental subject. Again, it was non-threat= ening as it was not feedback of her own behavior and thus would not effect the steady state of the system. However, even though the subject might tend towards unfreezing by the creation of a psychologically safe environment and lack of confirmation or disconfirmation, it is unlikely that unfreezing could take place com= pletely. This is because no guilt arousal would take place, (the subject could possibly presume that her own communication was better than that of the models). Con= sequently she would be unlikely to identify with a model and no change would take place.

(c) The interaction of Contrast-video-modelling and video-modelling. The hypothesis formulated with regard to the interaction effect of both strategies was rejected. The reason for this could be in a combination of one or more of the following factors:

The input did not succeed in activating the individual's cybernetic self-control cycle. The initial instructions did not motivate the subjects sufficiently for them to attend to the finer detail of the contrast-modelling even though they were aware of the fact that the modelling of good communication abilities would follow. Perhaps the nature of the contrast-modelling was too non-threatening to facilitate the attentional processes necessary for discriminative observation. This could have resulted in an effect completely opposite to the effect of feedback. Whereas feedback is too threatening to facilitate change, contrast-modelling could be too far-removed from the individuals experiencing to have an effect. It was hypothesized at the outset of the experiment that the contrast-modelling would tend the individual towards unfreezing and the interaction of the video-modelling would complete the process and provide the necessary model for identification. Results show that this did not occur. Seeing that the video-modelling on its own was successful perhaps the fault lies in the inability of the contrast-modelling to have an effect on goal acquisition and total unfreezing.

In the light of the foregoing, the following questions and suggestions for future research include:

(a) What would the effect be if finer discriminatory skills were taught to the subjects prior to the experiment?

(b) What would the results be if the subjects were made more

aware of the importance of communication prior to the experiment - would they not be better motivated?

(c) Would the same results be obtained if males were included in the sample?

(d) What would the effect be if subjects were exposed to more repeated modelling?

(e) Would the same results be obtained if the sample was drawn from other populations?

SUMMARY

In this study, an attempt has been made to investigate the influence of video-modelling and contrast video-modelling on communication.

General System Theory (particularly the cybernetic cycle) was chosen as the basic vantage point and communication and modelling were reformulated from within this frame of reference.

A survey of the recent research literature seems to indicate that video-feedback as a strategy proves to be too threatening to the subjects and consequently arouses resistance to change. Therefore, it was decided to concentrate on modelling as a strategy and an attempt was made to create models that would enable the subjects to discriminate between effective and ineffective communication. The video-modelling in this study entails the modelling of good communication abilities and the contrast video-modelling, the modelling of poor communication abilities. The independent variables (strategies) in this study are then video-modelling and contrast-video-modelling. The dependent variables chosen are the three primary core-communication dimensions (empathy, respect and congruence). The Carkhuff scale was used to measure the levels of functioning of the subjects on the dependent variables before and after the experimental manipulation.

Using a table of random numbers, a sample of forty subjects was chosen from a population of female first year psychology students.

Each subject was randomly assigned into one of four groups, namely a video-modelling group, a contast-video modelling group, a video-modelling and a contrast-video-modelling group and finally a group that received neither strategy and that acted as a control group.

The experiment was conducted in a laboratory analogue situa= tion as a conversation between an experimental subject and a psychologist posing a problem to the subject. Four five-minute conversations were held, the first and third served as practice sessions, while the second and fourth were video-taped as the pre- and post-experimental manipulation sessions. The relevant experimental manipulation took place between the second and the third conversations. The data obtained from the pre- and post-experimental manipulation was analysed by means of 2 x 2 factorial analyses of variance. Results of the pre-experimental manipulation data showed that the subjects were equal in terms of the core-dimensions and that the allocation into groups had not exerted an influence on their functioning in terms of empathy, respect and congruence.

In conclusion, the following results were obtained:

(a) Video-modelling as a strategy was effective in bringing about a change in the primary-core-dimensions. Previous research findings were thus corroborated and it appears as if video-modelling does not arouse resistance to change.

(b) Contrast video-modelling as a strategy did not succeed in bringing about a change in the primary core-dimensions.

(c) The interaction of both strategies did not bring about a

change in the primary core-dimensions and was thus inef=
fective as a discriminatory strategy.

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APPENDIX A

1.

*T. Yes Karin, hoe's dinge.

**K. Sleg dankie.

T. Weer?

K. Ja (Pouse)

T. Wat is dit die keer?

K. Die gewone probleem.

T. Maar jy is net 'n probleem.

K. Ek kan nie help ek het probleme nie. Enige mens het mos probleme. Hoe gaan ek dit oplos. Jy is mos hier om my te help om dit op te los.

T. Soos hoe?

K. Kan jy nie dink aan 'n metode of om een of ander probleem op te los nie, ongeag van die aard daarvan.

T. Nou maar kyk, dit help nou nie dat ons so daaroor praat nie, maar as ek nie weet wat is jou probleem nie, hoe wil jy hê ek moet jou help? So by the way.

