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GROUP IN MARRIAGE COUNSELING

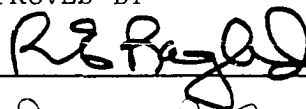
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in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY
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Norman, Oklahoma

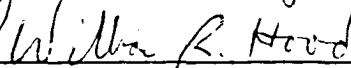
1972

EFFECTIVENESS OF THE BASIC ENCOUNTER
GROUP IN MARRIAGE COUNSELING

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EFFECTIVENESS OF THE BASIC ENCOUNTER GROUP IN MARRIAGE COUNSELING

CHAPTER I

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The encounter group, in its many forms, has grown in epidemic proportions in the past ten years. It has, according to the psychologist, Everett Shostrom, "... invaded every setting--industry, the church, universities, prisons, resorts. Corporation presidents have become group members along with students, delinquents, married couples, dropouts, criminals, nurses and educators" (Shostrom, 1968, p. 38).

Although the encounter group has grown in popularity among professionals and laymen and has received extensive attention in the news media, it is generally acknowledged by the professional people working in this field (Egan, 1970; Goldberg, 1970), that many group practices have little correlation with existing psychological theory and are not validated by empirical research.

The practice of sensitivity training has outrun both theoretical formulation and organized research, and the resulting turmoil has made many behavioral scientists look upon the whole field of laboratory learning with suspicion and upon the subspecialty of sensitivity training with outright hostility (Egan, 1970, p. 3).

Recently, however, such statements as those of Egan's, have been challenged by Gibb, a pioneer in group dynamics research, who feels that the frequently made statements about the paucity of research in this field are simply untrue. Gibb (1971), has reviewed and summarized a total of 253 studies related to encounter groups; this figure includes seven former reviews, and 24 doctoral dissertations from 13 universities. It does not include 123 studies which he decided not to include because they did not meet his research criteria. Gibb agrees with many encounter group critics, however, that much of the existing theory often fails to provide a framework for much current technique:

When considered from the viewpoint of the frequent mention in the general psychological literature of the lack of research on training, the quantity and quality of available research is surprisingly high. When compared with the standards of research in the psychological laboratory and with the desirability of definitive statements about the effects of training, the methodological impurities of the studies loom large, and the results are disappointingly equivocal (Bergin and Garfield, 1971, p. 842).

The importance of the present study, then, is enhanced by a relative lack of empirical research in this area of basic encounter groups which has exerted a profound effect upon educational theory and theories of psychotherapy. Also, there has been a dearth of research with basic encounter groups as they are specifically utilized in marriage counseling.

There are obstacles to research in human relations training that are identical with the traditional obstacles faced by

researchers in psychotherapy. Luborsky, Kiesler and Eysenck (Bergin and Garfield, 1971), have debated these problems and there seems to be general agreement on four areas of specific research difficulty. First, it is recognized that many of the personality theories are inadequate to explain all aspects of human behavior. A second problem has to do with the inadequacy of the research design which is often dictated by field conditions rather than laboratory requirements. The lack of valid measuring instruments and the effect of measurement upon the process is a third problem. Finally, the inability to define operationally such evanescent concepts as "health," "openness" and "mental illness" is a particularly knotty problem for research in human relations training as well as psychotherapy.

In spite of the above stated obstacles to research it is the responsibility of the researcher to devise methods to study phenomena such as human relations training that is currently challenging established theories of education and psychotherapy.

In the field of education, a basic concept is that learning occurs through experience, and yet many students are painfully aware that this principle receives only lip service in most classrooms, where the emphasis is exclusively upon a didactic teaching paradigm. Lee (1967), in a study comparing the didactic approach with a sensitivity training approach to teaching, found the latter much more effective in creating behavioral and attitudinal changes that the teachers, students, parents and administrators felt were beneficial. As a result of this research, he suggests that teacher

training institutions establish human relations training as an integral part of their programs. Egan agrees that education has failed in a large part of its task and cites "... the general failure of education as we know it in the United States to be a vehicle of putting people in growthful contact with one another" (Egan, 1970, p. 2).

