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THE EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATORY GROUP PROCESS TRAINING ON THE PERSONAL ORIENTATIONS OF ARMY STUDENT CHAPLAINS

Duie R. Jernigan

Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma
1973

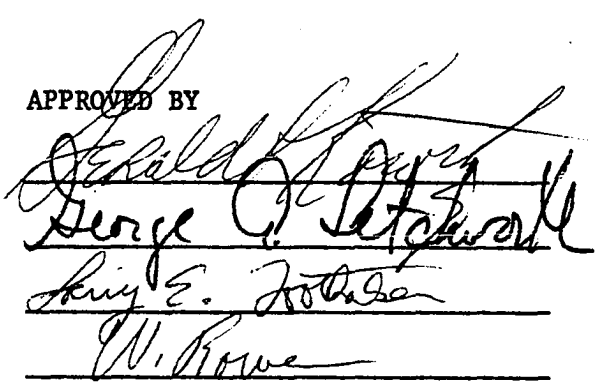
THE EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATORY GROUP PROCESS TRAINING

ON THE PERSONAL ORIENTATIONS

OF

ARMY STUDENT CHAPLAINS

APPROVED BY



DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of participatory group process training on the personal orientations of Army student chaplains. A total of 107 students enrolled in the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course of the US Army Chaplain Center and School (USACHCS) comprised the following research groups: (a) a Participatory Group, composed of seven subgroups of 10 - 11 subjects each, who received training under laboratory conditions which ranged from sensory awareness to task-oriented experiences; (b) a Didactic Group of 11 subjects, whose training was content oriented and which focused primarily on the dissemination of information about group processes; (c) a No Pretest Group of 11 subjects which was included for methodological considerations; and (d) a Control Group of 14 subjects in which training in group process was withheld. Specifically, this study attempted to determine: (a) if movement toward self-actualization would occur as a result of participatory group process training; (b) if Participatory subjects would show greater movement toward self-actualization than either Didactic or Control subjects; and, (c) if a relationship existed between the degree of self-actualization attained and the variables of Previous Group Process Training and Time on Active Duty.

While all Participatory subjects exhibited movement toward self-actualization on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), no evidence was found that these increases were significant. Hypotheses predicting significant increases of Participatory subjects over Didactic and Control subjects were not supported. The degree

of self-actualization attained was found to be modestly related to previous group process training. Time on Active Duty was not related to self-actualization measures.

Implications of this study suggest that: (a) the goals for training following the Group Process Plan (GPP) laboratory model, in terms of expected changes in the personal orientations of group participants, need to be re-examined; (b) future group process laboratories at the Chaplain School might well include a synthesis of participatory and didactic methods; (c) important psycho-social forces exist within groups placing a professional responsibility on leaders to channel them appropriately; and (d) further consideration needs to be given the related issues of establishing more precise criteria by which growth toward self-actualization is judged and of examining more closely the instruments by which it is measured.

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I am greatly indebted to the members of my Dissertation Committee, Dr. Gerald T. Kowitz, Chairman, Dr. George A. Letchworth, Dr. Larry E. Toothaker, and Dr. Wayne Rowe, for their sound advice, kind assistance, and patience.

Finally, this project would never have been completed without the sacrifice, support, and urging of my wife, Norma.

D.R.J.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Background of the Problem

In 1971 the US Army Chaplain Center and School adopted the Group Process Plan (GPP) as the basic method of instruction for its Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-22).[1] To provide the students with the skills, knowledge, and attitudes considered necessary to function effectively within their respective learning groups and to assist them in maximizing their potential as individuals, a GPP preparation laboratory was designed and instituted as a prerequisite to their program of instruction. Two such laboratories have been conducted in connection with this program since its inception. Both were based on two broad assumptions: 1) that certain changes in the personal orientations of chaplains actually do occur as a result of this kind of training, and 2) that the only way to learn group process (and thus bring about these desired changes) is by experiencing it through a participatory approach. To date no one within the school has attempted to test these assumptions. This writer felt they should be tested and the results made available to the school administration for use in its continuing program of evaluation of training methods. Since certain staff and faculty members have expressed interest in extending this approach to other courses within the school, and since no data exists by which to judge its effectiveness, investigation of these assumptions appeared not only desirable, but essential.

The Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the effects of participatory group process training on the personal orientations of Army student chaplains. The central question with which it was concerned was: What are the effects on the personal orientations of Army student chaplains who receive training in group processes under two separate learning conditions? Specifically, this investigator proposed to discover if two weeks of participatory training of a homogeneous group of US Army student chaplains would result in greater movement toward self-actualization (as defined and measured by Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory) than the same amount of training under didactic conditions. From this problem other growth-related questions emerged, namely: 1) Will the student be more inner-directed? 2) Will he be more time competent? 3) Will he show positive gains in self-regard, self-acceptance, and interpersonal sensitivity?

To compare the effectiveness of these two training modes, it was necessary to determine the objectives of such training in terms of self-actualization expectations; design an experiment in which both methods had an equal chance of success; and, scientifically examine the outcomes, statistically testing the differences observed. The research design developed to examine this problem will be explained in Chapter III.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study becomes evident when viewed in light of the following considerations: 1) the changing patterns of on-the-job tasks of Army chaplains, 2) the recent initiation of a counseling program by the Army Chief of Chaplains known as Personal Effectiveness Training,[2] 3) the emphasis currently being placed on human relations training within the chaplaincy, and 4) the possible application of the training procedure described in this study to other courses within the Chaplain School and other schools within the Training and Doctrine Command.

Through its efforts to apply a systems approach to the training requirements of chaplains in the field,[3] a number of counseling related tasks have been identified as being "frequently performed" (e.g., encounter groups, group counseling, Human Self-Development Program, T-group work, and other similar small group processes). Since these are the tasks chaplains actually perform on the job, it is imperative that they be included in the Program of Instruction where the chaplain receives his training. If the efficacy of the laboratory method can be confirmed as described in this study, then its continued use as a means of effective learning of the above tasks is suggested.

As recently as October 1973, the Army Chief of Chaplains announced the beginning of a new program which he has labeled Personal Effectiveness Training. Essentially, the program consists of a series of workshops and conferences to be conducted on the

local installation level where chaplains will be asked to train unit commanders in the basic skills of counseling and interpersonal relationships. Chaplains who have had special training in these areas will be called on to conduct the training. If the effectiveness of the laboratory training method described in this investigation can be confirmed, then those chaplains who have experienced it become ready candidates for leadership in this program, thus enhancing the potential of the Chaplain School.

There is a concerted effort throughout the Army to make the chaplaincy more relevant and effective. Nowhere is this more noticeable than in the Office of the Army Chief of Chaplains. Dr. Cyril Mill, Director of the Center for Systems Change, NTL Institute, has conducted numerous Human Relations Training Laboratories under contract from the Chief of Chaplains in recent months. Based on his understanding of the goals of the chaplaincy, he suggests that there is a concerted effort under way to change the self-concept of the Army chaplain, ". . . from the old to the new, from reactive to proactive" (Mill, 1972). He feels that the chaplain must develop group learning opportunities for individuals and couples; develop creative programs, such as coffee houses and rap sessions; establish interest-oriented action groups; support the professional team concept, and develop a spirit of collegiality in working with fellow chaplains and associates in other disciplines; and, develop groups concerned with drug rehabilitation and racial tensions. If

the hypotheses of this investigation are supported, then confidence can be placed in the laboratory training method as an effective growth-producing procedure for chaplain use in the field.

Since the Chaplain School adopted the GPP in 1971, a high degree of interest has been shown by a number of staff officers within the school, as well as in other military service schools, concerning the applicability of such a model to their particular educational programs. For example, in late 1972 the Chaplain School hosted a Continental Army Command Workshop on the Group Process Plan. While the instructor staff was able to explain the mechanics of GPP and offered the participants opportunities to become involved in participatory group experiences, they were unable to respond to their requests for statistical data concerning the changes claimed to have occured as a result of this procedure. If the results of this study confirm the notion that the participatory approach is more effective than the didactic, and if the changes observed are shown to be valuable in later group member functioning, then this study becomes significant, not only in terms of verifying previous assumptions made about it, but of affirming the necessity of a participatory training model.

CHAPTER II

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

Related Literature

The GPP training laboratory is unique to the US Army Chaplain School in the sense that it has taken a variety of small group training approaches and has tailored them to meet the specific educational needs of the chaplains in training. Generally speaking, it may be said that this approach is concerned with affective (conative) learning and content (cognitive) learning. Implicit in this process is the goal of self-actualization, a concept which will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

The notion of utilizing the interaction processes within small groups to effect desired changes in the personal orientations of its members has attracted the interest of a number of researchers in recent years. Consequently, a fairly large body of literature exists which provide both a reasonable theoretical base for this approach and evidence disclaiming its efficacy. In the literature survey which follows, an attempt will be made to identify and describe briefly those studies which were considered relevant, from a theoretical point of view, to this investigation and which affected the overall research design. It will focus on groups and group process -- specifically encounter groups and laboratory training -- self-actualization, and the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI). Additionally, a review will be made of current theoretical models

of groups, indicating the similarities and differences of these to the GPP training laboratory model employed in this study.

Groups and Group Process

The multiplicity of applications which have been made of the concepts and principles associated with group process (especially in small groups) in recent years, is evidenced by the variety of labels assigned to the various modes and procedures by those who conduct them. The following list summarizes the most common of these approaches (Mann, 1969; Rogers, 1970; Howard, 1970; Burton, 1970; Clinebell, 1971; Siroka, Siroka & Schloss, 1971; Soloman & Berson, 1972):

1. T-group and Laboratory Training. Originally, these groups emphasized the development of the effective human relations skills utilizing the training laboratory model developed by the National Training Laboratories (NTL). With the passing of time they have become much broader in their scope and application.

2. Encounter Group and Sensitivity Training. Frequently referred to as the Basic Encounter Group, or simply Sensitivity Training, this approach places emphasis on self-actualization and self-fulfillment; the development and improvement of interpersonal communication; and the enhancement of interpersonal relationships through experiential involvement.

3. Marathon Group. A special class of sensitivity training, this category derives its distinctiveness from the extended time schedule often associated with it. Rather than conducting a series

of group sessions with regular breaks between (e.g., over a period of several days or weeks), the Marathon Group compresses and concentrates its training into a week-end session or comparable time frame.

4. Task-oriented Group. This approach focuses on the tasks of the group in its interpersonal context and is widely used in business and industry.

5. Sensory Awareness, Body Awareness and Body Movement Groups. These methods tend to emphasize physical awareness and expression through movement, spontaneous dance, and the like.

6. Creativity Workshops. The focus here is on creative expression through various art media -- with individual spontaneity and freedom of expression as the aim.

7. Organization Development Training. The enhancement of leadership skills and effectiveness in institutional group environments is the purpose of this kind of training.

8. Team Building Group. Such are commonly used in business and industry to develop more closely knit and effective working teams.

9. Gestalt Group. The intent of this kind of training is to increase personal awareness, to emphasize the "wholeness" of people, and to assist them in relating to the here and now. A variety of Gestalt therapeutic procedures are employed in this approach.

10. Synanon Group or Game. Groups of this sort were developed in the treatment of drug addicts by the Synanon organization.

They tend to emphasize almost violent attacks on the defences of the participants.

11. Participation Training. The methods employed in this approach were developed primarily for use in adult education programs in churches. Both content and process is emphasized.

Several of these small group approaches are directly related to the theoretical structure of the GPP training laboratory employed in this study.

T-group and laboratory training. Although the objectives of laboratory training vary from location to location and depend primarily on the purposes for which it is conducted, at least four elements appear to be common to the major approaches (Bennis, 1962): 1) an increase in self-insight and self-awareness; 2) a better knowledge of the inhibititive and facilitative conditions which result in interpersonal, group, and intergroup functioning or disfunctioning; 3) a clearer understanding of the communication processes involved in group interaction; 4) improvement in the ability of group members to diagnose individual, group, and organizational behavior; and, 5) greater motivation of group members to improve their skills, knowledge, and attitudes in interpersonal relationships.

The attainment of these objectives rests on certain assumptions about laboratory training, an understanding of which may be helpful in distinguishing between this and the more traditional modes of learning. Five such assumptions have been suggested by Mill and Porter (1971).

1. Learning responsibility. The style, readiness, and relationships he develops with other group members influence what he learns. Thus, by and large, the responsibility for learning rests with the individual's willingness to become involved.

2. Staff role. The staff person is seen as a facilitator -- rather than a content expert or teacher. He focuses on such issues as the way the group is functioning, the style of a particular individual's participation, and the concerns important to the group at the moment.

3. Experience and conceptualization. Since these appear to be the basic elements of learning, the aim of the laboratory approach is to provide an environment in which group members are encouraged to examine their experiences together in a manner that valid generalizations can be drawn about the applicability of such learning to situations outside the group.

4. Authentic relationships and learning. The participant is most free to learn when he establishes sincere and honest relationships with other group members.

5. Skill acquisition and values. At least three behaviors tend to maximize the development of new skills in working with people: 1) an examination of the basic values underlying the behavior of the group member, as well as that of others; 2) acquisition of concepts and theory of group process and dynamics; and, 3) practicing new behaviors within the group environment, learning how to handle and utilize feedback from the group.

In any educational environment employing the laboratory method of training, two issues emerge and must be dealt with by those charged with administrative affairs. They must clearly distinguish between 1) workshop/laboratory goals based on individual needs; and, 2) goals based on institutional needs. That is to say, is the purpose of such training the development and growth of the participants (i.e., an <u>end</u> in itself) or are they being trained so that in turn they will be more productive for the institution (i.e., a <u>means</u> to an end)? Where the goal is the latter the primary emphasis often is in assisting the participants to become more effective in their own organizations. Fulfilling these institutional needs is of such value to certain organizations that they are willing, and frequently do, pay all expenses involved for the training.

In his research conducted to determine whether or not personal changes can be observed through post-training observations in a laboratory training environment, Miles (1965) collected data from some thirty-four high school principals who had received T-group training conducted by personnel from the National Training Laboratories. Two control groups were used. Observations on job behavior were obtained from an average of five associates for each in the total sample. Descriptions (both pre- and post-training) were obtained from associates of the trainees and the control subjects which had been previously matched on a number of personality dimensions. The results of this study provide evidence that more

behavior changes were observed for trainees than for either of the two non-trainee groups (controls). The changes reported were primarily attitudinal and behavioral. Trainees were observed to listen more, communicate better, share responsibility more and give more help to teachers.

In an extensive study Bunker (1964) collected data on some 229 managers and administrators who had received previous NTL training. Questionnaires were completed on behavior changes observed under two research conditions. Results indicate that more behavior changes were observed for the "trained" subjects than for "sensitivity training" model subjects.

In an attempt to determine the relative effectiveness of methods of instruction in groups, Rand and Carew (1970) compared T-group and didactic approaches in training undergraduate resident assistants. These researchers compared three procedures involving 90 candidates for a resident assistantship position. The basic design included a control group, a didactic group, and a basic encounter group. The students of the basic encounter group were perceived by the students to be significantly better than either of the other groups.