K. My probleem is akademies, ek sê mos dis 'n baie algeme= ne probleem.

T. Algemeen, ja gewis. Wie het nie akademie nie?

K. Dit is so.

T. Maar in elk geval, wat van die akademie?

K. O, ek het nie predie gekry in my vakke nie, my ouers sê ek moet huistoe gaan en ek wil nie huistoe gaan nie, dit wil sê ek wil volgende semester weer terugkom.

T. Nou hoe het jy gedink, waarmee gaan jy terugkom?

K. Ek gaan maar aan volgende semester, jy kan tog een se= mester herhaal.

---

* T.: Terapeut

** K.: Kliënt

T. Het jy daarvan seker gemaak?

K. Ja, ek is redelik seker, maar hoe dink jy kan ek my pro= bleem oorkom met my ouers?

T. Wat se probleem het jy met hulle?

K. Wel, hulle is tog gekant teen die feit dat ek volgende semester weer gaan terugkom, want ek het 'n flop gemaak van die eerste semester.

T. Maar .... e-e-e ..... toe jy aan die begin van die jaar hier gekom het, het jy nie basies geweet dat jy 'n suk= ses moet maak nie.

K. Ja, ek het, maar op die pad tel 'n mens tog probleme op. Jy besef tog nie voor hoe moeilik die vak eintlik is voordat jy dit nie self doen nie.

T. Wil jy nou vir my sê jy het die ding gedop omdat die vak moeilik is.

K. Tot 'n mate .....

T. Al die vakke?

K. Daar is baie probleme wat inwerk in die loop van die semester.

T. Soos wat?

K. Ag, verhoudingsprobleme, ... jy raak siek in die se= mester, jy verloor belangstelling in 'n afdeling.

T. Maar ons moet nou net onthou daardie 'siekword' van jou, jy geword, waarvan was dit? Dit was omdat jy nie geëet het nie. So ons kan hom, ons kan hom uitreken. Dit was jou eie .....

K. Nee, maar 'n mens kan vir tot 382 dae sonder kos bly soos jy

T. Hoe?

K. Dit-dit staan in jou boek, dit is

T. Nee, wag so 'n bietjie.

K. Dit is onmoontlik om daarvan siek te word.

T. Nee, wag so 'n bietjie, wag so 'n bietjie, wag so bie= tjie. Jy hardloop nou weg.

K. Natuurlik nie. Dit is 'n blote feit.

T. Jy is nou besig om die punt te ontduik, dit gaan daaroor dat jy eintlik nie gewerk het nie. As jy nou rêrig wil hê ek moet vir jou sê wat is jou probleem, dan sê ek dit nou vir jou.

K. Nee, ek het tog gewerk.

T. Jy het soos 'n styltjie op jou bed gesit.

K. Neee-e-e-e-e ..... nee, dit sal ek nie sê nie.

T. Hoeveel keer het ek daar ingekom wat jy gesit en koffie drink het, wat jy moes geswot het, dan sê jy vir my: Môre ????? dan sit jy en koffie drink.

K. Maar natuurlik, enige mens het 'n ruskansie nodig jy begin mos nie die dag voor die tyd swot nie.

T. Maar jy het nie die hele dag nodig nie.
Enige mens. Maar goed. In watter vakke het jy nie predie gekry nie?

K. In twee van die vier.

T. Waffer twee van waffer vier.

K. In Afrikaans en in Duits.

T. Nie, of het jy.

K. Ek het nie.

T. Nou ja, wat is die ander twee.

K. Sielkunde en mmm ... Geskiedenis.

T. Hmm jy is ook maar onseker oor wat dit is. Maar in elk geval wat dink jy, wat het met die Afrikaans en die Duits gebeur? Kyk,

K. Wel ek, ek .... ek het tot 'n mate belangstelling ver= loor, dit was moeilik en die werk was baie en ek het nie bygehou nie en toe ek nie byhou nie, toe los ek dit. Sommer.

T. Nou maar kyk nou net wat het jy daar gemaak ..... Hey ..... kyk wat het jy daar gemaak. Jy het belang= stelling verloor en opgehou, met ander woorde wat eint= lik daar gebeur het, is dat jy eers opgehou het. Jy het nie rêrig probeer om aan te hou nie. Jy het som= mer net in die middel besluit dis nou vere hierdie.....

K. Nee, maar 'n mens kan tog nie die probleem daar wil soek nie. Daar moet tog ook ander redes wees. Ek kan nie net daaroor wil gedop het nie, of nie predie wou gekry het nie.