In the field of psychotherapy; human relations training in general and basic encounter groups in particular have challenged some traditional concepts. One such traditional concept is that a therapy group can not function therapeutically without a designated leader. Tentative experimental results point in the opposite direction (Gibb, 1971). Another concept traditionally adhered to is that an encounter group should exclude certain "pre-psychotic" individuals who could experience a psychotic break under the pressure of group confrontation. There is great disagreement on this point although some psychologists (Rogers, 1970; Gibb, 1971), think this fear is overstressed and they emphasize the inability of any professional person to predict which person should be included or excluded from a group. They also point to their clinical experience which has verified their policy of heterogeneous grouping.

The second major factor lending importance to this study is the status of the American family in general and marriage in particular. It is common knowledge that marriage is currently undergoing a philosophical and functional redefinition in this culture. One index of the present turmoil and flux is divorce statistics which have shown a progressive increase in divorces in

the past few years. Landis and Landis (1966), state that one out of every 34 marriages ended in divorce in 1870 while in 1900 the rate was one in twelve. By 1940 the divorce ratio was one in five and in 1966 it had risen to one in four. Currently, in certain sections of the United States, the divorce rate is 50%, or one divorce for every two marriages (Bach, 1969, p. 17). Some writers (Bach, 1968; Jackson, 1968), feel that marriage is being called upon to provide far more satisfactions to the partners than ever before and that few marriages can hold together under the increased strains and demands without a new definition of the traditional husband - wife roles. Lederer and Jackson (1968), have summarized these roles and they feel the salient characteristics are:

<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
A. Provider--seen as courageous and bold	A. Domiciliary role: child rearing, home duties
B. Holder of power, property, authority	B. Does not hold power; relies on patience, cunning, sex allurements
C. Physically active	C. Physically passive
D. Intellectually bright; abstract thinker	D. Intellectually average; concrete thinker
E. Inventive	E. Lacking in inventive skills
F. Fewer intense emotional ties to children than female	F. Cherish children more than the male

One treatment expedient in marriage counseling has been the encounter group, some of which have been organized exclusively for the purpose of "deepening communication and enriching the

marriage relationship" (Esalen catalogue, 1971). In the area of basic encounter groups for married couples there is a dearth of research information even though marriage and marital problems annually enjoy a voluminous amount of research and speculative writing.

In summary, the importance of this study stems from the relatively small amount of research that has been conducted with basic encounter groups for married couples. This fact is accentuated when it is noted that there has been a great deal of treatment for couples through the use of basic encounter groups.

The Plan of the Study

This research project is planned to investigate the effectiveness of the basic encounter group in improving interpersonal perception in a marriage relationship. This study will attempt to determine if the basic encounter experience is effective in creating greater congruence between the individual's self perception and the perception of him by his spouse. The experimental group will undergo a 24 hour basic encounter experience, and interpersonal perception will be measured on a standardized psychometric instrument. There will be a pre-test measure and two post-test measures, one 24 hours after the group, the other ten days after. A second part of this study will be concerned with the influence of the leader upon the group. A representative control group will also be used.

No attempt will be made in the present study to predict "improvement" or "deterioration." Evidence collected during recent

years (Truax and Worgo, 1966; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967; Truax and Mitchell, 1968), indicates that all forms of the counseling and psychotherapy process have the potential of "improving" or "harming" the client. This change is a highly complex process and some of the crucial variables relate to the personality characteristics of the therapist. It is predicted that change in self-perception will occur and that married couples will experience greater "agreement" in their perceptions of one another as a result of this basic encounter group.

The basic encounter group will provide a combination of structured and unstructured activities. The participants will be required to enter into a written, contractual agreement before they are accepted as subjects (Ss). This contractual agreement will specify the philosophy, purpose and techniques of the group experience, in addition to an explicit statement of the expectations of the leader as well as the expectations of each S. This contract will outline essentially what will happen and what the participants can expect from the experience and will attempt to elicit from them a conscious commitment of attitude. The study will be conducted as a university service to the married students of the university.

The Problem

What effect does a basic encounter group have upon a person's self perception and his perception of his mate? Also, what effect does such a group have upon an individual's attitude of "openness" or "defensiveness?"

This study was designed around four general hypotheses concerning the effects of a basic encounter experience on one's self perception, his perception of his spouse and his own attitude of openness or defensiveness.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis I: A basic encounter group induces changes in a person's self perception. This change in self perception will be reflected on the various sub-scales of the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis (T-JTA) in a pre- and post-test administration of this test. There will be no significant change in pre- and post-test scores for the control group.