Encounter group and sensitivity training. Most attempts to measure the effects of encounter group training on personal growth toward self-actualization have been conducted, by and large, in educational institutions and clinical environments. Although limited, some research has been done in religious institutions

and church settings. This section will review studies in both categories.

In an experiment with university students Culbert, Clark, and Bobel (1968) inquired as to whether a normal population undergoing training aimed at increasing self-actualization would produce changes on the POI. Two groups of university students were measured on the POI before the experiment: one group had above average scores; the other had somewhat lower than average scores. An analysis of their results revealed that for beginning low-self-actualizers the training resulted in significantly higher scores on four of the POI scales. While this experiment examined the effects of relatively short term training, similar results have been reported for extended, in depth group interaction (Flanders, 1969; Trueblood and McHolland, 1971).

Tchack (1972) has investigated the relationship between self-actualization and perceptual clarity during sensitivity training. Comparing the results obtained from seven training groups, Tchack analyzed the influence of the trainer's initial level of self-actualization on the group member's change in perceptual clarity. She concluded that sensitivity training increases an individual's level of self-actualization and that such changes can be measured effectively.

Byrd (1970) has reported the results of a study which employed clergymen as subjects and which introduced a new training methodology known as Creative Risk Taking (CRT). A pre- and post-treatment design was used employing 132 professional church

workers. Results of this study indicate that the CRT subjects showed greater changes than those in a traditional sensitivity group in characteristics related to autonomy such as Independence, Spontaneity, and Risk Taking.

Reddy (1971) has shown that the composition of the groups is vitally important if an attempt is to be made to measure training outcome. He compared two "compatible" groups with two "incompatible" groups. Among the forty interdenominational missionaries participating in a five-day sensitivity training program, members in the two "incompatible" groups gained significantly more on 4 of the 12 POI scales than members in the two "compatible" groups.

Marathon group. Using a pre- and post-test design, Young and Jacobson (1970), measured members of a 15-hour marathon group on the POI, Edwards and Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scales. Such measurements were taken four days before training and immediately following it. An analysis of the results indicate that participants in the marathon group demonstrated a significant decrease in defensiveness and constriction and showed change in the direction of more socially positive functioning on 13 of the 14 scales employed.

Guinan and Foulds (1970) investigated the changes which might occur among a group of relatively normal college students following a voluntary, 30-hour, weekend marathon experience. Positive changes were reported on 7 of the 12 POI scales. However, caution should be exerted in interpreting these results. A review of the procedures employed in this study indicate at least the following methodological problems: 1) inadaquate sample size, 2) lack of

randomization, and 3) inordinate time lag between the termination of training and administration of the post-test. Thus, serious questions are raised as to its over-all research value.

Some researchers have achieved less than positive results in their investigations of marathon groups. In a unique experiment within an educational environment, staff members of the University of Massachusetts Counseling Center (Counseling Center Staff, 1972) compared three types of sensitivity groups (contract time restricted, time extended, and marathon) with an untreated control on changes in self-actualization, using Shostrom's POI in a pre-test-post-test research design. Data were analyzed by univariate analysis of covariance and a multiple discriminant analysis. The results failed to support the hypothesis that group participation would produce greater change in self-actualization than an untreated control. Additionally, no differential effects were observed among the three types of sensitivity groups.

Goldberg (1971) has severely criticized all sensitivity training in light of its failure to deal with the reasons which motivate participants to join groups initially. The following limitations were identified, thus providing a more complete understanding of this approach to training; 1) certain aspects are antirational; 2) its propensity to be treated as occult or as a game, being either exaggerated in importance or not taken seriously; 3) the paucity of research; 4) poor professional and personal preparation of group leaders; and 5) serious emotional upsets in participants.

Participation training. Bateman (1973) attempted to determine if Participation Training as developed by Bergevin and McKinley (1965) could assist in the rehabilitation of drug-dependent military personnel. Measures were taken on three samples (two drug-dependent groups and a non-drug-dependent group) using the Appraisal of Personal Growth in Team-work and the Patient Questionnaire. Only one of the drug-dependent groups received Participation Training. After comparing the results, Bateman concluded that Participation Training is a helpful and effective pretherapy experience for drug-dependent military personnel.

Other environments in which Participation Training has proven to be effective include rehabilitative work with alcoholics (Shay, 1963); therapy with confined personnel (Zeller, 1966); and, training of professional religious educators (Ellis, 1971).

A differing point of view. Not all researchers have arrived at the same conclusions as those reported above. Fiedler (1972) reviewed the results of three studies he conducted to determine the effect of laboratory training on leadership ability. In all three cases, no significant changes were observed. Similarly, Campbell and Dunnette (1968) and House (1967) after reviewing the research on T-group and sensitivity training concluded that about 30-40% of trained individuals are subsequently reported by observers (primarily co-workers) as displaying some type of perceptible change in behavior. Similar changes occur in 10-20% of members

from control groups. However, it should be pointed out that the types of perceived changes which appear to discriminate best between those who received T-group training and those who did not involved increased sensitivity, greater openness to communication, and increased flexibility in role behavior. He feels that the effectiveness of such training in terms of better performance of organizational roles is a matter that has not been demonstrated to date.

Hourts and Serber (1973) in a review of the literature on the outcome of encounter groups point out that the goals of groups of this type are phrased in such vague and general terms that it is "impossible to test empirically whether or not they are achieved." However, they do recognize the value of laboratory training and offer the suggestion that "interchange between behaviorally-minded clinicians and leaders of sensitivity groups can lead to benefits for both.

Perhaps the most extensive study that has been conducted on encounter groups, as well as the encounter movement at large, is the recent work of Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles (1973). Hailed by some as the first real scientific study in this area, it examines the major theories currently used in the United States and Western Europe for changing people in groups. Based on an intensive investigation of seventeen different encounter groups -- from Gestalt therapy to psychodrama, from T-groups to "Esalen Eclecticism" -- it attempted to determine just how effective encounter groups

were in bringing about personal changes; what kind of personal growth occurred in the prople who went to them; and, just how long-lasting such changes were. After analyzing the data collected in their study, these researchers concluded that: 1) Approximately 60 percent of those who completed encounter group training saw themselves as having benefited (which reduced to approximately 40 percent six months later); 2) Leaders who were most optimistic about the number of people who changed, perceived some change in 90 percent of those who participated; 3) Based on a "cummulative index" which was developed to measure benefit as well as negative outcome, one-third of those who participated in the groups benefited from them, a little over one-third remained unchanged, and the remainder experienced some form of negative reaction; 4) Only 10 percent of the participants who showed no positive change at the end of the encounter group showed signs of benefit six months later, suggesting that the notion of "late blooming" is not a viable concept for explaining much of the utility of encounter groups; 5) The most important and stable areas of change were in values and attitude and self-concept. It was concluded that overall,"encounter groups show a modest positive impact, an impact much less than has been portrayed by their supporters." Further, it was concluded that the impact of such groups was "significantly lower than participants' view of their own change would lead one to assume."

However, these authors insist that the underlying principles of encounter groups are simple and meaningful (Lieberman et al., 1973):

> Encounter groups excel in their ability to involve and to provide a setting in which certain basic human activities associated with productive change can occur. When one strips away the excesses and frills, the ability of such groups to provide a meaningful emotional setting in which individuals can overtly consider previously prohibited issues cannot be ruled out as an important means for facilitating human progress. The notion, as simple as it is profound, that by creating a social microcosm based upon principles which are involving on the one hand and different from ordinary life on the other, remains sound. The opportunity for individuals to learn something about themselves by explicitly using others' reactions to their behavior is meaningful. The affirmation of self through the overt (rather than as in normal life, covert) comparisons with peers does provide a new dimension to ordinary human experience. The sanctioning of a group of peers that become important for expressing and experiencing emotions and being able to talk about such feelings is a basic process for enhancing human potential. It is an experience that is not easily duplicated in the ordinary course of living. In other words, encounter groups, at their best, provide a setting for engaging in processes that are not usually available in the degree to which many apparently desire and perhaps need them.

Learning mechanisms in encounter groups. Liberman et al., (1973) said that "if there is any theory underlying encounter groups, it begins from assumptions about particular kinds of events or experiences that a person should undergo in order to grow." A number of learning mechanisms have been identified and associated with the processes of change of encounter groups (Bandura, 1969; Culbert, 1967; Frank, 1961; Liberman et al., 1973; Jourard, 1964; Mowrer, 1964). These may be summarized as: 1) expression of intense personal feelings, 2) self-disclosure, 3) feedback (receiving information concerning one's emotions), 4) cognitive learning (the discovery or understanding of something about oneself, self-insight, or obtaining cognitive information that can be adapted for oneself), 5) communion (capacity to experience unity with the

group), 6) altruism (experience of being helpful to others), 7) spectatorism (learning from being in a situation where others are having critical emotional experiences), 8) the discovery of similarity between one's own and others' problems, 9) active versus passive involvement in the group process, 10) advice from other participants or the leader on how to deal with important life problems and relationships, 11) modeling behavior styles or styles of problem solving observed in the group and 12) experiencing the group as a symbolic representation of the primary family (i.e., reliving, in an aware manner, early family experiences). The preceeding learning processes were submitted to an intensive analysis by Liberman et al., (1973). Their findings failed to show any significant association with learning. The employment of these various mechanisms appeared not to differentiate markedly with those who learned and those who remained unchanged. Statistically significant differences were obtained (between learners and the unchanged) only when these processes were modified by cognitive events.

Encounter groups versus previous experience and training. In attempting to measure the effects of GPP training on the personal orientations of student chaplains, the issue of possible interaction effects of self-actualization and the amount of previous group process training and time on active duty emerges. While there is some evidence to support the assumption that participant behavior in groups generally returns to pregroup levels (Fleishman, Harris,

and Burt, 1955), Liberman et al., (1973) has shown that 78 percent of those who received positive benefit from group experience maintained these gains six months later.

While no data are available concerning the relationship that exists between self-actualization and length of time in the chaplaincy, studies are available which have a bearing on the subject. Katz (1968) investigated the changes that occurred in college students from their freshman through senior year in a traditional college environment versus the changes that occurred in an encounter group on the same campus. What changes the general college group experienced markedly resembled the changes noted in students in the encounter groups. Based on these findings and their own research study, Liberman et al., (1973) conclude that:

> . . . although some people make important changes as a result of their experience and some types of encounter groups, viewed as a total activity, across all types of encounter groups, the effects of encounter groups are not massive in number or substantially different in kind from those reported for collegiate experience as a total activity [author's italics].

Thus, when viewed from this perspective, the experiences of the chaplaincy itself (especially within the academic environment of the Chaplain School) can be expected to be related to certain changes in the personal orientations of the students.

Self-Actualization and the Personal Orientation Inventory. The notion of self-actualization is a concept which has emerged from the theories of a number of humanistic psychologists -- a concept, in fact, about which most are in general agreement in spite of the

fact that different terminology is used to define it. Both Goldstein (1939) and Maslow (1954) used the term "self-actualization:; Karen Horney and Erick Fromm spoke of the concept as "self-realization"; Rogers (1961) described it as "fully functioning"; Buhler (1969) viewed the pursuit of such a goal as an "intentionality" directed toward fulfillment and which is attained through self-realization; Shostrom (1972) spoke of it simply as the "freedom to be"; Maslow (1971) saw it not only as a concept, but a process as well. All of these terms are synonomous (or, nearly so) and are concerned with the same basic idea.

In his comprehensive synthesis of self-actualization literature, Byrd (1970) has offered the following general propositions about this concept: a self-actualized person 1) lives in the present, guided by lessons of the past, holding realistic faith and hope in the future; 2) is autonomous; 3) holds humanistic values and applies them in a flexible manner; 4) is aware of himself, his motivations, his inner world and expresses his feelings spontaneously; 5) has an appreciation of his strengths and an acceptance of his weaknesses and limitations; 6) sees man as essentially good and life as basically a whole rather than the sum of many parts and polarities; and, 7) has greater interpersonal sensitivity with deeper, freer relationships to others.

The measurement of self-actualization is a pursuit that has captivated the interest of a number of researchers in recent years.

That self-actualization indeed can be measured is now a matter of record. Maslow (1971) has said that if, operationally, intelligence is what the intelligence test measures, then self-actualization is what the POI measures.

Eiben (1968) investigated the impact of a participatory group experience on counselors in training. Using beginning students in guidance and counseling, Eiben formed two research groups: 1) a sensitivity-participatory group with activities ranging from T-groups to sensory awareness to creative exercises; and, 2) a didactic group in which the main focus was on instructor presentation of material relating to groups. Eiben sought to determine if movement toward self-actualization (as measured by Shostrom's POI) would occur as a result of a participatory group experience; and, if there would be between-group differences on pre- and post-group POI mean scores. The results of this experiment indicated that, for the participatory group, all scales were either highly significant or in the direction of greater self-actualization at the conclusion of the group experience.

Verification of hypotheses generated from Maslow's theory of self-actualization was the purpose of the study by Hekmat and Theiss (1971). The notion of "resistance to enculturation" espoused by Maslow was examined by means of a social conditioning technique. It was hypothesized that participants with low POI scores would respond more to reflection of feeling as a reinforcer

for effective self disclosures than those with moderate or high scores. Sixty subjects were scored on the POI and then assigned to one of four groups on the basis of these scores. The groups were: 1) high self-actualizing, 2) moderate self-actualizing, 3) low self-actualizing, and 4) control. The results indicated that prior to conditioning the high self-actualizing individuals exhibited a significantly higher rate of effective self-disclosures than the moderate or low self-actualizing group. On the other hand, during conditioning those in the high self-actualizing group showed a significantly lower degree of responsiveness to social reinforcement when compared to the group of low and moderate self-actualizers. Hekmat and Theiss interpret these results as providing empirical support for Maslow's claim that high self-actualizing individuals are "resistant to enculturation."

In an extensive review of research literature on the POI, Knapp (1971) reported that this instrument has been used to differentiate between grossly different populations; to investigate the effects of different group guidance processes; to study the value orientations of college underachievers; to compare self-actualization with grade-point average; and, a host of other studies.

The POI has also been used to study the influence of transcendental meditation on a measure of self-actualization. This instrument was administered by Seeman, Nidich, and Banta (1972) to an experimental group approximately two days before they participated in sessions in transcendental meditation. The control group (i.e.,

no program of meditation) took the POI at the same time. These researchers reported that the experimental and control subjects did not differ significantly on any of the POI scales on the first administration. However, two months later following the sessions in transcendental meditation the experimental group showed gains on 6 of the 12 scales in the direction of greater self-actualization. Significant differences were reported between the experimental group and the control group.