T. Maar as jy.

K. Maar jy moet my nou help.

T. Maar wag nou.

K. Met my werklike probleem. Ek wil volgende semester te= rugkom. Dit worry my nie oor wat se vakke ek volgende semester aangaan nie, ek wil

T. Maar hoe kan dit?

K. Ek wil volgende semester terugkom.

T. En waarvoor wil jy so graag terugkom?

K. Natuurlik nie, ek kan mos maar vakke in 'n volgende se= mester draf in die volgende jaar.

T. Nou, maar hoekom wil jy so graag terugkom?

K. Wel, ek wil nie nou al gaan werk nie.

T. Is dit die enigste rede waarom jy wil terugkom.

K. Ja.

T. Maar dan gaan jy mos weer dop.

K. Nee, ek sal dit nie weer.

T. Maar wil jy hê ek moet die probleem vir jou oplos?

K. Natuurlik. Jy is mos hier om my probleme op te los. Jy kan my mos help.

T. Ee-e-e-e. Dit is 'n fyn een daardie. Moet ek nou vir jou belangstelling en goed gee in goed wat jy nie het nie?

K. Ek sê nie jy moet vir my belangstelling gee nie, jy kan my net 'n idee gee wat om aan my ouers voor te stel om ... sodat ek volgende semester weer kan terugkom.

T. Wel, dit sal definitief 'n goeie rede moet wees.

K. Nogal ja.

T. Die indruk wat ek gekry het, is dat hulle nie baie te= vrede is met die manier waarop jy hierdie semester han= teer het nie.

K. Nee .... nie juis nie ..... Nie dat hulle juis belangstel nie.

T. O-o-o-o-o ..... So hulle gee ook nie eintlik veel om nie.

K. O wel, dit gaan vir hulle net om die feit dat ek moet deurkom.

T. O, hulle stel darem daarin belang.

K. Natuurlik! Enige ouer gaan daarin belangstel.

T. Maar jy sê dan nou net hulle gee nie om nie.

K. Solank ek net nie hulle geld mors nie, maar ek is nou besig om hulle geld te mors.

T. Dit .. dit ....

K. Dit pla hulle ook nie wat ek swot nie.

T. Nee, dit is hoog tyd dat jy dit besef. Maar ek kan net nie sien wat jy volgende semester wil kom swot nie,

want-want dit is net die wet van gemiddeldes bepaal net eenvoudig dat as jy goed doen waar jy nie belangstel nie, kyk wat het hierdie semester gebeur met die Duits en die Afrikaans. Die belangstelling het net opgehou en jy het opgehou werk. Met ander woorde as jy volgende kwartaal terugkom, al vat jy ook wat ..... al social jy ook net, en jy like dit nie, dan sal jy dit in elk geval nie nie daarvan hou nie. Dan sal jy in elk ge= val 'n mislukking maak.

K. Nee, dit is nie so nie.

T. Wie sê dis nie so nie?

K. Ek het dan my ander twee vakke deurgekom.

T. Dan kan jy mos vir hulle terugkom.

K. Nou ja.

T. Nou hoekom vra jy dan vir my met wat moet jy terugkom?

K. Ek kan mos ander vakke neem van my tweede semester af?

T. Maar dan besluit jy mos wat jy mee wil terugkom.

K. Maar die feit bly staan dat my ouers wil nie hê ek moet terugkom nie. En dit is die probleem waarmee ek sit. Dit gaan nie vir my om die vakke wat ek moet neem nie, dit gaan vir my om die feit dat ek nie weer mag terug= kom nie.

T. Maar jy het dan netnou vir my gesê hulle sê jy moet deurkom. Dan wil hulle mos hê jy moet terugkom. Wat sê hulle van die twee vakke wat jy gekry het?

K. Nie juis veel nie.

APPENDIX A

2.

*K. Hoor hier, ek het 'n probleem waaroor ek met jou wil ge=sels.

**T. Praat maar.

K. Man, ek kan nie verstaan hoekom dit is dat mans nie kan verstaan dat 'n mens nie 'n platoniese vriendskap wil hê nie.

T. Lag..... Wat bedoel jy met platonies?

K. Ag man, nee. Nee ... e-e-e ek bedoel dit nou nie ern=stig .... hmmm. kyk, ek-ek het daar is 'n paar ander ouens wat my uitneem. Nou hulle is vir my fantastiese ouens, ek hou vreeslik baie van hulle. En-en-en ek wil met hulle uitgaan, maar ek-ek wil nie hulle verhinder nie.

T. Was jy al by 'n dokter gewees oor so 'n bietjie .....

K. Ag nee man. Nee e-e-e.

T. Nee, ek is ernstig. Nee ek meen daar is tog sekere fi=siese dinge wat 'n ou ook eers moet ondersoek voordat 'n ou begin kyk na ander probleme.