- A. Trait A Nervous/Composed: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.
- B. Trait B Depressive/Lighthearted: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.
- C. Trait C Active-Social/Quiet: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.
- D. Trait D Expressive-Responsive/Inhibited: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.

- E. Trait E Sympathetic/Indifferent: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.
- F. Trait F Subjective/Objective: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.
- G. Trait G Dominant/Submissive: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.
- H. Trait H Hostile/Tolerant: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.
- I. Trait I Self-Disciplined/Impulsive: Self perception scores of E group Ss will be significantly different (.05 level) than self perception scores of C group Ss when measuring absolute differences between pre- and post-test results.

Hypothesis II: A basic encounter group will induce greater congruence in interpersonal perception in a marriage relationship. This greater congruence between the way a person sees himself and the way his mate sees him, will be reflected in statistically significant differences between pre-test and post-test scores on each subscale of the T-JTA. Such comparisons of interspouse perceptions are called criss-cross scores. There will be no significant change in scores for the control group.

- A. Trait A: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.
- B. Trait B: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.
- C. Trait C: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.
- D. Trait D: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.
- E. Trait E: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.
- F. Trait F: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.
- G. Trait G: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.
- H. Trait H: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.
- I. Trait I: There will be significantly greater congruence (.05 level) in criss-cross scores of E group Ss in post-test results when compared with C group Ss.

Hypothesis III: The attitude scale of the T-JTA is a measure of test-taking bias. A very high score (sten of 8, 9, 10) tends to reflect a defensive, "overly favorable" attitude toward

one's self. A low score (sten of 1, 2, 3) tends to reflect a self-depreciating attitude. Those experimental Ss who score in the "low" or "high" areas on the attitude scale (pre-test) will tend to move toward the "normal" (sten 4, 5, 6, 7) area in the two post-test administrations of the T-JTA. The control Ss who score in the "low" or "high" areas on the attitude scale (pre-test) will have the same scores on the post-tests.

Hypothesis IV: There will be no significant difference in the perceptions of the experimental group and the control group concerning the group leader, as measured by the semantic differential.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

From the beginning of recorded time and probably long before that, man has associated himself with other individuals in order to form groups. In the distant past, man banded together out of necessity to meet his needs. These needs, as discussed by Coleman were ostensibly concerned with "political, military, religious, economic or social problems" (Coleman, 1960, p. 260). On the basis of anthropological evidence it is concluded by social anthropologists (Comfort, 1966; Montagu, 1965; Kluckhohn, 1949), that early groups were formed in order to hunt for food, to serve as a protection against the elements and hostile animals; and family groups were formed in order to propagate the species. Another social anthropologist, Ardrey (1968), contends that there is evidence to indicate that man, like many animals, defined the physical limits of his territory and perceived familiar individuals as "friendly" while perceiving unfamiliar individuals as "hostile." Indeed, Ardrey's thesis is that many primitive modes of functioning, including the struggle for territory, are still with us today, acting as an anachronistic link to the past and serving as a basis for much of our present conflict. It seems, therefore, that man has historically formed groups to meet his needs, aligning himself

with some of his fellow human beings and against others. This ubiquitous nature of group life is succinctly summarized by Rogers: "Clearly there have always been and always will be groups, as long as man survives on this planet" (Rogers, 1970, p. 1).

The literature of many nations is replete with observations about how groups of people function. Before our present scientific age the available data concerning the dynamics of group behavior was in the form of philosophic speculations, observations of political scientists or in the dramas and novels of playwrights and authors.

Niccolo di Bernardo Machiavelli, in the fifteenth century, wrote The Prince, a cynical view of man and the way in which he should be manipulated. Today he stands as the foremost example of a political scientist who carefully essays the needs and motivations of individuals and groups and then consciously utilizes that knowledge in manipulating and ruling people. A current social scientist (Christie, 1970), has constructed a psychometric scale which identifies the "Machiavelli's among us" and he concludes that "... studies in the United States and in other cultures indicate that increased cosmopolitanism is creating a generation of Machiavellis--worldwide."