One of the few studies available in which the POI had been administered to military personnel was the investigation reported by Fitzgerald (1973). Along with his fellow Navy chaplains, Fitzgerald conducted a "transgenerational" workshop in connection with the CREDO Project at the Balboa Navy Hospital, San Diego. The purpose of this project was to facilitate increased feeling of community among Navy personnel and counteract current trends within society which have led to a general questioning of established institutions and chains of authority. Workshop retreats were conducted twice a month from Thursday evening to Sunday afternoon representing a 72-hour weekend experience. The preliminary study was designed to provide an objective assessment of the probable effects of the workshop experience as measured by the POI. A total of 112 subjects participated in the test-retest program. The results indicated a significant increase (at the .01 confidence level) on the Inner-Directed (I) scale, which is considered by Knapp (1971) to be the best single overall measure of self-

actualization. Significant subscale increases were obtained for Feeling Reactivity (FR), Spontaneity (S), Self-regard (SR), and Acceptance of Aggression (A).

The POI has been examined in recent days by a team of researchers to determine its effectiveness when used as a predictor of counselor success (Trotter, Uhlig, & Fargo, 1971). Using the percentage of cases closed in a rehabilitation center as the measure of counseling success for each counselor, correlations were made with individual POI scores. While none of the individual POI scales was significantly related to counselor success, a three-variate combination comprised of Capacity for Intimate Contact, Time Competence, and Self-Acceptance resulted in a multiple predictor of R=.476. Thus, as in the findings of Foulds (1967), "the attainment of a high degree of self-actualization were found to be useful in discriminating between effective and ineffective counselors."

The use of the POI among educators appears to be increasing. Feichtner (1972), employed the POI in connection with a study to determine whether structuring a student teaching experience on a theory of self-actualization could produce growth toward self-actualization as a teacher. Based on the results of the twenty-five teachers in training at Carnegie University comprising the population of the study, Feichtner concludes that growth on the Time-Competent dimension of self-actualization can be facilitated by such experience. Other researchers have reported similar results

(Bieniewski, 1972). Knight (1973) observed the charismatic qualities of ten self-actualizing teachers and analyzed their concepts, motivations, and feelings in terms of Maslow's definition of self-actualization. He concluded that 1) they were growth-oriented with a need for extensive interpersonal involvement; 2) peak experiences effect changes in their perceptions of others and themselves; and 3) the POI can be employed to identify self-actualizing persons.

Raanan (1973), does not share the same view of the POI as the investigators identified in the foregoing reports. In her extensive review of this instrument, both the reliability and validity were questioned. This suggests that in light of the assumption that this test measures stable personality traits, the reliabilities reported in the POI Manual are low. Questions concerning its validity are related to sample size, the process of nominating groups, and the lack of information regarding the clinicians employed in the validation process. In addition, the following difficulties were identified: 1) Transparency (i.e., the assumption that the POI can be faked), and 2) cultural bias (i.e., traits defined as self-actualizing are culture specific and may differ from one sub-culture to another). Thus, it was felt that the POI may provide "an interesting focus for a therapeutic interview but would be of extremely limited value as either a diagnostic or a research instrument.

Development of a Research Model

Increasingly, social scientists, along with researchers in other disciplines, are finding that the use of models is both a

sensible and practical way to deal with a wide range of theoretical concepts and formulations. Mills (1967) has stated that in its broadest sense "the sociology of small groups is a self-conscious attempt to create workable models of groups." The term "workable" implies that they assist the researcher in organizing disparate data into a more coherent whole; that they are framed in such clearly expressed terms as to be readily understood by others; that they seem to be consonant with inter-subjective experiences of reality; and, that their implications can be scrutinized, tested, and changed (if desired) in terms of alternative ones. Obviously then, the model a researcher selects affects his theoretical orientation. What is true of models in general is likewise applicable to the theoretical data about groups.

Mills (1967) describes four popular models employed in the interpretations of theory related to groups:

1. The Quasi-Mechanical Model: The group resembles a machine -- an interaction machine.

2. The Organismic Model: The group is like a biological organism.

3. The Conflict Model: The group is like an arena in which one sees an endless series of conflicts.

4. The Equilibrium Model: The group is like a biological system in equilibrium -- thus, any disturbance tends to be counteracted by opposing forces so that the system returns to the state prior to the disturbance.

5. The Structural-Functional Model: The group is a goal seeking, boundary maintaining system whose survival is problematical. It assumes that members will be gratified as the group progresses toward its goal.

6. The Cybernetic-Growth Model: Human groups are information-processing systems potentially capable of increasing their capabilities. Like the structural-functional model, this one according to Mills (1968) "assumes the existence of group agents who observe, assess the situation, and act with consequence upon the situation they observe."

While commonality exists between the models listed above and the one developed for GPP preparation training, there is a sense in which none of them really apply. What emerged was a kind of synthesis between the Structural-Functional and the Cybernetic-Growth models. For convenience in understanding the theoretical constructs involved, this prototype may be viewed as a functional-growth model. It is functional in that it assumes the members will be gratified as the group progresses toward its goals. Specific functions of the members are, during the processes: 1) to observe what is taking place, 2) to assess the effects of events upon the attainment of pre-established goals, and, 3) according to this assessment, to take action. The growth aspect of this paradigm is seen in the group's capability, not only of maintaining itself, but of monitoring its activities, altering its direction (primarily in terms of methodology and means of obtaining objectives),

determining its own interpersonal goals and learning how to learn to achieve them -- with the consequence that it accumulates and extends its capabilities, or grows. Much akin to the cybernetic-growth model espoused by Deutsch et al., (Mills, 1967), this model recognizes the group as a source of experience, learning, and capabilities, rather than just recipients. When viewed in terms of the design employed in this experiment, the first week of training was predominately growth oriented while the second week was primarily functional in nature.

Evaluating it as a unit, the GPP model possesses the following characteristics:

1. Personal growth potential. Personal growth is a rather global term referring to an increase in openness; greater sensitivity to others' feelings and reactions; more flexibility and spontaneity; better self-understanding; more in touch with personal feelings; greater ability to be warm, close, affectionate, and intimate with others; better able to handle anger and to fight back without feeling conflicted or upset about it; an increase in self-esteem, liking, and acceptance of self as is; a better feeling about life and what is happening in it; greater pleasure in existence.

2. Team building capabilities. These are predicated on the existence of a number of team building goals such as understanding the roles and techniques of leaders and participants in group learning experiences; practicing these roles and responsibilities in an atmosphere of security and evaluation; understanding how

others, individually and in groups, respond to the behaviors and personalities of the participants; working cooperatively with other group members; and, demonstrating the ability to use group discussion as a learning technique.

3. Program planning skills. This model, particularly as applied to the second week of training, sees the participants as developing skills necessary in effectively utilizing the program planning procedures of the GPP to modify USACHCS Learning Objectives to meet their own learning needs; selecting the most appropriate methods of learning available to attain these objectives; and identifying resources, including their own experiences, helpful in their goal attainment.

4. Balance between content and process. Content and process are recognized as being integral to this model. Interest and concern of the participants for content is balanced with learning about themselves, relating to other participants and experiencing the dynamics of the learning situation. To insure this balance and to ascertain the accomplishment of institutional and group goals, on-going, in-process evaluation activity is assumed.

Not all of the characteristics related to this model were of concern to this study, hence they were not investigated. Primarily the focus was on those elements of personal growth listed in paragraph 1 above, rather than assessment of changes in participant behaviors related to task and task-maintenance functions.

Hypotheses

The basic problem of this study as previously stated was to determine the effects of participatory group process training on the personal orientations of Army student chaplains. Based on the foregoing theoretical foundation, four hypotheses related to this problem were examined. Evidence presented in the survey of the literature suggested that laboratory training, following a functional-growth model of group process, could be expected to effect increases in self-actualization. Documentation on the POI indicates its sensitivity to detect and measure such changes. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

1. Participatory subjects would increase in self-actualization as a result of group process training.

The approach employed in training subjects in group dynamics and group processes determines, to a large extent, the results to be obtained. The following hypothesis was developed to test the assumption that the most effective way to learn these processes is by doing; that participation in the actual life of small groups is superior to learning about it. It is believed that the POI will detect the differences between the didactic approach and the participatory approach in fostering growth toward self-actualization. Based on this theoretical position, it was hypothesized that:

2 Participatory subjects would show a greater increase in self-actualization than Didactic subjects.

The following hypothesis was concerned with the possibility of observing and reporting changes that might have occurred without the benefit of GPP training, simply due to the passing of time and the normal influence of the Chaplain School environment on the subjects. It suggests that if GPP training in the processes of small groups (or any type of training in group process) is withheld, as in the case of the Control Group in this study, then fewer increases in self-actualization can be expected. This possibility gave rise to the hypothesis that:

3. Participatory subjects would show greater increase in self-actualization than the Control subjects.

From the research reports it has been inferred that self-actualization is a multi-dimensional state of being and that it is induced, not by a single situation, circumstance, or activity, but by a variety or combination of these. As will be described in Chapter III, this investigator attempted to control as many variables as possible by building them into the research design through an intricate process of matching; however, he was aware that to control all such variance is nearly impossible. Hence, the desire to determine the exact nature and precise relationship of Previous Group Process Training and Time on Active Duty as they relate to the self-actualization of Army student chaplains lead to the hypothesis that:

4. The degree of self-actualization attained would be positively related to previous group process training and time on active duty.

These hypotheses are summarized below:

Hypothesis I: Movement toward self-actualization will occur as a result of participatory group process training.

Hypothesis II: Participatory subjects will show greater movement toward self-actualization than Didactic subjects.

Hypothesis III: Participatory subjects will show greater movement toward self-actualization than will Control subjects.

Hypothesis IV: The degree of self-actualization obtained will be positively related to previous group process training and time on active duty.

CHAPTER III

Research Design

In developing a design to test the hypotheses of this study, it was necessary to have: 1) intelligent and reasonably well adjusted subjects who would be regular in their attendance at the training sessions; 2) control over the formation of the training groups to match the subjects into the desired learning conditions; 3) access to demographic data on the subjects; and, 4) opportunity to observe training sessions.

Definition of Terms

The major variables of this study will be operationally defined in the following manner:

Participatory Training

This term refers to a method of instruction in group process training which emphasizes action of the individuals within the group. Since it is basically experiential in nature, it is process rather than content oriented. Operationally, participatory training in group processes is defined in the following manner: A laboratory in which one week is devoted solely to relatively unstructured T-group activity under the supervision of NTL trainers; and, a second week which is devoted to learning how to function effectively in the Group Process Plan through task-oriented group activity designed to emphasize team building and practice of group membership roles as described in USACHCS handouts.[1]

Didactic Training

This is a method of instruction in which the central focus is on the dissemination of information and where participatory involvement is minimized. It is instructor oriented in the sense that most communication flows in one direction -- from the instructor to the student. In contrast to participatory group training, it is content rather than process oriented. Little opportunity is given for students to interact with each other. Its goal is to teach the students the principles, concepts and theoretical formulations of human relations training and group processes. Operationally, didactic training is defined as a two-weeks training period in which five days are devoted to classroom instruction following traditional didactic methods, and focused on the topic: "T-group Training and the Laboratory Method," using as texts the Reading Book for Laboratories in Human Relations Training (Mill & Porter, 1972) and Reaching Out: Interpersonal Effectiveness and Self-Actualization (Johnson, 1972) and a second week of classroom instruction where the leader instructs the students on the subject "An Orientation to the Group Process Plan," using as basic texts Adult Education Procedures (Bergevin, Morris, & Smith, 1963), Adult Education for the Church (Bergevin, McKinley, 1970), and The Group Process Plan: A Student-Oriented Learning Procedure for Soft Skills (USACHCS, 1973).

Self-Actualization

This broad term is operationalized through the use of Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) (1961), a 150-item, paired

response instrument which will be discussed in greater detail later in this section. Essentially, the self-actualized person is seen as one who is more fully functioning and lives a more enriched life than does the average person; one who develops and utilizes all of his unique capabilities, or potentialities, free of the inhibition and emotional turmoil of those less self-actualized. This concept is discussed more fully in Chapter II.

Personal Orientation

This term will be operationalized through the use of Shostrom's POI as described above.

Army Student Chaplains

This term refers to ordained clergymen who have been given ecclesiastical endorsement by their respective denominations to enter the chaplaincy and have been comissioned by the Army to serve in either a Reserve or Active Duty status. In this investigation all participants in both the participatory and the didactic groups were members of the 73-74 Chaplain Officer Advance Course (Class C-22). The Control Group was composed of chaplains of similar characteristics who were members in the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-23).

Limitations

This study investigates the effects of training on groups of chaplains who were selected on the basis of their enrollment in Chaplain School courses. The conclusions of this study are not directly applicable to laboratories conducted in less structured

environments. It attempted to measure the changes that occurred in participants over a two-weeks period. The results might have been different had the training extended over a longer period of time. Finally, it must be pointed out that this study focused on dimensions of positive mental health rather than psychopathology. Consequently, generalizations concerning the neurotic or pathological characteristics of the participants are not possible.

Description of the Groups

All subjects employed in this study were student chaplains enrolled in formal classes in the US Army Chaplain School, Fort Hamilton, New York. As can be seen in Table 1, the four research groups were reasonably homogeneous. For example, most were between 39 and 42 years of age; Majors; Protestant; Reservists with six to nine years of Active Duty; and, had received between 19 and 21 years of formal schooling. One difference was that the controls were approximately six years younger on the average than the other subjects. Another was in the number of years of Active Duty service. This was to be expected in that the Control Group was composed of Reserve chaplains who were on Active Duty for Training only, whereas the other subjects were on Extended Active Duty (i.e., full time in the military).

Participatory Group

A total of 82 subjects, all members of the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-22) constituted this group. (Included in this grouping was the No Pre-test subgroup which received participatory

TABLE 1

Characteristics of the Groups[a]

Characteristic	Group			
	Participatory[b]	Didactic	Control	No-pretest[c]
Age (Avg. Yrs.)	39.4	41.8	33.7	39.2
Marital Status (%)				
Married	80	64	85	73
Single	20	36	15	27
Schooling (Avg. Yrs.)	19.8	19.8	19.9	20.6
Rank (%)				
1LT	-	-	50	-
CPT	20	27	28	18
MAJ	78	63	22	82
LTC	02	10	-	-
Religion (%)				
Catholic	20	27	08	18
Protestant	80	73	92	82
Service Status (%)				
Reserve	80	100	100	90
Regular	20	-	-	10
Active Duty (Avg. Mo.)	98	101	28	99

[a]Subjects were chaplains in training at the US Army Chaplain Center and School, Fort Hamilton, New York.

[b]Experimental subgroups 1-7.

[c]Included for methodological considerations and given participatory training.

training). These chaplains were formed into eight subgroups of 10 to 11 students each according to a configuration specified in the Group Process Plan. (Actual formation of these subgroupings is discussed in the section on Formation of the Groups.) These were permanent formations and comprised the actual learning groups of the chaplains for Group Life I (roughly a semester). Thus, the subgroups were not organized solely for this experiment; rather, this experiment was conducted in a real life educational environment. Had the study not taken place, the composition of these learning groups would still have been arranged in a similar manner. Appendix C depicts the composition of the Participatory Group.