K. Ag nee, nee, nee, jy verstaan my verkeerd. Nee daar is ouens tot wie ek aangetrokke is, maar nie hulle nie.

T. O, jy voel aangetrokke tot hulle.

K. Nee .... lag. Ag nee man, luister na wat ek sê.

T. Okay.

K. Kyk ... ek-ek voel aangetrokke tot party ouens.

T. Maar dit is tog logies ek meen

K. Ja, dit is logies nou-nou daar het jy dit.

T. Ja.

---

* T.: Terapeut

** K.: Kliënt

K. Nou is daar ander ouens wat my uitneem.

T. Hmmmm.

K. En-en ek hou van hulle, dit is vir my fantastiese ouens, maar ek wil nie 'n verhouding met hulle hê nie. Nou-nou ..

T. Maar jy het mos hierdie paar nou tot wie jy nou baie aangetrokke

K. Ja, maar hulle is nie aangetrokke tot my nie, verstaan.

T. O, ek verstaan. Die ouens wat jy like, like jou nie.

K. Lag ook nie man. Kyk, jy kan dit seker so sê.

T. Ja, want jy, ja soos jy gesê het.

K. Maar-maar daar is nou 'n paar ouens wat my uitneem en ek hou van hulle, maar ek wil net met hulle uitgaan. Dit is vir my verskriklik interessante mense om mee uit te gaan. Maar jy verstaan daar is onderskeid. Daar is party mense wat vir jou dit opwindend dis lekker, dit is pret om saam met hulle êrens heen te gaan en maar jy wil nie verhouding hê nie.

T. Ja.

K. Nou kan die ouens dit nie verstaan nie. Sodra jy sê jy gaan met hulle uit, jy gaan saam met hulle êrens heen, dan dink hulle jy stem ook in outomaties tot 'n verhouding.

T. Nou, maar is dit nie in wese maar so nie. Gestel nou iemand wil my nou date, jy verstaan.

K. Ja, maar ek verduidelik dit vir hulle.

T. Hmm.

K. Ek sê

T. O, jy sê voor die tyd vir hulle jy gaan maar dit gaan nou net wees om die aand nou soort van oppervlakkig te geniet.

K. Nee, nie die eerste keer, die eerste keer wat 'n ou nou vir my so uitvat, sal ek dit nou nie sê nie, maar sê nou maar hy begin my nou gereeld uitneem of so, dan sal ek sê right ek sal met jou uitgaan, ek hou daarvan, maar hmmm. ek wil nie 'n verhouding, 'n nooi/kêrel of-of- wat se ookal tipe verhouding hê nie.

T. Dink jy nie jy is besig om hulle so 'n bietjie (lag) ek meen as jy as jy, as jy nou 'n ou, maar nou hier vra jy nou vir iemand of jy laat iemand gaan tot op 'n sekere punt en dan skielik dan begin jy nou keer en dan sê jy nee, hokaai, nou gaan ons nie meer verder nie. Is jy nie besig om hulle net te probeer

K. Nee-e-e maar kyk, ek laat hulle nou nie dik vry voor die tyd of iets nie. Ek-ek-ek gaan maar net met hulle uit ek bedoel dit-dit-dit is mos niks nie.

T. Maar jy lei hulle dan na daardie punt toe.

K. Nee, ek lei hulle nêrens nie, hulle gaan self soontoe.

T. Jrrr. Ja, en dan?

K. Wel dan niks nie. Dan sit ek met die probleem. Dan op die ou end voel ek jong maar nou ... e-e-e.

T. Nou weet jy half self nie wat jou probleem is nie .... (Lag) ...

K. Nee, ek weet baie goed wat my probleem is, dit is net om dit aan jou oorgedra te kry.

T. Right, sê maar weer.

K. Kyk, okay, dan kommmmm dit nou tot op 'n punt w-w-waar jy is miskien, nee, dit is ook nie reg nie, maar wat ek voel e-e-e-e-e daar gaan die persoon te ver. Verder as wat ek wil gaan. Dan-dan-dan

T. Dit is nou na jy hom gelei het tot daar?

K. Nee, ek het hom nie gelei tot daar nie. Ek het net

eenvoudig met hom uitgegaan.

T. O, jy was nie spontaan in die hele proses nie. Jy het niks spontaan uitgegaan en so aan nie.

K. Ja maa

T. En toe gebeur dit toe nou so dat hulle soort van verlief raak op jou en so aan .... en hier kom die probleem nou.

K. Ja, maar jy stel dit so verdomp lelik.

T. Maar dit is soos ek dit sien. Is dit so.

K. Ja, maar ek.

T. Is dit nie wat jy besig is om te doen met hulle nie?

K. Ne-e-e-e. Hoekom as jy doodnormaal met 'n ou 'n paar keer uitgaan, verlei jy 'n ou of jy-jy-jy lei hom om die bos of so iets.

T. Ek weet nie, hierdie hele probleem lyk vir my maar cra= zy want dit is net die omgekeerde van wat die mans ge= woonlik sê. Maar anyhow.

K. Wat sê die mans gewoonlik?

T. Hmm. Hulle neem 'n meisie uit en dan vat hulle haar tot op 'n punt. (Lag) Jy vat die mans tot op 'n sekere punt en dan stop jy skielik. Dit. Ek kry so 'n funny idee jy kyk hoe ver jy kan met hulle gaan. Tot op 'n sekere punt en dan wil jy vir hulle sê hokaai, wag, nou wil ek niks meer met jou te doen hê nie. Dit kan mos nie werk nie.