Shakespeare was another astute observer of man. He wrote of his behavior and his motivations both individually and in groups. In the play, "Julius Caesar," Shakespeare masterfully depicts the influence of the conspirators and the group pressure on Brutus who, initially, is reticent to participate in Caesar's murder but

ultimately joins the conspirators. It is known today, as a result of group dynamics research, that peer pressure is often a more powerful influence upon the behavior of the individual than the influence of an authority figure and that this peer influence is effective in the determination of one's perceptions (Sherif, 1969).

In a more contemporary vein, the Nobel prize winner, John Steinbeck, often wrote of the struggle between the affluent class and the poor socio-economic groups. In "The Grapes of Wrath" he described the struggle for power on the part of the frustrated agricultural workers and how this led to the formation of union groups (Steinbeck, 1939).

Sherif (1969), has investigated such dynamics as Steinbeck has written about and he finds that there is a common goal or problem among individuals who are interacting in close proximity and this is often the initial reason for group formation.

Groups do not form in a vacuum nor are they closed systems insulated from their environments. They form as individuals interact in definite locations and perform tasks or cope with problems that cannot be handled individually (Sherif, 1969, p. 135).

Sherif points out that proximity in and of itself is not a sufficient reason for groups to form. They must also have a common cause or reason to promote cohesion.

... proximity in a location, although facilitating interaction, is probably never a sufficient condition for group formation. Frequently, however, proximity in a location also means that the individuals face common problems (Sherif, 1969, p. 135).

As stated previously, the literature of man is filled

with speculations and observations of group and individual life and the forces which tend to draw men together into groups, how those groups function and what factors are responsible for the dissolution of groups. Cartwright and Zander (1960), summarize this historical perspective and go on to state that the basic concerns of group dynamics research today were articulated many years ago.

The earliest recorded philosophical literature contains a great deal of wisdom about the nature of groups and the relations between individuals and groups. It also contains a variety of specifications concerning the "best" ways of managing group life. During the period from the sixteenth through the nineteenth centuries there was created in Europe an impressive literature dealing with the nature of man and his place in society. In this literature one can find most of the major orientations or "basic assumptions," which guide current research and thinking about groups (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 4).

Historically then, man has formed groups to meet his needs. The formation of those groups depended upon his proximity to others who were experiencing the same motivations and needs as himself. The accounts of group formation and functioning were of a speculative nature and were recorded by various astute observers of mankind. These suppositions and speculations were not challenged or experimentally verified until the latter part of the nineteenth century, with the advent of scientific research.

Educational Foundations For The Study Of Man

Darwinian evolutionary theory resulted in a new view of man, placing him in a context and on a continuum with the animal

kingdom. Although evolutionary theories were hotly contested, man became much more available for scientific study along with the physical and biological sciences.

Auguste Comte also helped lay the educational and philosophical foundation for the development of science, social psychology and, eventually, group dynamics theory. He wrote on positivism which is basic to our own "scientific" frame-of-reference. Cartwright and Zander feel that Comte's "... extensive treatment of positivism in 1830 provided a major advance in the self-conscious examination of basic assumptions about the possibility of extending the scientific enterprise to human behavior" (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 16).

With the advent of the twentieth century a number of people were advancing ideas that were extensions of Jeffersonian democracy and John Dewey was one of those people. Many of his ideas set the tone for "progressive education" and his influence was profound. Dewey emphasized the inevitability of change and the need to view change as a positive factor rather than as a threat. Holmes (1965), summarizes Dewey's position concerning change:

Authoritarian governments set up institutions that are designed to prevent change and to retain the status quo. Such attempts are bound to fail. Change is one of the most important facts of life. Since it is pointless to try to stop it and foolish to close one's eyes to it, the object of education should be to help individuals cope with changes in society (Holmes, 1965, p. 312).

Dewey also saw man as functioning interdependently with his fellow man and rejected the notion of rugged individuality

which had been such a strong part of the American mystique.

Individuality is neither originally given nor is it complete in itself like a closet in a house or a secret drawer in a desk filled with treasure that are waiting to be bestowed on the world. On the contrary individuality in a social and moral sense is something to be wrought out; created under the influences of associated life (Holmes, 1965, p. 310).

These ideas have helped serve as a foundation for the present group dynamics research and group training. Goldberg (1970), in a recent book concerning group sensitivity training states:

More recently, impetus for group training has come from new emphasis in education. With encouragement from John Dewey, William James and other leaders of progressive education, learning has shifted from the expert-student situation to free discussion and give-and-take of ideas and opinions in small groups (Goldberg, 1970, p. 95).