It should be pointed out that, in addition to their training at the Chaplain School, all of the members of this group as well as those in the No Pre-test and Didactic groups (with the exception of one student) were concurrently enrolled in a Master's Program (either in the field of Guidance and Counseling or Sociology) in a joint arrangement between the US Army Chaplain School and the Long Island University. Shown in Table 2 is a description of the Participatory Group, broken down into subgroups. Since this natural grouping existed and since they all were programed to receive the same training, it offered an unusual opportunity to compare them for possible influences of subgroup leadership, otherwise insignificant environmental influences, and subtle differences of personal characteristics. Kerlinger (1964) has said, "to have matched subjects in a research experiment and not to take advantage of the variance due to the matching is a statistical and design blunder."

TABLE 2

Characteristics of Participatory Group[a]

Characteristic	Subgroup						
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Number	10	11	10	9	10	10	11
Age (Avg. Yrs.)	39.7	42.5	39.1	40.1	38.6	37.3	38.8
Marital Status (%)							
Married	80	72	80	78	90	90	73
Single	20	28	20	22	10	10	27
Schooling (Avg. Yrs.)	19.6	20.5	19.5	19.1	20	19.5	20
Rank (%)							
CPT	20	18	20	13	20	20	18
MAJ	80	72	80	87	80	80	72
LTC	-	10	-	-	-	-	-
Religion (%)							
Catholic	20	18	20	22	10	10	27
Protestant	80	82	80	78	80	90	73
Service Status (%)							
Reserve	70	73	70	77	80	100	90
Regular	30	27	30	23	20	-	10
Active Duty (Avg. Mo.)	101	101	97	96	100	92	97

[a]Subjects were chaplains in training at the US Army Chaplain Center and School, Fort Hamilton, New York.

Didactic Group

This group was composed of 11 members of the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-22) and were selected in the same manner as the Participatory subjects (see Formation of the Groups). From Table 1 it can be seen that there is a great similarity of this group with the other groups. In fact, as will be described later, a matching process was undertaken to make the Didactic Group and each of the eight Participatory subgroups as equivalent as possible.

Control Group

Due to the requirements of the US Army Chaplain School and the realities involved in conducting an experiment of this type within the on-going program of an educational institution it was not possible to select the controls from the same class. The most viable alternative was to determine which of the other classes of the School most closely resembled the C22 Class, in terms of personal characteristics, and draw a sample from it. The one selected was the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-23). The major difference between the students attending this course and those in the C-22 Course (from which the Participatory and Didactic groups were formed) was that the former were on Active Duty for Training and the latter were on Extended Active Duty (some as members of the Regular Army). From Table 1 it can be seen that the subjects of the Control Group were more alike than different from those in either the Participatory or Didactic groups. For example, 92% were Protestant; average years of formal schooling was 19.9. Average number of months on Active Duty was 28 months.

Description of the Instruments

Personal Orientation Inventory

The major source of data for this study was the responses of the subjects to the Personal Orientation Inventory developed by Shostrom (1966). As was stated earlier in this chapter, the POI was designed to measure an individual's degree of self-actualization. It consists of 150 two-choice comparative value and behavior judgments. The items contained in the POI were originally developed from the significant value judgment problems seen by therapists in private practice. By and large, they were based on theoretical formulations of humanistic psychologists such as Abraham Maslow, Davis Reisman, Carl Rogers, and Frederick Perls. The POI yields measures for two major scales of personal orientation, namely Time Competence and Inner Directedness, as well as ratio measures for 10 subscales, each of which measures relevant elements of self-actualization. Below is a summary of the POI Scales:

TIME COMPETENCE (T_C): Measures the degree to which one is present oriented.

INNER DIRECTEDNESS (I): Measures the degree to which one is independent; self-supportive; whether reactivity is basically toward others or toward self.

SELF-ACTUALIZING VALUE (SAV): Measures affirmation of a primary value of self-actualizing people.

EXISTENTIALITY (Ex): Measures the ability to situationally react without rigid adherence to principles.

FEELING REACTIVITY (Fr): Measures the degree of sensitivity of responsiveness to one's needs and feelings.

SPONTANEITY (S): Measures the degree to which one reacts freely and expresses his feeling without restraint.

SELF-REGARD(Sr): Measures affirmation of self because of worth or strength.

SELF-ACCEPTANCE (Sa): Measures affirmation of self in spite of weaknesses or deficiencies.

NATURE OF MAN (Nc): Measures the degree of one's constructive view of man (e.g., whether he is seen as essentially good or evil).

SYNERGY (Sy): Measures the ability to transcend dichotomies and see opposites of life as meaningfully related.

ACCEPTANCE OF AGGRESSION (A): Measures the ability to tolerate one's natural assertiveness as opposed to defensiveness, denial and repression of such feelings.

CAPACITY FOR INTIMATE CONTACT (C): Measures the ability to develop warm interpersonal relationships with other human beings, unencumbered by expectations and obligations.

Several studies have been conducted to determine the reliability and validity of this instrument. Klavetter and Mogar (1967) examined the test-retest reliability of the POI by administering it twice within a one-week interval to 48 college students. Test-retest reliability coefficients of .71 and .77 respectively were reported on the major POI scales of Time Competence (T_C) and Inner Direction (I). It was concluded that the stability coefficients were generally high, ranging from .71 to .85.

In another study where 46 student nurses were employed as subjects, and in which the stability of POI scores were examined over a year-long period, Ilardi and May (1968) reported reliability coefficients from .32 to .74. When viewed along side results of other personality studies under similar conditions, Ilardi and May

concluded that the coefficients of the POI were well within the ranges of those found in comparable MMPI and EPPS test-retest reliability studies.

In related studies (Fox, Knapp & Michael, 1968) test-retest reliabilities for this instrument have been recorded in the .90s and concurrent validity by the "known group" method has been demonstrated. Braun (1969) infers that the POI is fairly resistent to "faking" or impression mangement. The precise relationship that exists between POI scores and overt behavior are to date unclear (Culbert, et al., 1968). However, McReynolds (1971) has intimated that this instrument is likely to be used frequently in contexts such as encounter groups and sensitivity training where "enhancement of the functioning of already well adjusted persons is a major goal."

Damm (1969), in a study involving 95 male and 113 female students from the Willamette High School in Eugene, Oregon, attempted to identify from the 12 POI scales and subscales the one single scale (or combination of subscales) which might effectively provide for an over-all measure of self-actualization. His conclusion was that the raw score of the I scale or a combination of the raw scores of the I and T_C scales would provide such a measure.

In a further attempt to validate the POI, McClain (1970) tested 30 National Defense Education Act Guidance Institute counselors and correlated the scores with self-actualization evaluations of the counselors supplied by staff members at the University

of Tennessee. The correlations, which ranged from .23 through .69, were significant in 11 out of 14 measures. McClain concluded that the correlation of .69 (which was on the Inner-Directed scale) provides evidence of the instrument's validity, in that this scale is based on 127 of the 150 items.

Biographic Information Sheet

Personal data were collected on the participants by means of the Biographic Information Sheet (see Appendix D). This information sheet included rank, number of years of active duty, service component (e.g., whether Regular Army or Reserve), religion (e.g., Catholic, Protestant, or Jewish), and the number of weeks of previous training in small group processes. Such characteristics as age, marital status, and years of civilian schooling were obtained from personnel records.

Procedure for Collecting the Data

The research project was conducted under the auspicies of the Evaluation Branch, US Army Chaplain Center and School, Fort Hamilton, New York. Approval to conduct the research project within the School was granted in February 1973. The experiment was conducted during the Summer of 1973.

A training laboratory, designed to prepare Chaplain Officer Advanced Course students to function effectively in the Group Process Plan, was conducted during the two weeks prior to the opening of formal class session for the 73-74 school year. Two experimental training conditions were created: participatory and

didactic. Subjects receiving training in group processes under these conditions constituted the two experimental groups to be described later. A third sample, in which no training in group processes was given, was designated as a control group. To test the possible influence of pre-test measures on subsequent post-test outcomes, a no pre-test group was constituted. This group received training in group processes under participatory conditions. The purpose for its inclusion was internal to the research design. The total number of subjects in this experiment was 107. All were US Army chaplains.

Formation of the groups

The following steps were taken in the formation of both the participatory and didactic groups.

Step I: During a pre-school orientation session members of the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-22-73-1) were administered a Biographic Information Sheet. The following information was collected: 1) rank; 2) length of time in the service; 3) length of time on active duty; 4) service component (e.g., Regular Army or Reserve), number of weeks of previous training in small group processes; and, 6) number of months of administrative experience (a variable not directly concerned with this study, but of interest to the administration in that once formed, the configuration of the groups would remain the same throughout Group Life I, comparable to an academic semester).

Step II: These data were then tabled following a paradigm designed for this purpose. It should be noted that the POI scores were not considered at this stage.

Step III: Hollerith cards were punched for each subject from the data available in the Biographical Data Matrix. Spaces were reserved on the cards for a later punching of the POI scores.

Step IV: From this information student profiles were then clustered by means of Automatic Data Process (ADP) techniques (e.g., printouts were produced for those who were most alike on the variables mentioned in Step I; then for those who were next most alike; etc.).

Step V: From these results the subjects were placed into nine separate subgroups of 10 to 11 students each. Great care was taken to insure the equivalency of all nine groups. For example, each had the same number (as nearly as possible) of Catholic priests, Captains, Majors, Lieutenant Colonels, and students with previous training in small group processes. It must be pointed out that absolute equivalency of group membership is not possible in that human subjects are whole units and categorization of specific characteristics cannot be accomplished apart from the individual himself.

Step VI: One of the nine groups was randomly selected as the no pre-test group.

Step VII: During the week preceding the experiment, all Chaplain Officer Advanced Course students (less those selected as the no-pretest group) were administered the POI.

Step VIII: These data were then punched onto the Hollerith cards and the process described in Step IV and Step V was again repeated using the pre-test POI scores as an additional matching variable; however, this time only eight equivalent groups were formed.

Step IX: From these eight groups, one was selected on a random basis as the group to receive training under didactic conditions.

Step X: A listing of all the groups was published and distributed to the students, along with a training schedule showing the meeting times and places.

Pretest

During the Orientation Week prior to the beginning of the GPP training laboratory, 82 students of the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-22) were assembled in a large classroom and the POI administered to them.[2] In the introduction, in addition to briefly describing the instrument and providing information concerning the mechanics of marking their responses on the answer sheets, the chaplains were told that the purpose of the inventory was for research purposes only and would in no way become a part of their record or impact on their standing at the Chaplain School. To reinforce this idea, the students were asked not to place their names on the answer sheets, but to use the Identification Number they had been given earlier.[3] Announcement was made that after the inventories were scored, opportunity would be given the

chaplains to look at their individual profiles and receive a briefing as to their meaning and interpretation. Also, they were informed that the results of the research to which they were contributing by completing the POIs, would be made available to them.

Following the principle of anonymity proved helpful and apparently prevented a good deal of anxiety as evidenced by personal reports from the students. Included in this pre-test session were the 11 members who later constituted the Didactic Group (Subgroup 8). Exempt, however, were the members of subgroup 9 (the No Pretest Group).

Description of the Training

The training for the Participatory Group was the GPP training laboratory, a two-phase learning experience which ranged from encounter group and T-group activities during the first week to task-oriented functions related to the processes of the GPP (as employed throughout the school year at the Chaplain School) during the second week. The general design of the first week was slightly different from the subsequent week in that during this phase, Subgroups 1 through 4 came together on occasion for combined group activities and subgroups 5, 6, 7, and 9 came together in a separate location for the same purpose.

During the first week the laboratory was under the supervision of the National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science. The trainers were skilled NTL trainers and

and the co-trainers were the Primary Group Advisors (PGA) who were designated to remain with the groups throughout the Group Life I. All PGAs have received special training in group process and encounter group work.

Prior to the laboratory and during it, planning meetings were conducted to insure that the goals of the training were being met. This investigator attended these meetings and was satisfied that the proper coordination was being made between the Didactic Group and the trainers in the Participatory subgroups. As the learning experiences were planned for the coming day, the Didactic Group leader made certain that the concepts and theory behind such experiences were included in his lesson plan. Trainers were asked to inform their groups, in a general way, of this research study and to request the Didactic Group members be on their honor not to interact with the Participatory Group members during the two-weeks laboratory. The separate location of the Didactic Group helped to insure a minimum amount of interaction.

Shown in Appendix E is a typical day's schedule during the first phase. On the first day, the chaplains were given an Advance Sheet containing the following statement:

> Given the resources of the National Training Laboratory, the experiences of the student, and a five-day small group human relations laboratory which approximates the dynamics of the chaplain's counseling situation, the chaplain student will interact with peers and the NTL staff in such a way as to: 1) identify the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to build meaningful interpersonal relationships;

> 2) assess verbal and non-verbal communication styles in himself and his peers; 3) determine ways in which his own personal needs influence the establishment of relationships which build an atmosphere of mutual trust and openness; 4) identify ways in which chaplains can be helped to work together effectively and with purpose; 5) define for himself the role of the chaplain in today's Army, to include the chaplain's role as community change agent; 6) develop a sense of community with fellow student chaplains; and, 7) perform self-evaluation of his achievements in each of the above areas.

Shown in Appendix E is a typical day during the second week. At the beginning of these sessions the students were again given Advance Sheets describing the over-all objective of the training. This objective is listed below:

> Given the resources of Primary Group Advisors, the experiences of the student, and a four-day laboratory environment, the chaplain student will interact with his peers and advisors to: 1) identify skills required to process effectively in small groups according to USACHCS Group Process Plan (GPP); 2) implement procedures and methods; 3) identify procedures necessary to maximize learning possibilities for each objective; 4) detect and overcome blocks to the learning process; and, 5) evaluate his own and the group's learning process.

Typical exercises used in the participatory Group were the Trust Walk, the Star Power Game, creative collages, The Johari Window, drug-ranking decision making exercises, and stereotypes. Evaluation of the training, both during and at the end of logical blocks of learning, was a part of the laboratory design. Shown in Appendix F are three evaluation sheets which were used. Activities representative of the second week included the Desert Survival Game, the game of Life, team building exercises and program building exercises.

The over-all goal of the GPP training laboratory was to create a learning environment conducive to maximum interaction between students, peers, and trainers so as to enable the chaplains to:

1. Experience personal development. Such development is multi-faceted and may be expected to occur along at least the following dimensions: 1) increased openness, 2) greater sensitivity, 3) more spontaneity, 4) better self-understanding, 5) warmer and closer to others, 6) better able to handle anger, 7) more cooperative, and 8) enhanced self-image.

2. Acquire team building skills. While this was a major goal of the second week, much team building activity was envisioned for the first week and was easily transferred into later learning. The intent was for chaplains actually to experience the behaviors associated with many roles and functions associated with group life. These included the important task-related and maintenance-related member functions.