K. Maar ek wil nie.

T. Nee, geen man kan daarmee tevrede wees nie. Ek sou nie daarmee tevrede wees nie. Nooit nie.

K. Nee, maar kyk, ek wil dit-dit-dit is nie dat ek hulle tot op 'n punt en-en-en as dit nou kom waar dit vir my lyk asof ek die ou nou begin verlei of hy begin idees

kry, dan sal ek my saak stel en ek sal sê, nee, kyk hier= voor sien ek nou nie verder kans nie.

T. Orraait, orraait goed, dit is heeltemal mooi. Dit is nog reg.

K. Maar verstaan hulle dit nie?

T. O, ek sien, ja.

K. Hulle ver

T. uh, nou maar goed, wat sê jy nou wat kan die rede nou eintlik daarvoor wees? Hulle verstaan dit nou nie.

K. Ek kan nie verstaan hoekom hulle dit nie verstaan nie, want dit is vir my

APPENDIX B

1.

*T. Haai Karin, hoe's dit?

**K. Sleg dankie.

T. Sleg?

K. Ja. ..... Ek het 'n probleem ..... My akademie.

T. Dit klink of dit jou erg opkeil.

K. Dit doen ja ....., ek het net predikaat vir twee vakke ..... Wat dink jy kan ek doen? Het jy enige oplossing?

T. Miskien moet ek dan net eers by jou hoor. Ontstel dit jou dat jy dit nie het nie? m.a.w. dink jy dat ... dat daar iets gebeur het dat jy dit nie het nie?

K. Daar is 'n verskeidenheid dinge wat aanleiding daartoe gegee het dat ek dit nie het nie. Daar het dinge ge= beur, maar aan die ander kant kan 'n mens dit nie so direktief sê nie ..... Aan die eenkant is dit belangstelling wat ek verloor het, aan die anderkant het ek siek geword ..... maar ek wil graag volgen= de semester terugkom en ek mag nie volgende semster te= rugkom nie. Want my ouers het nie die geld om te betaal dat ek volgende semester weer kan herhaal nie. Dit wil sê, dit gaan aanleiding daartoe gee dat ek volgende jaar een semester moet oordoen ..... en ek het al klaar nie die geld vir volgende semester nie, maar ek kan dit in die hande kry, maar vir volgende jaar gladnie .....

T. Het jy die saak met hulle bespreek?

K. Ja. So tussen die lyne. Hulle weet my akademie is taamlik vrot.

---

* T.: Terapeut

**K.: Kliënt

T. Jy sê vir my so tussen die lyne.

K. Ja, dit wil sê ek het nog nie direk vir hulle gesê kyk ek wil nou 'n ekstra semester herhaal nie.

T. So die...die goeters wat jy nou noem dat jy nie geld het nie en dat daar gladnie geld beskikbaar sal wees nie, dit het jy nog nie van hulle direk gehoor nie.

K. Nee. Nee. En dit is my eintlike probleem.....

T. Ek lei daaruit af dat jy 'n bietjie bang is om vir hul= le te vra.

K. Ja ... inteendeel voel ek baie bang om vir hulle te vertel, want dit is nou al die einde van die semester .....

T. En waarom is jy bang om vir hulle te vertel?

K. Wel..... hulle is baie negatief ten opsigte van sulke dinge. Hulle het nog almal altyd baie hoë verwagtings gehad. Ek het daaraan voldoen tot in my derde jaar en nou ewe skielik dop ek .....

T. Wat laat jou dink dat hulle dit nie sal kan verstaan nie?

K. Nee. Hulle sal nie, want daar is geldelike probleme. Dit is basies onmoontlik vir hulle om dit te verstaan .....

T. Maar jy, jyself, voel jy dat hulle dit behoort te ver= staan? Of is dit net jou verstand wat dit vir jou sê?

K. Nee..... Ek verwag eintlik hulle gaan nie verstaan en ek weet nie wat om aan die probleem te doen nie. Ek weet nie hoe om terug te reageer nie. Want ek het geen verweer nie ek het dan gedop daar is die bewys ..... So wat kan ek vir my ouers sê om hulle te oortuig dat ek nog 'n semester moet terugkom? en dat dit nie onmoontlik is om die geld êrens vir my te kry

nie. Dit is tog nie so onmoontlik om een semester se geld te kry nie, is dit?

T. As jy die vraag vir my vra, dan lyk dit vir my of jy die moontlikheid oorweeg dat dit wel moontlik kan wees.

K. Dit is tog wel moontlik. 'n Mens moet êrens in die wê= reld geld kan leen, maar die probleem is vir my om my ouers te oortuig om my te laat terugkom.

T. En wat sal jy dink sal vir hulle .... ek wil amper sê genoegsame motivering wees dat jy kan terugkom. Wat sou jy vir hulle kon sê wat dit vir hulle aanvaarbaar sal maak dat jy sal kan terugkom.

K. Wel, ek sou net kon aanvoer dat ek in die verlede wel deurgekom het, en dit is tog net hierdie semester wat ek sleg gedoen het en dan sal ek net volgende semester baie goed moet doen .....

T. Sou daar iets, in die redes vir die neerlaag of die mislukking, die akademiese mislukking wees, wat vir hulle aanvaarbaar sal wees?