Dewey believed that the most effective learning occurred through experience and, again, this is a basic premise of present encounter group theory which, as an educational principle has been given lip service but has seldom been incorporated into classroom practice.

Together with Darwinian evolutionary theory and Comte's exposition of positivism, Dewey's educational philosophy provided the basis upon which man could utilize the developing tools of scientific research and apply them to the study of mankind. With these developments, the field of social psychology began to evolve its own unique identity.

Social Psychology

As an outgrowth of both psychology and sociology the field of social psychology came to emphasize the individual with his attitudes, mores and norms in relation to the social environment. Sherif (1969), defines social psychology as "... the scientific study of the experience and behavior of the individual in relation to social stimulus situations." He goes on to state that these social stimulus situations include "... groups, social organization, institutions and cultural objects, norms and values" (Sherif, 1969, p. 19).

The beginning of social psychology and the scientific study of group behavior was marked by theoretical and personal dissension. The field of social psychology was born amidst a hotly contested debate over whether "groups" actually exist and whether such concepts as "group mind" have any meaning or are merely meaningless abstractions. During the 1920's some psychologists contended that the individual was a more basic unit of study and that, indeed, only individuals exist and "groups or institutions are sets of ideals, thoughts and habits repeated in each individual mind and existing only in those minds" (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 18).

In other words, this was a problem of level of analysis striking at the very roots of the social psychological movement. Depending upon the viewpoint taken in this debate, an individual would make a decision as to which problems were valid and therefore,

would be worthy of scientific examination. Lewin (1951), perceived the fundamental importance of this debate in his book Field Theory in Social Science:

Labeling something as nonexistent is equivalent to declaring it "out of bounds" for the scientist. Attributing "existence" to an item automatically makes it a duty of the scientist to consider this item as an object of research; it includes the necessity of considering its properties as "facts" which cannot be neglected in the total system of theories; finally, it implies that the terms with which one refers to the item are acceptable as scientific "concepts" (rather than as "mere" words) (Lewin, 1951).

Allport and McDougall were two of the most articulate exponents of the "individualist" and "group" schools of thought: Allport assuming the position that "only individuals are real" and McDougal arguing that "groups, institutions and culture have reality quite apart from the particular individuals who participate in them" (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 18).

Many years later Sherif (1969), summarized the outcome of the argument and also pointed out how it was, pragmatically, a moot point inasmuch as the questions relate to two completely different levels of analysis; the sociocultural level of analysis which includes sociology, anthropology, economics and political science and the psychological level of analysis where emphasis is placed upon the individual.

There have been opinions that one or the other level of analysis--psychological or sociocultural--is somehow more basic or more central than the other. Of course, man makes machines; but machines in turn, affect man. Man creates social organization,

we can also say that social organization recasts man. The products of man's interaction with others become subject matters for study at their own level of analysis without necessary reference to principles governing individual behavior (Sherif, 1969, p. 19).

The salient point to be gleaned from the preceding discussion is that man was moving into a new era where he was suggesting that the empirical tools of science could be applied to the study of mankind in both individual and group interaction situations. There was opposition to this advance by those individuals who perceived man as "above the animals" and intrinsically exclusive of scientific study and also those behavioral scientists who insisted that the solitary individual is the only "real" and therefore, valid, unit of study.

In addition to the philosophical issues underlying the development of social psychology, there was the lack of research tools to deal with "group" phenomena. "Let us not be immobilized" stated Allport, "... by insisting on the reality of things which we cannot now deal with by means of existing techniques of research" (Allport, 1924, p. 131). This state of affairs was not to continue, however, because the 1920's and 1930's was a period of rapid scientific growth.

Attitude scales (Bogardus, 1925), and scaling techniques (Thurston, 1929; Likert, 1932), were developed during the 1920's and 1930's that are still in use today. Many studies that were conducted during the 1920's and 1930's were concerned with the influence of the group upon the behavior of an individual reflecting

the traditionally greater emphasis placed upon the individual level of analysis.