3. Learn experientially the techniques of program planning. Subgoals included the selecting of appropriate methods of learning and resources necessary to the attainment of the assigned educational objectives.

In essence, the goals of the Didactic Group were simply to learn the concepts, theory, and principles underlying the exercises and activities employed in the Participatory training. Some of the subjects taught by the Didactic Group instructors were:

1. "A Brief History of Encounter and T-Group Training"

2. "Increasing One's Interpersonal Skills"
3. "The Theory and Meaning of Self-Disclosure"
4. "The Theoretical Formulations Behind the Development and Maintenance of Trust"
5. "Increasing One's Communication Skills"
6. "Verbal and Non-Verbal Expressions of Feelings"
7. "Cooperation and Competition"
8. "The Theory of Conflict"
9. "Team Building Concepts"
10. "The Theory, Concepts, and Principles of the Group Process Plan"

The film Carl Rogers on Education was shown to both groups. Following the film the Participatory Group entered into group discussion as to its meaning and implications. The Didactic Group was lectured by the instructor giving his impression of the film and its possible impact on its viewers.

Post-test

On the last day of the laboratory, both Participatory and Didactic Groups were again administered the POI. As before, the concept of anonymity was followed, allowing the students to use their previously assigned Identification Number rather than disclosing their names. Also, care was taken to insure them that the results were for research purposes only. They were asked to complete the inventory as honestly as possible and were told that they would have an opportunity to view their individual profiles at a later date. A total of 93 chaplains (including the 11 members of the No Pre-test Group) completed the POI at this time.

Pre- and Post-test for the Controls

During a regular class of instruction in military subjects (not related to group process), members of the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-23) were introduced to the POI. Those who elected to complete the inventory were allowed to take the booklets to their quarters and were asked to return them the following morning. Since more than half of the Controls returned home within one week of the pre-test (having completed a particular phase of their military training), administering the post-test was somewhat more complicated than with the Participatory and Didactic Groups. At the end of a two-week period (comparable to the duration of the GPP training lab) those of the Controls who still remained at the Chaplain School were given a second copy with a cover letter giving instructions and explaining its purpose. As before, assurance was given that the results would be used for research purposes only. Those who had departed a week earlier were mailed copies of the POI so that they would receive them on or about two weeks from the pre-test. Each was asked to complete the inventory immediately and return it to the Chaplain School. The importance of the two-week time element was stressed. Of the 20 Controls who completed the pre-test, four failed to return their post-test. Of the 16 returns, two were felt to be invalid in that the number of not answered items exceeded the limit suggested by Shostrom in the POI Manual (1972).

Dissolution of Didactic and Control Groups

On the last day of the laboratory the 11 members of the Didactic Group were integrated back into the other eight Participatory subgroups, as depicted in Appendix C. At this point the Didactic group was disolved, having fulfilled its purpose. Likewise, the Control Group ceased to exist after the post-test measures were obtained. However, the original subgroups of the Participatory Group remained in existence as previously planned and became the permanent learning groups for the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-22) for the subsequent academic session.

Treatment of the Data

To prepare the data for statistical treatment, POI answer sheets were scored in accordance with the POI Manual (Shostrom, 1972) and sorted into four major categories: Participatory (Subgroups 1-7), Didactic (Subgroup 8), No-Pretest (Subgroup 9), and Control (Subgroup 10). A codebook was written describing in detail how the POI scores and biographical data from the above groups were to be coded for punching onto the Hollerith cards for later computer processing. From the data that were coded, a Hollerith card was punched for each subject on the respective research variables.

Utilizing tailored computer programs from Data-Text (Armor & Couch, 1972) and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Bent, & Hull, 1970), statistical operations were performed on the data at the Columbia University Computer Center. These operations are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

Presentation of Data

Pre-training Comparability

Effort was made in designing this experiment to 1) maximize the variance of participatory group process training, 2) control variance extraneous to the study, such as the subject's personal characteristics, experience, and time on active duty, and 3) minimize error variance, including the possibility of errors of measurement. Controlling extraneous variance in a study conducted in an on-going educational institution such as the US Army Chaplain School is an ideal not totally attainable. However, every effort was made to reduce such variance to the lowest level.

To examine the initial comparability of the research groups, an analysis of variance was performed on the POI pretest mean scores for the Inner Directedness (I) scale. This analysis included the scores of 107 chaplains from the Participatory Subgroups, the Didactic Group, and the Control Group. An Analysis of Variance Table is presented as Table 3. A value of F=.691 was obtained. Since an F value of 2.063, with df of 8 and 87 is required for significance at the .05 level, it was concluded that the subjects were from the same population. Thus, no single group was considered to have an unfair advantage over the others at the beginning of the experiment.

TABLE 3

Analysis of Variance for Experimental and Control Groups

Source[a]	df	MS	F
Among Groups	8	216.773	.691
Within Groups	87	313.652	

[a]POI pretest mean scores on Inner-Directed Scale (I).

In an effort to corroborate an initial assumption that the groups in this study were composed of relatively normal people, the pretest means for the POI scales for all 107 subjects were compared with the normative means produced by a number of different populations. The results are presented in Table 3a. It is evident from these data that the scores of the chaplains are equivalent to those of a normal population. Based on the adult norms reported by Shostrom (1963) and procedures developed by Fox (1965), the mean scores on all 12 POI scales were observed to be in the self-actualizing range (within one standard deviation of the mean).

Hypothesis I

This hypothesis predicted that movement toward self-actualization would occur as the result of participatory group process training. The basic statistics associated with the testing of this hypothesis, using the mean gain scores for the Time Competent-Inner Directedness (T_C-I) scales, are presented in Table 4. While it can be seen that all groups increased (including the Didactics and the Controls), Participatory Subgroup 1 with a mean score of 11.800 demonstrated the greatest degree of movement toward self-actualization. The group with the next highest score was Participatory Subgroup 5. Surprisingly, Participatory Subgroup 7, with a mean of .727 showed the least gain. To determine the significance of the variability observed, an analysis of variance was performed. The results are shown in the Analysis of Variance Table

TABLE 3a

Comparison of Pre-test POI Scores for US Army Chaplains with a Normal Adult Population

	US Army Chaplains[a] N=96		Normal Adult[b] N=158		Mean Diff
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Time Competence	17.7	3.0	17.7	2.8	0.0
Inner Directed	87.7	12.2	87.2	13.6	0.5
Self Actualizing Value	20.4	3.0	20.2	3.0	0.2
Existentiality	21.1	4.5	21.8	5.1	0.7
Feeling Reactivity	16.1	3.0	15.7	3.3	0.4
Spontaneity	12.6	3.1	11.6	3.0	1.0
Self-Regard	12.4	2.4	12.0	2.7	0.4
Self-Acceptance	17.2	3.2	17.1	4.0	0.1
Nature of Man	11.8	1.9	12.4	1.9	0.6
Synergy	7.4	1.2	7.3	1.2	0.1
Acceptance of Aggression	17.2	2.9	16.6	3.7	0.6
Capacity for Intimate Contact	19.2	3.9	18.8	4.6	0.4

[a]Includes the scores of Participatory, Didactic, and Control Groups.

[b]Based on POI Adult Norms reported by Shostrom (1963).

TABLE 4

POI Mean Gain Scores (T_c-I) for Experimental and Control Groups

Group	Statistic			
	Mean	SD	N	Variance
Participatory				
Subgroup 1	11.800	10.815	10	116.960
Subgroup 2	5.545	7.076	11	50.066
Subgroup 3	2.500	10.249	10	105.050
Subgroup 4	5.556	6.735	9	45.358
Subgroup 5	11.700	7.497	10	56.210
Subgroup 6	7.400	3.693	10	13.640
Subgroup 7	.727	9.284	11	86.198
Didactic	7.455	5.533	11	30.612
Control	4.357	6.465	14	41.801

(Table 5). The F of 2.21 is significant at $p < .05$. Based on this significant F ratio, it was decided to make specific comparisons of group mean gain scores. Following the method developed by Scheffé (1959), post hoc comparisons were made on each Participatory sub-group mean gain score with mean = 0.0 to determine if any observed differences were significant (Table 6). While the procedure employed here represents a departure from the normal use of the Scheffé method, it was considered highly advantageous in this case and further demonstrates the versatility and applicability of this particular comparison system.[1] For a difference to be considered significant, using this procedure and employing a significance level of .10 as receommended by Scheffé, F is required to be equal to or greater than 14. It is evident from these data that none of these scores reached the acceptable significance level. Thus, it was concluded that Hypothesis I was not supported. The significant F value shown in Table 5 must, therefore, be attributed to chance variation.

Hypothesis II

This hypothesis predicted that Participatory subjects would show greater increases toward self-actualization than Didactic subjects. A visual examination of differences in mean gain scores for these two methods (Table 4) revealed that while two of the seven Participatory subgroups made greater gains than the Didactic (Subgroups 2 and 5 versus Didactic), Didactic subjects actually did better than the other five Participatory subgroups (Subgroups 2, 3, 4, and 7 versus Didactic). To examine the actual

TABLE 5

Analysis of Variance for Experimental and Control Groups

Source[a]	df	MS	F
Among Groups	8	146.270	2.214*
Within Groups	87	66.065	

[a]POI mean gain scores (T_C-I).

*$p < .05$ level.

TABLE 6

Post Hoc Comparisons for

Experimental and Control Groups[a]

Group	Comparison[b]		
	F	F'	Significance[c]
Participatory			
Subgroup 1	10.827	14.000	NS
Subgroup 2	2.528	14.000	NS
Subgroup 3	.486	14.000	NS
Subgroup 4	2.274	14.000	NS
Subgroup 5	10.644	14.000	NS
Subgroup 6	4.258	14.000	NS
Subgroup 7	.043	14.000	NS
Didactic	4.588	14.000	NS
Control	1.764	14.000	NS

[a]Method due to Scheffé.

[b]POI mean gain scores (T_c-I) for above groups were compared with mean = 0.

[c]Value of F' = 14.000 is required for significance at the .10 level for df_1=8 and df_2=87.

TABLE 7

F Ratios for Post Hoc Comparisons

for Experimental and Control Groups[abc]

Group[d]	Group							
	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	X
I	3.047	6.545	2.756	.001	1.465	9.721	1.466	8.289
II		.761	.000	2.950	.256	1.977	.300	.139
III			.689	6.405	1.817	.274	2.180	.546
IV				2.667	.232	1.872	.284	.119
V					1.399	9.546	1.398	4.705
VI						3.530	.000	.794
VII							3.819	1.257
VIII								.896

[a]Method due to Scheffé.

[b]POI mean gain scores (T_c-I).

[c]A value of F'=14.00 is required for significance at the .10 level for df_1=8 and df_2=87

[d]Participatory = I-VII; Didactic = VIII; Control = X.

variability of the group means among the groups, an analysis of variance was performed on the mean gain scores for the T_C-I scale. These data have been presented in Table 5. Again, based on the significant F ratio obtained, post hoc comparisons were made on all means (two by two) following the method of Scheffé. Table 7 is a summary of the F ratios which resulted from these comparisons. Since a value of F'=14.000 is required for significance at the .10 level for df 8 and 87, none of these tabled values reach the acceptable level, therefore, are not significant. To test for a possible significant difference between Participatory (all subgroups combined) and Didactic, an additional post hoc comparison was made following the Scheffé method. The results are shown in Table 8. The same value for F' is required. Obviously the F obtained does not reach the acceptable level. From the foregoing analysis it was concluded that these data fail to support Hypothesis II.

Hypothesis III

Hypothesis III predicted that Participatory subjects would show greater movement toward self-actualization than the Controls. A visual examination of the POI scores (Table 4) indicates that five of the seven Participatory subgroups did produce increases which were greater than the Control. To test statistically the variability of these scores, an analysis of variance was performed. The results are presented in Table 5. In view of the significant F ($p < .05$), multiple post hoc comparisons were calculated according to the procedures developed

TABLE 8

Post Hoc Comparison for

Participatory and Didactic Groups[a]

Group	Comparison[b]		
	F	F'	Significance[c]
I-VII versus X	.140	14.000	NS

[a]Method due to Scheffé.

[b]Comparison of combined POI mean gain scores (T_c-I) for Participatory Subgroups 1-7 with Didactic Group.

[c]A value of F'=14.000 is required for significance at the .10 level for df_1=8 and df_2=87.

by Scheffé (Table 7). None of these comparisons are significant. A further test was made in which the mean gain score of the combined Participatory Subgroups 1-7 was compared to the Control mean. The results are presented in Table 9. For F to be significant at the .10 level with df 8 and 87 (following the Scheffe method), F'=14.000 is required. The value obtained does not reach the acceptable level and, therefore, is not significant. Thus, it was concluded that these data fail to support Hypothesis III.

Hypothesis IV

This hypothesis predicted that the degree of self-actualization attained would be related to previous group process training and time on active duty. To test this hypothesis, the variables of Weeks of Previous Group Training (TNG) and Months on Active Duty (AD) were correlated with the respective POI pretest mean scores for Experimental and Control subjects on the Inner-Directedness (I) scale. Table 10 presents the correlation coefficients for these variables. The correlation between Weeks of Previous Group Training and the POI is r_{TNG}=.193, while the correlation between Months on Active Duty and the POI is r_{AD}=.157. Standard Scores (z) were computed on both correlation coefficients. The former resulted in a value of z = 1.88 and the latter in z=1.53. While neither of these reach the acceptable significance level of .05, the p of r_{TNG} is about .06 and does indicate a reasonable degree of relationship. However, statistically these data fail to support Hypothesis IV.

TABLE 9

Post Hoc Comparison for

Participatory and Control Groups[a]

Group	Comparison[b] F	F'	Significance[c]
I-VI versus X	1.774	14.000	NS

[a]Method due to Scheffé.

[b]Comparison of combined POI mean gain scores (T_c-I) for Participatory Subgroups 1-7 with Control Group.

[c]A value of F'=14.000 is required for significance at the .10 level for df_1=8 and df_2=87.

TABLE 10

Correlations Between POI Scale and Two Research Variables

Scale	r_{TNG}[a]	r_{AD}[b]
Inner-Directedness (I)[cd]	.193	.157

[a]Correlation with weeks of Previous Group Process Training.

[b]Correlation with months of Active Duty.

[c]POI pretest mean scores for Experimental and Control groups.

Methodological consideration. In developing the research design of this study, consideration was given to the possible effect of the POI pretest experience on the later POI measures. This investigator wanted to insure that the gains reported by the Experimental subjects were due to the training and not to the influence of the pretest or familiarity with the instrument itself. Consequently, a No-pretest group was formed. These subjects were trained under Participatory conditions and were administered the POI only once at the conclusion of the GPP training. To examine the variability of the research groups, an analysis of variance was performed using the POI post-test scores for the Inner Directedness (I) scale. The results are shown in Table 11. This analysis resulted in an F ratio of .635 which failed to attain an acceptable level of statistical significance. Thus, it was concluded that the influence of early POI measures on later measures on the same instrument was negligible.