K. Hulle weet ek was siek, maar die siekte was nie so ern= stig dat dit my, dat my akademie daaronder moes ly nie. Ek kon dit tog inhaal want ek was net 'n week in die bed.

T. 'n Week in die bed?

K. Ja.

T. Wat ek nou daaruit wil aflei, nou kan jy my reghelp. Is dit nie miskien die vereistes wat jy aan jouself stel nie?

K. Ek stel dit tot 'n mate aan myself, maar my ouers ken my tog baie goed. Ek is openlik teenoor hulle.

T. Dit beteken? .....

K. Dit beteken dat hulle weet ek het slap getrek en ek sal

kan deurkom as ek 'n volgende semester moet herhaal sal ek dit definitief deurkom. ..... Dit gaan net vir my oor die feit dat ek genoegsame motivering moet hê om vir hulle te kan sê, kyk ek sal dit deurkom en dat hulle vir my die geld moet kry, maar op hierdie oomblik kan ek hul= le nie oortuig nie. Hulle is onoortuigbaar.

T. Dit lyk vir my so al as of dit is soos wat jỳ oor die saak dink, want netnou het jy vir my gesê dat jy die saak nog nie so direk met hulle bespreek het nie.

K. Nee, ek het nie, maar in die verlede as gesprekke daar= natoe geneig het, dan was dit tog hulle eerste reaksie. Moontlik veralgemeen ek maar. Maar dit was tog hulle eerste reaksie wat kan ek daaraan doen en ek verwag dit weer van hulle.

T. Met ander woorde die feit dat jy dit van hulle verwag, maak dit vir jou amper onmoontlik om dit vir hulle te sê.

K. Ja ..... Dit is so, want ek berei my tog voor op iets negatiefs.

T. Netnou het jy vir my gesê dat hulle eerste reaksie is gewoonlik dit, maar was dit hulle enigste reaksie?

K. Tot dusver was dit tot 'n mate nog hulle enigste reak= sie, want ek praat nooit, of ek praat baie min met hul= le in daardie rigting, want ek weet dit is 'n sensitie= we punt as gevolg van 'n geld probleem.

T. Watter manier het jy gedink om hulle te motiveer? Om vir jou geld in die hande te kry.

K. Wel, al wat ek kan doen, is om hulle te oortuig om dit vir my te kry want ek kan dit nie self kry nie. Ek is nog nie eers mondig nie, nou waar moet ek dit kry? So my Pa moet dit vir my namens my kry. Dit is al.

T. En hoe het jy gedink gaan jy hom daartoe oorreed?

K. Ek kan hul net meer positief laat instel teenoor my deur vir hulle te sê of basies ook te motiveer om te aanvaar dat ek sal deurkom want ek het in die verlede deurgekom. Maar die ding is ek weet nie hoe of op watter wyse ek hulle moet benader nie, want op hierdie oomblik weet ek hulle gaan negatief wees. Hulle moet net negatief wees, want ek het verloor .....

APPENDIX B

2.

*T. Hoor hier Hester, nou wat is nou eintlik aan die gang? Soos jy dit nou stel, What's cooking?

**K. Ek het die probleem, ek kan nie verstaan hoekom kan mans nie verstaan dat 'n mens net 'n platoniese vriendskap wil hê nie.

T. Nou wat bedoel jy met 'n platoniese vriendskap?

K. Man kyk, daar is sekere ouens wat my uitneem. Orraait! Ek vind hulle verskriklike interessante mense en .. en en ek vind dit vreeslik stimulerend om om om saam met hulle te wees, maar, ek wil nie e-e-e-e 'n verhouding as sulks met hulle hê nie ... en .... en en dan vind ek dit vreeslik moeilik om hierdie soort van dubbele boodskap amper oor te dra aan die persoon: Luister, m-m-m ek sal met jou uitgaan as jy wil hê, ek hou vreeslik baie van jou geselskap ek hou van jou ens. maar ek is nie bereid om die verhouding verder te voer nie. Tot hier toe, ek gaan tot op hierdie punt en-en-en verder ga-gaan e-e-ek nie betrokke raak nie.

T. Right. Met ander woorde hy moet net tot op 'n sekere punt kom en dan roep jy hokaai.

K. Ja.

T. En dit vind hulle nou baie moeilik om te verstaan?

K. Hulle kan dit nie verstaan nie. Jy weet en ek-ek-ek het al begin wonder of-of-of ek dit nie 'n basiese ver=skil tussen 'n man en 'n vrou is nie, dat dit vir 'n vrou moontlik is om 'n platoniese vriendskap met 'n man te hê, maar dit is verskriklik moeilik vir 'n man

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* T.: Terapeut

** K.: Kliënt

om dit te aanvaar.

T. Maar hoe het jy dit ondervind met daardie ouens wat jy ...

K. Ek ondervind geen probleme daarmee nie. Vir my is dit net doodnatuurlike ding om-om uit te gaan met 'n ou as-as-as net 'n pêl, maar dan begin dit vir my voel asof-of-of ek miskien onredelik is want-want-want die ouens hmm. verstaan nie of hulle sê hulle verstaan dit maar dan kom hulle agter hulle verstaan dit nie rêrig nie.