Moreno, a Viennese physician who emigrated to the United States in 1925, is another individual who contributed to the growth of social psychology. He is "... very likely the most colorful, controversial and influential person in the field of psychotherapy" according to Gazda (1968, p. 7). He is best known for his pioneering work in psychodrama and his development of the sociogram which permitted psychologists to measure such group dynamics as attraction versus repulsion; cohesion versus dissolution and leadership versus follower behavior (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 23).

Social Psychology also drew heavily upon the work of such cultural anthropologists as Moede, Kluckhohn, Benedict and Klineberg, whose work showed that "emotions, intellectual development, and many other psychological topics had to be formulated with reference to the sociocultural setting of development" (Sherif, 1969, p. 23).

Psychoanalytic concepts were having a profound effect upon the intellectual life in the United States during the 1930's. Accordingly, the psychoanalytic emphasis upon the individual level of analysis was "... made more palatable for social psychology by the so-called revisionists, particularly Erich Fromm and Karen Horney and at Yale through the influence of the sociologist, John Dollard" (Sherif, 1969, p. 22).

Another profound influence upon the new, developing field of social psychology was the famous Hawthorne study conducted at

the Western Electric Company by Mayo (1933), and his associates. Although the original purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between amount of production and such variables as lighting and work hours, the investigators found that interpersonal and group dynamics were far more significant in determining production rates. This study lent experimental support to the hypothesis that cohesion, feelings of worth and other "human factors" have a greater effect upon the quantity and quality of work than the economic theory which states that man works primarily for the highest rate of pay.

Group Dynamics

Cartwright and Zander (1960), recognize the overlapping histories of the fields of social psychology and group dynamics and they attempt to delineate the area of group dynamics by defining it as "... the field of inquiry dedicated to advancing knowledge about the nature of group life." They go on to state that "... group dynamics is to be distinguished from its intellectual predecessors primarily by its basic reliance on careful observation, quantification, measurement and experimentation" (p. 5). It seems, therefore, that social psychology is the parent to group dynamics which is a rather specialized "step child," dealing specifically with the psychological dynamics of group life.

In tracing the development of group dynamics as a separate discipline, Cartwright and Zander (1960), recognize four men and their work who, they feel, have had a profound and lasting

effect upon this area of study. They feel that these men acted as pioneers in the formation of techniques and concepts for the empirical investigation of group phenomena and that they laid the conceptual foundation for the discipline of group dynamics.

Muzafer Sherif and his work with the "autokinetic effect" is one of the pioneers mentioned by Cartwright and Zander. The significance of this study lies in the fact that Sherif demonstrated that an individual's internal frame-of-reference determines, to a great extent, what he perceives; and the group that an individual is associated with also has a significant effect upon his perceptions. In addition to the actual results of the experiment, "Sherif's study did much to establish the feasibility of subjecting group phenomena to experimental investigation" (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 24).

T. M. Newcomb conducted a study at Bennington College from 1935 - 1939 using the entire student body as subjects to determine the establishment of social norms and the effects of social influence on the attitudes of individuals. He studied the changing of "conservative" attitudes to more "liberal" attitudes during the college years and documented the powerful effects of group pressure on attitude formation. Newcomb's study points out that the "... attitudes of individuals are strongly rooted in the groups to which people belong, that the influence of a group upon an individual's attitudes depends upon the nature of the relationship between the individual and the group, and that groups evaluate members, partially at least, on the basis of their conformity to

group norms" (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 26).

A third classic experimental study cited by Cartwright and Zander as having had a part in the formation of group dynamics as a separate discipline was the 1937 experiment by William F. Whyte. In this study, Whyte acted as a "participant observer" and reported in detail upon the group dynamics existant in the Norton Street gang and the Italian Community Club of Boston. He documented the powerful influence of the groups upon the lives of the individual members and dealt with such concepts as social structure, cohesion, leadership and status. Cartwright and Zander feel that this was a significant study because:

- a) It dramatized, and described in painstaking detail, the great significance of groups in the lives of individuals and in the functioning of larger social systems.
- b) It gave impetus to the interpretation of group properties and processes in terms of interactions among individuals.
- c) It generated a number of hypotheses concerning the relations among such variables as initiation of interaction, leadership, status, mutual obligations, and group cohesion (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 27).