TABLE 11

Analysis of Variance

for Experimental[a] and Control Groups

Source[b]	df	MS	F
Among Groups	9	155.486	.635
Within Groups	97	244.700	

[a]Included in this analysis were the scores of the No-pretest Group.

[b]POI post-test mean scores for Inner-Directed Scales.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Implications

Summary

The central problem of this study was to determine the effects of participatory group process training on the personal orientations of Army student chaplains. Specifically it asked: What are the effects on the personal orientations of Army student chaplains who receive training in group process under participatory versus didactic learning conditions? The two approaches which were tested differed basically on the dimension of interaction. While the Participatory subjects were experiencing the dynamics of group process, Didactic subjects were being taught the principles, concepts, and theoretical formulations of the same process. The learning method employed by the participatory group was a synthesis of NTL T-group training and a special application of Participation Training (Indiana Plan) known as the Group Process Plan (GPP). Didactic training followed traditional instructor-centered methods.

A total of 107 chaplains in training at the US Army Chaplain Center and School were selected as subjects for this study. The research design chosen was a modified version of the Soloman Four-group Form (Kerlinger, 1964).

Ninety-three students of the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-22) were matched on selected personal and social characteristics and were assigned to nine groups of 10 to 11 subjects each.

Seven of these groups were selected, on a random basis to receive Participatory training; one, Didactic training and, one (for methodological considerations) to receive Participatory training, but as a non-pre-test group. The Controls were composed of 24 self-selected subjects from the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-23). Subjects of the research groups were administered Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) prior to a two-weeks period of training in group process and again at the end. For the Controls where no group process training occurred, an equivalent period of time elapsed between the early and late POI measures.

Participatory training consisted of a two-phase training laboratory in which one week was devoted to relatively unstructured T-group activity, and a second week which focused on learning how to function effectively in the GPP learning environment. The training was designed to provide an environment in which students could interact with their peers and trainers so that they would: 1) experience personal growth (i.e., more openness, increased sensitivity, greater spontaneity, more understanding, warmer feeling toward others, better able to handle anger, and increased self-esteem); 2) acquire team building skills (i.e., experience the behaviors associated with the various responsibilities and functions of group membership, leadership roles, and other group activities requiring cooperative effort; and 3) learn experientially the techniques of program planning (i.e., select methods of learning and resources to meet group and institutional objectives).

The overall goals of Didactic training were to teach concepts, theory, and principles underlying those exercises and activities which the Participatory subjects were experiencing in their training. They were taught the importance of interpersonal skills, the meaning of self-disclosure, the theoretical formulations behind the development and maintenance of trust, how one can increase his communication skills, the concepts behind certain verbal and non-verbal expressions of feelings, team building principles, the importance of cooperation versus competition in groups, and the processes involved in the GPP.

Four research hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis I predicted that movement toward self-actualization would occur as a result of participatory group process training. Based on analysis of variance and subsequent post hoc comparisons of the mean gain scores, it was concluded that the results failed to support Hypothesis I.

Hypothesis II predicted that Participatory subjects would show greater increases toward self-actualization than Didactic subjects. Statistical analysis of the mean gain score differences between these groups resulted in findings which were not significant. An additional post hoc comparison was made of the combined Participatory mean gain score with the mean gain score of the Didactic Group. The results were not significant. Thus, it was concluded that these data failed to support Hypothesis II.

Hypothesis III predicted that Participatory subjects would show greater movement toward self-actualization than Control

subjects. The significance of the mean gain score differences of these groups was examined by means of analysis of variance and subsequent post hoc comparisons. While the Participatory subjects made greater gains than Controls in five of the seven subgroups compared, the results indicated that none of these increases were statistically significant. It was concluded, therefore, that Hypothesis III was not supported.

Hypothesis IV predicted that the degree of self-actualization attained would be related to 1) previous group process training, and 2) time on active duty. Correlation coefficients computed on the POI pretest mean scores and these two variables resulted in r_{TNG}=.193 and r_{AD}=.157, respectively. The correlation between the degree of self-actualization attained and previous group process training as well as the correlation between self-actualization and time on active duty were not significant. Consequently, Hypothesis IV was not supported.

Conclusions

The overall conclusion of this investigation is that participatory group process training, following the GPP laboratory model and measured by the POI, is less effective than had been assumed. Neither the treatment effects nor the sensitivity of the research instrument confirm pretreatment expectations. Since all pretest-post-test POI differences and correlation measures failed to reach acceptable levels of significance, it is considered that none of the hypotheses of this investigation are supported. Specific conclusions which may be drawn, however, in terms of the actual results obtained, are listed below.

1. Changes toward increased self-actualization of US Army

student chaplains as the result of group process training under Participatory conditions cannot be predicted with any degree of certainty. Changes in personal orientations will occur and increases will result in time competence, inner-directedness, valuing, feeling reactivity and spontaneity, self-perception, synergistic awareness, and interpersonal sensitivity. However, none of these increases can be expected to occur with any greater degree of certainty than one would expect from chance alone.

2. Training in group process under participatory conditions has not been shown to be statistically superior in producing increases in self-actualization among student chaplains than similar training under didactic conditions. While changes may occur as the result of interaction and personal involvement in an encounter group learning environment, similar changes may also occur simply from learning the concepts, principles, and theoretical formulations associated with groups and group process. Previous assumptions concerning the dissimilarity and distinctiveness of content (cognitive) learning and affective (conative) learning, as they relate specifically to group process training and the GPP training model, are not corroborated.

3. Normal classroom training where the subject matter is other than group process is not statistically inferior (in terms of producing positive changes on the POI) than training which is group process oriented. Student chaplains who receive training in topics unrelated to groups or group process can be expected to make increases toward self-actualization similar to those who

receive group process training under either participatory or didactic procedures. None of these training conditions is statistically superior to the other. Consequently, none is more efficacious as a self-actualization producing mode.

4. A modest relationship exists between previous training in group process and the level of self-actualization which student chaplains possess. A chaplain who has had prior encounter group experience or training in group process and dynamics may be expected initially to obtain a higher score on the POI than a chaplain who has had little or none. However, no relationship exists between level of self-actualization and time on active duty. Chaplains who have been in the service for a long period of time can not be expected to be more self-actualized, on that basis alone, than chaplains who have been on active duty for shorter periods of time. On the other hand, those who have more time on active duty are not less-actualized than those with fewer months or years. In essense, no relationship exists between these two variables.

Discussion

The findings of this investigation fail to corroborate a number of important assumptions which have been made, both about the ability of participatory group process training itself to produce significant changes in the personal orientations of its participants and in terms of its effectiveness as a training mode. Failure to obtain significant differences between early and later measurements on the POI bring into question the theoretical formulations of a number of investigators who have employed the same

instrument, followed similar training procedures, and provided equivalent learning conditions for their research subjects, but have observed participatory training to be highly efficacious (Culbert et al., 1968; Byrd, 1970; Eiben, 1970; and Guinan & Foulds, 1970). Generally, the empirical evidence of this study supports the theoretical point of view of Liberman, et al., (1973). These researchers claimed that as a mechanism for personal change, the encounter group was relatively impotent. Yet they discovered, as did this investigator, the existence of certain underlying principles associated with groups which were meaningful and valuable to the learning process, namely their ability to involve and to provide a setting in which personal changes can occur. The fact that an individual has an opportunity to learn something about himself by explicitly making use of others' reactions to his behavior renders the GPI training model useful.

Why the findings of this study should differ from those of related research is a matter about which much speculation could be made. It is essential that this and all other such investigations be interpreted according to the rules of educational research. Rather than to speculate, it may be helpful to consider certain variables which were not possible to control within the research design employed. At least six variables that may have been instrumental in producing the results that were observed are discussed below.

Extra Curricular Interaction. The ideal research design would have totally isolated the Participatory subjects from the Didactics and further isolated the Controls from the others. While every effort was made to reduce to the minimum the interaction between the various research groups, the possible existence of uncontrolled variables of this nature must be recognized as a limitation of this study. Within the Didactic Group, interaction between instructor and students was normal and generally was content oriented (e.g., asking for clarification, information, advice; giving answers, facts, data, etc.). However, it was impossible to control the interaction that may have occured in the evening hours after the regular class sessions. The majority of the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course students lived in government owned high-rise apartments, thus placing them in close proximity to each other raising further the possibility of interaction effects. The Controls lived in the same dormitories, rode the bus together to and from classes daily, and consciously endeavored to make the concept of "eccumenism" a reality. Additionally, the fact that one half of the Controls returned to their homes in civilian environments one week prior to completing the post-test increases the chances of self-actualizing influences apart from the Chaplain School.

Modeling Effect on Didactics. While most of the instruction was given by the lecture method in the Didactic Group, some use was made of films and other visual materials. From a behavioral learning point of view, use of such media may be considered

experiential in nature and antecedent to vicarious learning (Bandura, 1969). The instructors were themselves highly self-actualized (as measured by the POI) and may have served as models in terms of social learning.

Effect of Group Size. This variable may have been at work in the Didactic Group. While strict adherence to didactic pedagogical procedures was maintained by the instructors, the smallness of the class and intimacy of the classroom environment may have been influential in producing the changes which were observed from instruction given under these conditions. Traditionally, classes employing didactic methods are larger than was the case for this research group. Although interaction between students was controlled, there is a sense in which -- due simply to the size of the group -- students may have perceived the learning environment as interactive. Thus, the net effect may have been the introduction of dynamics not greatly different from what might be found in Participatory training.

Hawthorn Effect. Like most research studies of this kind, there was the ever present possibility that the so-called Hawthorn Effect was instrumental in producing the changes that were observed and measured. The mere activities of conducting the study, selecting the subjects for the various groups, and administering the testing instruments, may have caused the students to perceive themselves as being given special attention. Consequently, these may have been operative, in and of themselves, in producing movement toward self-actualization.

Lack of Anonymity in Completing the POI. Due to an early oversight, the concept of anonymity was not employed in the completion of the POI by the Controls. Some chaplains expressed interest that the results might find their way into official personnel files and subsequently affect their Officer Efficiency Ratings. In view of this situation, it is not inconceivable that some may have tended to respond to their "ideal" self-image rather than accurately completing the instrument. This is not to impute dishonesty to the subjects; rather, it is recognition of an activity which frequently occurs under testing conditions. While some research has been conducted on the problem of "faking" (Braun, 1969), this study supports the findings of Culbert et al., (1968) that the precise relationship that exists between POI scores and overt behavior are to date still unclear.

Selection of Controls. While it would have been more desireable for the Controls to have been selected from the same class, it was not possible to exempt that large number of Active Duty chaplains from regularly scheduled two-weeks period of training. The alternative population from which the Controls were chosen may have been more diverse than was observable from the measurements obtained.

Implications

The implications of this study focus on several issues associated with chaplain training and training methods, both within the academic environment of the US Army Chaplain School and the

total chaplaincy. Of primary importance is the issue of the goals of group process training itself. The findings of this study strongly support the view espoused by Hourts and Serber (1973) that unless the goals and objectives of groups are clearly defined in advance of training, it is impossible to test empirically whether or not they have been achieved. The fact that certain goals of the GPP training model were stated in advance, namely, more innerdirectedness, greater competence in the use of time, more spontenaety, higher self-regard, greater warmness, and increased skill in interpersonal relationships on the part of student chaplains, gives credence to the conclusions of this study. However, these findings raise the possibility of imposing goals upon group process training which may be too narrow and which, when they are not reached, lead to the erroneous conclusion that the entire training effort is without merit. Preparation training for full participation in the Group Process Plan includes other goals which either were not as explicitly stated as some or were not directly a part of this research design. Goals such as "team building," "increased knowledge," and "achievement of USACHCS learning objectives" suggest possibilities for further research, along with the development of additional measurement instruments.

An obvious implication of this study suggests that caution should be exercised in attempting to predict growth toward self-actualization, based solely on the effects of participatory group

process training and employing the POI as the only measurement instrument. Failure to obtain significant results under these treatment conditions is not unique to this investigation (Counseling Center Staff, 1972). It is apparent that self-actualization is a multifacited multidimensional state of being, the antecedents of which are neither fully known nor totally measurable. It may be, as suggested by Raanan (1973), that a good deal more attention needs to be focused on the establishment of additional data on both the reliability and validity of the POI especially on the issue of "faking." Until such data are available, its value as either a diagnostic or research instrument appears limited.

To suggest that the process of change within a group is directly related to its leader is tenuous. None of the differences between the groups of this study (all of which had different leaders) were found to be significant. What may be implied, as suggested by the findings of Liberman et al., (1973), is that within the group itself there exists rather powerful psychosocial forces which are available to group members and by which much of the measured change can be explained. It is imperative that school administrators and group leaders alike recognize the presence of these forces and understand how to channel them appropriately toward effective and useful purposes.

The finding that the Didactic method of group process training was not less effective than the Participatory, in terms of producing movement toward self-actualization, gives rise to a

special implication for the design of future GPP training laboratories. It appears logical that such design would include a kind of synthesis of Participatory training along with an appropriate mix of group process principles, concepts, theory, and examples of application. It not only would provide participants with deep emotional experiences, but would help them to objectify these experiences and place them in proper perspective, thus, providing meaning for the future. This idea is in harmony with the theoretical formulations of Liberman et al., (1973) who suggest that well balanced intensive group experience ". . . with accent on reflection [author's italics] as well as experience and with a focus both on the present and on the future application of the present may be a potent vehicle for change."

Another implication which emerges from this investigation concerns both the selection of appropriate criteria with which to judge growth toward self-actualization and the issue of the validity of the POI itself. In view of the modest relationship found between previous group process training and the participant's level of self-actualization, a question is raised concerning the degree of movement necessary on the POI scale to judge a particular training approach effective or ineffective. For example, consider the person who previously received training in group process and who initially scored high on the POI before training but, at the conclusion of training revealed only slight gains when measured. Can it be concluded, on the basis of the POI gains alone, that the training was effective or not? The reverse of this

of this situation raises similar questions. It appears that the matter of choosing appropriate criteria for making these judgments is sufficiently critical as to warrant further research.

Traditionally, research on the outcomes of groups has been limited, by and large, to the effects of training over relatively short periods of time (Culbert et al., 1968; Tchack, 1972; Byrd, 1970; Reddy, 1971; Guinan & Foulds, 1970; Fitzgerald, 1973; Liberman et al., 1973). This investigation followed in that tradition and studied the effects of participatory group process training on the personal orientations of Army student chaplains during a two-week training laboratory. The briefness of such training raises the distinct possibility that important processes are only initiated within this time frame and are not actually measurable until a later date. The gains toward self-actualization which were found to be not significant as a result of the briefer training in this experiment might well prove to be statistically significant given more time. This suggests the need for a longitudinal study at the US Army Chaplain Center and School in which the same subjects would be measured again on the POI at the conclusion of nine months of continuous participatory training in the Group Process Plan. Thus, the school administration would have available additional data on the impact of long-term, in-depth participation in its recently adopted and relatively innovative group learning procedure.