T. Jy begin amper 'n bietjie bekommerd raak daaroor. Jy dink dalk die fout kan by jou wees?

K. Joe, dit is swaar .... hoe sal ek nou soort van doelbe= wus hmmm. nou-nou-nou die ouens onder die verkeerde in= druk probeer bring. Ek-ek-ek het tot die slotsom ge= kom, maar e-e-e ja, ek ek begin nou half bekommerd raak daaroor.

T. Miskien is dit iets wat jy doen wat nie reg is nie.

K. Ja.

T. Wat maak dat die mans dit nie insien nie.

K. Ja, m-m-m miskien is-is dit dat ek weet nie hoe om dit te verduidelik nie. Kyk ek-ek hou van die aandag wat ek kry, né?

T. O ja.

K. M-m-m-miskien is dit nie net dat ek hou van-van-van soort van die feit dat hulle nou vreeslike intellektu= ele of vreeslike interessante mense is nie, nie net dit nie, dit is die aandag wat ek van hulle kry ook.

T. Gaan aan.

K. Anders weet ek nie hoe dit werk nie, of-of-of ek dan omdat ek daarvan hou soort van sê ek gaan net tot op

'n punt maar dit wat ek sover nie-verbaal oordra sê ek meer.

T. Jy weet, as jy nou so daaroor praat, dan kry ek amper die idee jy is bang .....

K. Nee. Sug. Ek weet nie of ek bang is nie .....

T. Miskien nie .... miskien het ek my verkeerd uitgedruk, nie mmm bang vir die mans nie, maar bang vir iets in jouself soort van.

K. Ek dink ja, ek dink ek is bang, want-want ek dink ek is heeltemal opreg daarin dat ek, dat ek nie betrokke wil raak by daardie persoon nie. Ek-ek weet ek-ek wil nie 'n verhouding hê nie hm-m-m en-en ek weet ook dat ek daai mense se aandag geniet en-en-en graag in 'n gesel= skap is en-en-en dan êrens dan, dat ek hulle gebruik miskien.

T. M-m-m-m. Hoe bedoel jy "gebruik"?

K. Deurdat hulle dit nie snap nie. Hulle-hulle sien dit nie in dieselfde lig as ek nie.

T. En jy, dit is amper asof jy die gevoel kry dat hulle jou soort gaan verwerp as hulle dit nie insien nie?

K. Ja, miskien as-as-as-as hulle tot die gevolgtrekking kom e-e-e ek stel hoegenaamd nie in hulle belang behal= we as-as-as blote pêlle dat hulle my dan sal ....

T. Jy meen dat as hulle jou verwerp, dan gaan dit 'n ver= skriklike slegte ding wees, dan kry jy uit die situasie niks nie, hoegenaamd niks nie.

K. In sommige opsigte sal dit niks wees nie, maar-maar in 'n ander opsig nie, want ek gaan juis met hulle uit om= dat hulle vir my interessant is. Dit-dit-dit-dit is nie 'n emosionele ding nie, of-of-of nie soseer 'n emo= sionele ding nie.

T. Maar nou verstaan ek nie mooi nie, want jy kry iets uit die situasie uit wat vir jou lekker is, maar terselfder= tyd in daardie selfde situasie is daar iets waarteen jy skop.

K. Maar ek sal jou sê hoekom.

T. Hmmm?

K. Want die jong mense wat vir my interessant is-is-is dis mense wat, hoe kan mens dit sê, dit is nie Freaks of dit nie, maar-maar dit is mense wat-wat redelik radikaal is in een of ander opsig e-e-e dit is 'n ou wat verskriklik kunstig is, of hy dig of hy is, of enige sulke tipe van goed, met die gevolg dat dit stimuleer maar ek wil nie uiteindelik trou met iemand wat ek voel daardie mens het ook sekere "hang-ups" en goed wat ek nie te doen mee wil hê nie.

T. Hmmm. Jy gaan met hierdie ouens uit wat eintlik 'n bietjie snaakserig is, maar nogtans geniet jy hulle ge= selskap?

K. Maar ek geniet dit omdat hulle snaakserig is, maar ek wil nie met 'n snaakserige ou trou nie.

T. Ja.

K. Om dit nou so blatant te stel.

T. Nou voel dit amper vir my asof jy vir my sê nou voel ek 'n bietjie skuldig daaroor omdat ek hulle soort van ge= bruik....

APPENDIX C

1. Karen kom kla by die Voorligter dat sy nie kan konsen= treer nie. Haar aandag bly afdwaal.

2. Estelle is 'n derdejaar student wat vir die eerste keer op varsity haar vaste verhouding met haar vriend ver= breek het. Sy is baie teneergedruk en voel dat sy nie weer sal vassleep nie. Hulle het twee jaar lank uit= gegaan.