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APPENDIX A

Notes

NOTES

Chapter 1

1. The Group Process Plan (GPP) was developed in response to the need to find a method of instruction capable of teaching "soft skills" required of graduates of the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course. These skills are conceptual and subjective in nature, require the development and application of interpersonal skills, and are used to solve problems which have no absolute answers. It was modeled after the Indiana Plan for Adult Education developed by Dr. Paul Bergiven of the Indiana University. Its adoption by the US Army Chaplain School was due in large part to the efforts of such innovative educators as Chaplain (Lieutenant Colonel) Edward L. O'Shea, then Chief of the Evaluations and Methods Division, Chaplain (Colonel) Charles F. Kriete, then Chief of the Curriculum Division, Chaplain (Major) Richard R. Tupy, Jr., then Curriculum Officer and Mr. Emil A. Westerinen, USACHCS Education Advisor. The Commandant of the US Army Chaplain School at that time was Chaplain (Colonel) Theodore V. Koepke. Chaplain (Colonel) Chester R. Lindsey was Commandant when the first GPP Workshop was conducted and the GPP was instituted as the primary method of instruction for the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course. Basically, it is a plan for learning in small groups (7 to 15) which capitalizes on student experience, requires intensive student interaction, and student responsibility in terms of both his interaction, and student responsibility in terms of both his own learning and the learning of other members in the group. It requires recognition and use of group dynamic techniques in developing groups into learning teams in which cooperation takes precedence over competition. The first GPP training laboratory was conducted in August, 1971. It was one week in length and followed the basic design of the Indiana Plan. The second laboratory conduced in September, 1972, was two weeks in length; however, in contrast to the training described in this study, the NTL portion was scheduled after the GPP week. A more detailed explanation of the GPP is shown in Appendix A.

2. Announcement of this program was made in the US Army Chief of Chaplains' Newsletter, October 1973.

3. An excellent description of the systems approach adopted by the Chaplain School is contained in a mimeographed statement written by Chaplain Richard R. Tupy, Jr. and Chaplain Charles F. Kriete entitled, "USACHS Takes a Systems Approach to Training." They list five general principles: 1) Each part of the system must be related to all other parts of the system and to the system

as a whole; 2) All major decisions must be objectively derived, justified and documented; 3) The training needs of the student provide the basic building blocks of course design; 4) The tasks which graduates perform on the job provide the fundamental basis for instruction; and, 5) The most appropriate means of training should be used to do the job.

Chapter 3

1. The Group Process Plan (GPP) is the adopted method of instruction for the Chaplain Officer Advanced Course (C-22). See Appendix A.

2. A concept of anonymity was followed in the collection of biographical data and in the formation of the groups.

3. Experience with the Control Group in which some anxiety was raised caused the investigator to consider allowing the subjects to complete the answer sheets anonymously.

Chapter 4

1. The Scheffé method normally is used to make comparisons with observed means (e.g., with actual pretest and post-test mean scores of the group). As employed in this investigation, comparisons are made with an observed mean (i.e., actual mean score) and a theoretical mean (i.e., mean = 0.0). Scheffé (1953) has suggested that his test is appropriate for making <u>any</u> and <u>all</u> comparisons of interest between a set of k means, including those comparisons that may be suggested by the values of the means themselves. The Scheffé method is more rigorous than other multiple comparison methods with regard to Type I error; thus, fewer significant differences may be expected. Because of this, Scheffé (1959) has suggested that the investigator consider employing a less rigorous significance level in using the Scheffe procedure; that is, using the .10 level rather than the .05 level.

APPENDIX B

The Group Process Plan: A Student Oriented Learning Procedure for Soft Skills

US ARMY CHAPLAIN CENTER AND SCHOOL
FORT HAMILTON, NEW YORK 11252

THE GROUP PROCESS PLAN

A STUDENT ORIENTED LEARNING PROCEDURE FOR SOFT SKILLS

BACKGROUND

The Career Course (C-22) curriculum of the US Army Chaplain Center and School (USACHCS) is comprised of performance oriented training objectives designed to enable the student to perform specific tasks expected of him after graduation. Like other TRADOC career courses, the USACHCS C-22 curriculum is concerned primarily with "soft" skills. These skills, conceptual and subjective in nature, require the development and application of interpersonal skills, and are used to solve problems for which there are no absolute answers.

The choice of a learning procedure/environment is at least as important as the content to be learned. The procedure selected may never be seen as merely one of many possible methods, but rather must be selected because it has a message of its own -- a message which is in harmony with the content to be learned. It is for this reason that USACHCS has abandoned the traditional platform teaching and uses the Group Process Plan (GPP).

THE GROUP PROCESS PLAN

The GROUP PROCESS PLAN used at USACHCS is a procedure by which learning takes place in small groups of approximately 12 students each. In order to give each group a base of experience which is as broad as possible, students are initially assigned to their groups on the basis of their past experience. Each group is assigned one faculty member who serves his group as its primary group advisor.

At the beginning of each instructional period the advisor gives his group one of the course objectives. These objectives are stated in performance language and include specific criteria which must be met. In addition to the objective, the group is given an outline which is roughly analogous to a lesson plan in a traditional military class. These outlines are prepared by a primary instructor and represent his best judgment as to what content matter he feels the student needs in order to achieve the objective AND a recommended method for proceeding.

Once given the objective, there are four steps the group takes enroute to learning:

STEP 1: The group will discuss the content matter internal to the outline. Because each student in the group represents an individual learning unit with his own level of experience and his own needs relative to the objective, the group is asked to satisfy individual, specific needs by evaluating the outline to assure that these needs are included. There are two limitations imposed on the group in this step.

1. Any modification resulting from the evaluation of the outline must be made by group consensus.

2. The requirement to perform the objective in accordance with the original criteria must be satisfied.

STEP 2: The group will discuss the method recomended in the outline. Because every individual has his own unique strengths/weaknesses, requirements for both content matter and method of procedure may differ among the eight groups. However, within reasonable limits, each group is allowed the freedom to determine its own content need and its own procedure for achieving its objective(s). In this way students are involved in the actual design of their instructional program and are able to invest themselves at their own level of ability. There are two restrictions imposed on the group in this step.

1. The modifications to the outline must be made by group consensus.

2. The method chosen must be realistic and feasible.*

(*) Note: The areas in which the method recommended MAY NOT be modified are: Guest speakers and workshops; Go/No-Go evaluation points; primary instructor lectures and feedback sessions which have been concurred in by the primary group advisors (see primary advisors modification procedure under FACULTY ROLES).

STEP 3: The group learns by following its outline. There are two basic requirements in this step.

1. A basic tenet is that the group teaches itself. After the group determines what it needs and how to do it, group members must interact with each other and the learning environment to make it happen. It is not merely a stated educational principle, but an actual fact at USACHCS, that the student is responsible for his own learning.

2. Secondly, EVERY member of the group must learn and it is the responsibility of the group, and every member in it, to insure that this happens. If any member cannot perform the objective, the group must act in order to correct the deficiency. To insure learning, evaluation takes place in the group, and in individual criterion referenced testing. Satisfactory performance in the group at predtermined Go/No-Go points is a condition of eligibility for the individual tests.

STEP 4: The group is required to observe and report on its own behavior exhibited during Step 3. An unwritten but significant part of each objective is to enable the student to learn and understand the ways in which he both aids and impedes a group as it tries to solve problems. Therefore, each day the group is required to appoint an OBSERVER for that day. At least once during the day the observer is required to give the group an oral report on how it conducted its business and how well it practices good group learning techniques.

This four step learning process of discussing and evaluating the outline, content and method of procedure, assuming responsibility for learning, and reporting on its own group behavior provides the framework within which the group must operate. Because of the provisions for modification in Step 1 and 2 by group consensus, two significant learning dynamics are employed. It is quite obvious that when a group of experienced chaplains are permitted to modify the content and method of procedure in the lesson outline to satisfy their own needs, consensus is not a foregone conclusion, and intense interaction results. Though it is difficult to say at which step learning takes place in this process, it would be absolutely wrong to assume that it takes place only, or even primarily, at Step 3. By the very process of arriving at consensus the members of the group are forced to deal with subject matter content. It is this dynamic, getting at content through process, which breeds depth and breadth of understanding.

A corollary and equally important dynamic is that of group interaction itself. In the process of reaching group consensus and achieving the objective in a group setting, the group members are forced to interact with each other. It is at this point that human personalities and traits sometimes get in the way and must be dealt with. The individual group members are required to deal with these problems and resolve interpersonal tensions or be frustrated in their efforts to achieve their objective. Thus, the process forces the individual students to become members of a team and to develop an enviornment in which cooperation takes precedence over competition. In the process of establishing this environment, not only is content learned in depth, but also the student is given an interpersonal environment very similar to that in which soft skills are normally employed.

FACULTY ROLES

There are two basic and equally important roles played by faculty members. The most visible role assumed by faculty members in this plan is as PRIMARY GROUP ADVISOR. As such, he is NOT a teacher in the traditional sense but rather a FACILITATOR of the learning process. It is his task to meet regularly with the group at its sessions and participate in its planning and deliberations. He is responsible for insuring, through non-coercive measures, that the group stays on the track, and must be ready with suggestions in the event the group flounders. As the faculty member of the group he also serves it as an advisor on available resources. Finally, he assists in assessing both group and individual progress toward the objectives. He is aided in this task by basic Go/No-Go evaluation devices designed by another member of the faculty team: the PRIMARY INSTRUCTOR.

The primary instructor is responsible for developing the outline which is recommended to the group, for providing a list of resources available to the group, for devising evaluation procedures, (e.g. Go/No-Go instruments), for assisting the primary group advisor in assessing group/individual progress toward the objectives, and for serving as a resource person for both the group and its primary advisor.

The relationship between the primary instructor and the primary group advisors is basically a helping one. Before the objective and outline are presented to the student groups, they are subjected to a primary group advisor modification step. In precisely the same way the outline is presented to the student groups for modification, the objective and outline are also presented to the group of primary group advisors. In this meeting the advisors discuss and evaluate the outline in the way they feel the students in their groups would. On the thesis that the primary group advisors know the needs of the members of their group, it is hoped that any resulting modification will reduce the modification required by the groups in order to meet their specific needs and interests.

One final word on modification. Modification is possible twice for each objective and outline presented: first, when it is modified by the primary group advisors and again when it is introduced to the student groups. However, student groups are encouraged to start each day by reviewing their outline. An outline at best is merely a prediction of the content needed and the most effective method available. As the group gets into the objective it may discover data it needs but which is not provided in its initial outline. Or the group may discover new and better ways to learn than those first chosen. Thus, review and modification should be an ongoing thing with only the primary objective remaining constant.

The GROUP PROCESS PLAN is clearly student oriented. It concentrates activity and responsibility on the student himself and reinterprets traditional instructor roles from central to supporting ones. Because the plan requires both students and faculty to perform in unaccustomed ways they must be prepared for their roles in special five-day workshops conducted at the beginning of the academic year. There are two phases to these workshops.

PHASE I. The first two days are devoted to developing the group into a learning team. In order to develop the skills essential to relate and learn in an intense interpersonal environment, a degree of training in interpersonal relationships is introduced. However, the depth of training is that required to achieve the aim of gaining the level essential to accomplishing specific learning tasks.

PHASE II. The last three days of the workshop are devoted to learning how to plan and implement an educational program. In this phase the groups, now functioning as new learning teams, are introduced to a planning procedure to aid them in planning their learning program. In addition they are taught a variety of MOI which they can use (e.g.: case study, forum, panel, interview, lecture/conference, etc.) and the criteria for selecting the appropriate MOI. As a conclusion to the workshop each group is required to plan and present specified programs to the other groups using any MOI EXCEPT group discussion. Thus, the groups experience and observe a variety of MOI in preparation for their ultimate task: learning the tasks expected of the C-22 graduate when he graduates from USACHCS and enters the field.

THE OBJECTIVE AND THE GPP

1. GENERAL. While the modification phase for student groups is limited to the OUTLINE, and the OBJECTIVE is a given which they cannot change, the same limitation is NOT imposed on the Primary Group Advisor (PGA) in his modification meeting with the Primary Instructor (PI). Although it must always be assumed that the PI is the subject matter expert, one of the tasks expected of the PGA is to help the PI develop the best, most relevant objective possible (See the handout entitled Program Planning Phase of GPP, Step 7). Though the PGA must have valid reasons for modification, AND modification must be by group consensus, the PGA's can request that the PI rework the objective and/or recommend specific changes.

2. PRIMARY OBJECTIVES, as written for the GPP and in consonance with the performance requirements of systems engineering, are terminal task oriented. The two words to be emphasized are underlined. The word "task" is self explanatory: it simply means that the objective must require the ability to perform an actual task which chaplains do, NOT knowledge they should have. The word

"terminal" establishes the level of the task to be addressed in an objective. Thus, the task specified within the objective is the terminal (i.e., major, end task), not a subordinate one. Thus, while planning and implementing an area coverage plan for a division in combat is a terminal task and a candidate for a Primary Objective, reading a map overlay or assigning chaplains are tasks subordinate to the terminal task and should NOT be a primary objective. One of the primary differences between the OBJECTIVE and the OUTLINE in the GPP is that the Primary Objective describes terminal behavior required of the graduate on entering the field. This is our control point, describes field needs and may NOT be tampered with by students. On the other hand, the OUTLINE may include subordinate tasks which, when written in performance language, proximate an objective. Since these may be enabling objectives, Primary Group Advisors must be aware of their importance but students may modify them. If these tasks are truly important to the performance of the terminal task (i.e., the primary objective), then it must be assumed that the student can perform them if he can perform the terminal task. Thus, the place for subordinate tasks is NOT as a primary objective, but in the outline where they are subject to student reaction and modification.

3. FORMAT. Some salient points need to be emphasized for assistance in both writing the objective and in analyzing it during the PI/PGA modification meeting. Each objective has three essential elements: CONDITION, ACTION, and STANDARD. We'll address each briefly.

a. CONDITION. This is the "condition" under which the terminal task is performed. It includes a description of the situation (e.g., a Division in combat), the position a student will be assuming (e.g., the student, acting as Division Chaplain), the tools he would normally have available (e.g., a map overlay, OPORD, chaplains personnel roster, etc.) and anything else which may impinge on, control, or limit the kinds of behavior expected (e.g., during inclement weather, under nuclear attack, etc.). Normally, the condition is introduced with the word: GIVEN. (A note of caution: a frequent and understanble error is to describe and/or list the simulated game...," etc.). The conditions included in the Primary Objective should be descriptive of the actual coditions under which the task is performed, NOT under which it is learned.

b. ACTION. This is the "action" expected of the student as he plays the role identified in the "conditions" (i.e., Division Chaplain). The emphasis in the word "action" is "active." The verbs required for a good objective are active, performance-oriented ones (i.e., to "do" something rather than to "understand").

The action also should be descriptive, as nearly as possible, of the actual field action expected. Thus, "will develop an area coverage plan and describe the implementing procedure" is action oriented and, lacking an actual combat situation, may be the closest you can come to reality. A good primary objective will describe an action which is as realistic as is possible given the limitation of your training resources and environment.

c. STANDARD. This delineates the level of proficiency required for basic competence in a task or action area. In traditional objective testing the standard is set at the percentage correct required to pass. Frequently, the standard will relate to responding acceptably to a situation a certain number of times (i.e., 8 out of 10 times). In other situations, the actions themselves are also standards, already implying the level of performance acceptable. Thus, the phrase, "which includes at least the following:" indicates that there may be other concerns which can be included, but an acceptable response will include ALL of the criteria listed. If any are missing, the plan is unacceptable. If the criteria had been introduced by: "which includes at least three of the following considerations," the rules governing passing level would be different.

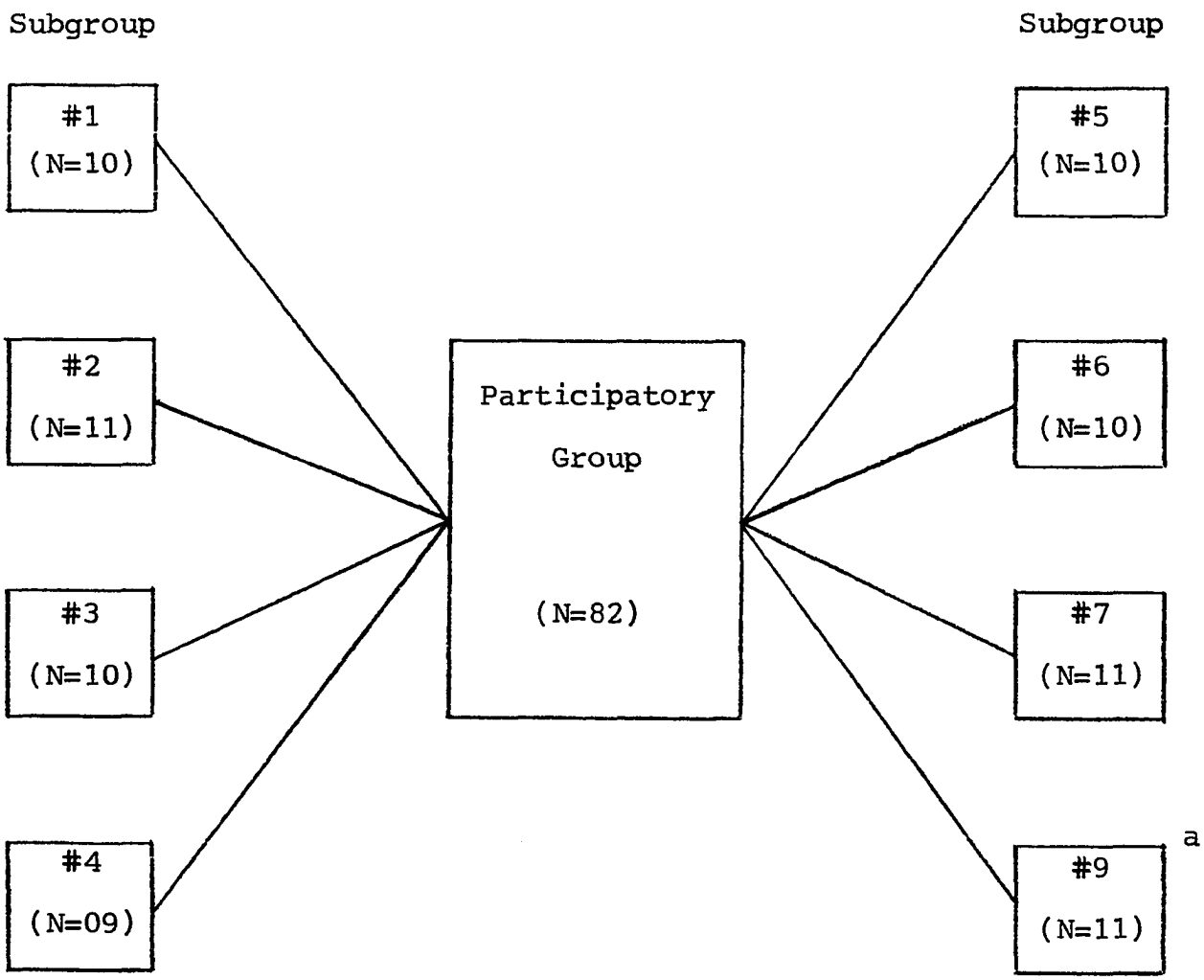
One final word before leaving the objective: the three elements of the objective (i.e., condition, action, standard) must be student-oriented. A natural tendency is to write objectives which describe what the instructor does rather than expected student behavior. "To present analysis/discussion of . . ." is instructor-oriented and tells what he does. "The student will be able to analyze, discuss and use . . ." is student-oriented.

4. For assistance in writing/modifying both Objectives and Outlines, a checklist for modification is added.

APPENDIX C

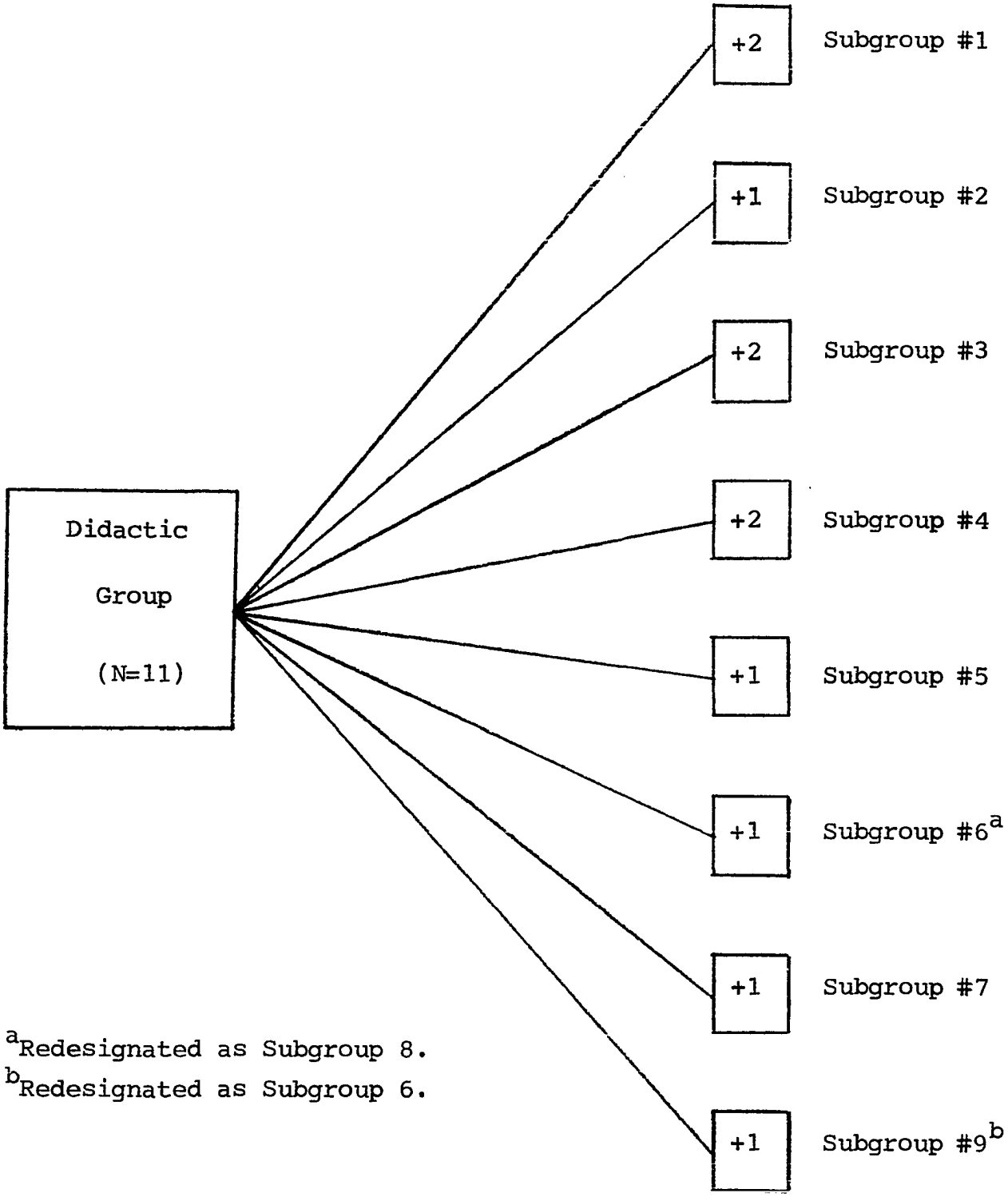
Formation and Dissolution of the Groups

Composition of the Participatory Group



[a]Indicates the No Pre-test Group. Numbering of Subgroups 6 and 9 was changed for learning groups in Group Life I.

Re-entry Scheme for the Didactic Group



[a]Redesignated as Subgroup 8.
[b]Redesignated as Subgroup 6.

APPENDIX D

Biographic Information Sheet

Student Number ___

US Army Chaplain Center
and School
Fort Hamilton, New York, 11252

Biographic Information Sheet

1. My current rank is: (Circle correct one)

   a. CPT

   b. MAJ

   c. LTC

2. I am on a promotion list.

   a. Yes

   b. No

3. I have been in the military for ____ months (Reserve and Active; all services).

4. I have been on Active Duty (only) for ____ months.

5. I am a member of Regular Army.

   a. Yes

   b. No

6. I have received ____ weeks of small group process training (e.g., special training in leading small participatory groups such as NTL training, T-group training, etc.).

7. I am a member of the following religious group: (Please circle)

   a. Catholic

   b. Jewish

   c. Protestant

   d. Other _____.

8. I have had ____ months experience as Administrative Chaplain (Post, Division, Army, etc.).

APPENDIX E

Typical Training Schedules

A Typical Day's Schedule

for

Laboratory Training

8:15 - 8:30	Introduction to Laboratory Training
8:30 - 8:40	Who are we?
8:40 - 9:00	Goal setting exercise
9:00 - 9:20	Pairing within T-groups
9:20 - 10:20	T-group sharing of goals
10:30 - 10:45	Coffee Break
10:45 - 11:15	General session - collate goals
11:15 - 11:45	T-groups - process decision making
11:45 - 1:15	Lunch
1:15 - 1:40	General session
1:40 - 2:00	Building interpersonal trust
2:00 - 2:30	Trust walk
2:30 - 2:45	Coffee Break
2:45 - 3:30	T-groups - non-verbal trust exercises
3:30 - 4:15	General session and evaluation
4:15 - 5:00	Planning session[a]

[a]NTL Trainers and Co-trainers only

A Typical Day's Schedule

for

Group Process Plan (GPP) Phase

8:30 - 9:30 Developing team-building attitudes and skills

METHOD: Diads
Participant Sharing

9:45 - 12:15 Exploring the roles of leaders/group participants and the ways leadership is expressed.

METHOD: Simulation Game
Discussion

12:15 - 1:30 LUNCH

1:30 - 2:30 Demonstrating discussion training and illustrating one or more roles participants will be practicing

METHOD: Trainer-led discussion

TASKS: Choose topic, leader/recorder for next session.

2:30 - 3:30 Practicing the roles and duties of responsible leadership and group participants.

METHOD: 30-minute discussion with trainer interruptions and critique.

TASKS: Choose topic, leader/recorder and observer for next session.

3:45 - 4:40 Practicing the roles and duties of responsible leadership and group participants.

METHOD: 45-minute discussion with trainer interruptions and critique led by observer.

TASKS: Choose topic, leader, recorder and observer.

APPENDIX F

Typical In-Process Evaluation Forms

DAILY EVALUATION

1. How comfortable are we?

very uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	very much at ease

2. How much are we keeping to ourselves?

very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	very little

3. We are telling members what to be and do...

all the time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	very little

4. How much are we telling each other what we really think and feel?

not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	very much

5. To what degree are we afraid?

very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	not at all

6. How much are we helping our members to grow?

very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	all the time

7. To what degree are we taking charge of our life together?

very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	very much

8. What other questions and comments do you have?

Human Relations Laboratory
C-22-A-01
September 1973

NTL Participant Evaluation

A. To what extent were you able to attain the goals and objectives you brought to this lab?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

Please comment:

B. To what extent did you attain goals and objectives that are important to you but that you did not anticipate achieving prior to coming to the lab?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

Please comment:

C. To what extent are the learnings attained at this lab relevant to the year ahead?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

Please comment:

D. To what extent are the learnings you attained at this lab relevant to you as a person, i.e., relevant to other areas of your life besides your job?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

Please comment:

E. To what extent did each of the following contribute to the effectiveness of this lab experience, considering the part each was designed to play?

1. Overall design

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

2. The "T" Group

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

3. Opening Session of goal setting

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

4. Chair arrangement exercise

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

5. Drug Ranking Decision-Making Exercise

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

6. Non-verbal exercise

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

7. Team building consultation exercise

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

8. Input of feedback

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

9. Input of Johari Window

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

   Please comment:

10. Input of Leadership Styles

    Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

    Please comment:

11. NTL Reading book, handouts

    Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

    Please comment:

12. NTL Trainer Staff

    Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

    Please comment:

13. USACHS Group Advisors as co-trainers:

    Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 To a great extent

    Please comment:

14. Please make any other comments you think might help the School and NTL evaluate the effectiveness of this lab.

LEADER/CO-LEADER EVALUATION SHEET

Training Group Being Evaluated_____

Instructions: Based on your personal observations during the past two weeks, indicate on the scales below the degree of change that appears to have occurred in your group as a result of the Human Relations Lab and the Group Process Plan workshop. For example, if they as a group appear to be much more "open," circle the 7; if no change was observed, circle the 0; for gradations between, use the other numbers.

OPENNESS

I. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(Did they appear more open and direct? More self-disclosing? Was there greater revelation of their own feelings and thoughts?)

SENSITIVITY

II. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(Did they appear more sensitive to each others' feelings; more understanding of others?)

SPONTANEITY

III. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(Did they seem to be more spontaneous; more flexible? Were they able to act more freely and creatively?)

SELF-UNDERSTANDING

IV. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(Did they seem to have increased in self-understanding? Did they appear to be more in touch with their own inner feelings? Were they able to see themselves more clearly?)

CLOSENESS

V. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(Did they appear to be warmer and closer with each other?)

ANGER

VI. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(Did they appear to be better able to handle anger? Were they able to fight/attack others without feeling conflicted or upset about it?)

COLLABORATION

VII. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(Did they appear to be better able to work more easily and cooperatively with each other? Were they better able to help the group move along in its work?)

POSITIVE SELF-IMAGE

VIII. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(Did there appear to be an increase in individual self-esteem? liking? Was there greater acceptance of themselves?)

HAPPINESS

IX. NONE 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 MUCH

(The degree to which they seemed to feel good about their lives and what is happening in them; joy, pleasure in existence.)