3. Anita is 'n tweedejaarstudent en sy voel dat sy nie aan= vaar word in die koshuis nie. Die eerstejaars is te kinderagtig en die derdejaars sien haar, volgens haar, nog as eerstejaar.

4. Constanze se ouers het gesê sy moet Universiteit toe kom. Sy wil nie hier wees nie.

APPENDIX D

1.

Wat is goeie kommunikasie?

Met wie gesels u die graagste? Die mense met wie ons eer= der gesels is die mense wat na ons luister, wat ons belang= rik laat voel en die indruk gee dat hulle ons gevoelens en denke verstaan. Dit is die mense wat ontspanne is in ons teenwoordigheid en by wie ons ontspanne kan wees. Dit is die mense wat ons vertrou en by ons veilig genoeg voel om die dinge na vore te bring wat ons moeilik selfs aan ons= self erken.

Die komponente van hierdie tipe verhouding is die bereidheid om werklik te luister, te verstaan en die ander persoon toe te laat om te wees wat hy is. Die voorvereiste is dat ons opreg moet wees in ons gewilligheid om 'n verhouding op die manier aan te knoop. Dit is diegene wat hierdie bereidheid het wat daartoe in staat is om die maniere waarop hulle hul= le egtheid kommunikeer te verbeter.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om maniere te ondersoek wat dit makliker sal maak vir hierdie persone om hulle kom= munikasietegnieke te oefen te te verbeter.

APPENDIX D

2.

Wat is goeie kommunikasie?

Met wie gesels u die graagste? Die mense met wie ons eer= der gesels is die mense wat na ons luister, wat ons belang= rik laat voel en die indruk gee dat hulle ons gevoelens en denke verstaan. Dit is die mense wat ontspanne is in ons teenwoordigheid en by wie ons ontspanne kan wees. Dit is die mense wat ons vertrou en by ons veilig genoeg voel om die dinge na vore te bring wat ons moeilik selfs aan ons= self erken.

Die komponente van hierdie tipe verhouding is die bereidheid om werklik te luister, te verstaan en die ander persoon toe te laat om te wees wat hy is. Die voorvereiste is dat ons opreg moet wees in ons gewilligheid om 'n verhouding op die manier aan te knoop. Dit is diegene wat hierdie bereidheid het wat daartoe in staat is om die maniere waarop hulle hul= le egtheid kommunikeer te verbeter.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om maniere te ondersoek wat dit makliker sal maak vir hierdie persone om hulle kommunikasietegnieke te oefen en te verbeter.

Laat ons dan nou na 'n voorbeeld van goeie kommunikasie kyk.

APPENDIX D

3.

Wat is goeie kommunikasie?

Met wie gesels u die graagste? Die mense met wie ons eer= der gesels is die mense wat na ons luister, wat ons belang= rik laat voel en die indruk gee dat hulle ons gevoelens en denke verstaan. Dit is die mense wat ontspanne is in ons teenwoordigheid en by wie ons ontspanne kan wees. Dit is die mense wat ons vertrou en by ons veilig genoeg voel om die dinge na vore te bring wat ons moeilik selfs aan ons= self erken.

Die komponente van hierdie tipe verhouding is die bereid= heid om werklik te luister, te verstaan en die ander persoon toe te laat om te wees wat hy is. Die voorvereiste is dat ons opreg moet wees in ons gewilligheid om 'n verhouding op die manier aan te knoop. Dit is diegene wat hierdie bereid= heid het wat daartoe in staat is om die maniere waarop hul= le hulle egtheid kommunikeer te verbeter.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om maniere te ondersoek wat dit makliker sal maak vir hierdie persone om hulle kommunikasietegnieke te oefen en te verbeter.

Laat ons dan eers na 'n voorbeeld kyk van die kommunikasie wat 'n goeie verhouding in die wiele ry.

APPENDIX D

4.

Wat is goeie kommunikasie?

Met wie gesels u die graagste? Die mense met wie ons eer= der gesels is die mense wat na ons luister, wat ons belang= rik laat voel en die indruk gee dat hulle ons gevoelens en denke verstaan. Dit is die mense wat ontspanne is in ons teenwoordigheid en by wie ons ontspanne kan wees. Dit is die mense wat ons vertrou en by ons veilig genoeg voel om die dinge na vore te bring wat ons moeilik selfs aan onsself erken.

Die komponente van hierdie tipe verhouding is die bereid= heid om werklik te luister, te verstaan en die ander per= soon toe te laat om te wees wat hy is. Die voorvereiste is dat ons opreg moet wees in ons gewilligheid om 'n ver= houding op die manier aan te knoop. Dit is diegene wat hierdie bereidheid het wat daartoe in staat is om die ma= niere waarop hulle hulle egtheid kommunikeer te verbeter.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om maniere te ondersoek wat dit makliker sal maak vir hierdie persone om hulle kom= munikasietegnieke te oefen en te verbeter.

Laat ons dan eers na 'n voorbeeld kyk van die kommunikasie wat 'n goeie verhouding in die wiele ry. Daarna sal ons na 'n voorbeeld van goeie kommunikasie kyk.