Finally, the fourth and "most influential work in the emerging study of group dynamics was that of Lewin, Lippitt and White" (Cartwright and Zander, 1960, p. 27). These men, led by Kurt Lewin, addressed themselves to the study of leadership and its effect upon the behavior of group members. They compared the effects of three types of leadership: autocratic, democratic and laissez faire. The results of this experiment shed much light on the creation and resolution of conflict in groups and on cooperation

and goal directed behavior. It also lent strong support to the democratic approach for the creation of cooperative, efficient group interaction.

So strong was Lewin's influence that today his name is usually associated with the phrase he coined: "group dynamics." The noted experimental psychologist, Edward Tolman, stated:

Freud the clinician and Lewin the experimentalist--these are the two men whose names will stand out before all others in the history of our psychological era, for it is their contrasting but complementary insights which first made psychology a science applicable to real human beings and to real human society (Tolman, May 1971, p. 71).

Lewin, a refugee from Hitler's Germany who came to the United States in 1933, devoted his energies to the experimental investigation of social issues. He considered such problems as psychological warfare, morale, military leadership, military production, homefront food consumption and rehabilitation of the wounded. Some of Lewin's most productive research came from the study of racial prejudice and level of aspiration and, perhaps most germane to the subject of this paper, "... from his work with the Connecticut State Interracial Commission came the National Training Laboratories in Bethel, Maine, source of sensitivity training and of psychology's entire group movement" (Loye, 1971, p. 72). Lewin's students are some of the better known pioneers in the field of T-Groups and sensitivity training. The list of former students include Leland Bradford, Warren Bennis, Leon Festinger, John French, Dorwin Cartwright and Morton Deutsch.

Sensitivity Training

During the past twenty years, in the decade of the 1950's and especially in the 1960's a new social phenomenon developed. The growth of this phenomenon -- sensitivity training, is unparalleled in recent history. At the present time there is scarcely a city in the United States that has escaped the influence of this movement. In some parts of the country there are strong proponents of "sensitivity training," or "T-Groups" who advocate the use of this technique for a wide variety of inter-personal growth and organizational change situations. At the same time, there are those who decry the basic encounter experience as "destructive," a form of "thought control" and a "pernicious Communist plot designed to brainwash the American public" (Rogers, 1970, p. 11). Regardless of the individual opinion, a recent statement concerning the encounter experience seems particularly appropriate, "It is the most rapidly spreading social invention of the century, and probably the most potent" (Rogers, 1970, p. 1).

As an outgrowth of social psychology and group dynamics as well as group psychotherapy, the current "group" movement is a "crazy quilt" collection of theories and techniques that often bear little resemblance to those original groups planned by Kurt Lewin and his students in the mid-forties. Carl Rogers has reviewed the origins of the current group movement and states that the original

purpose of the Lewin training groups (T-Groups) was to "... train groups in human relations skills in which individuals were taught to observe the nature of their interactions with others and of the group process (Rogers, 1970, p. 3). This purpose was initially well served, according to Goldberg (1970), and the encouraging results of the T-Groups in the Summer camps at Bethel, Maine led to further research and the utilization of group techniques in business and industry that had been perfected in the human relations laboratories.

Kurt Lewin established the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1944 where he continued his socially relevant "action research." Although Lewin planned the first workshop for T-Groups at Bethel, Maine for the Summer of 1947, he died in February of that year leaving the development of his original ideas to his students.

The Process

The process of the basic encounter group has been charted and conceptualized by numerous writers (Stoller 1968; Gibb 1968; Rogers 1970; Bennis and Shepard 1970). Although there are major differences in the theoretical understandings of the group process, certain commonalities emerge in the literature which will be discussed here.

One of the primary concepts basic to encounter groups is that they are relatively unstructured in format and the structuring of the allotted time is the responsibility of the group as a whole.

The designated leader of the group may introduce verbal or non-verbal exercises and begin or terminate the group according to prearranged time schedules but there are always large segments of time allotted for unstructured group activity. In the groups conducted by Rogers (1970) and Stoller (1968) the entire group time is unstructured with the exception of time programmed for sleeping and meals. The groups conducted by Bennis and Shepard (1970), are much more structured in the tradition of the NTL "T-Groups," with specific blocks of time allotted for inter-personal training exercises and didactic presentations as well as free group discussion.

Individuals react to the unusual freedom of such a group with their own unique expressions of anxiety.

... there tends to develop a period of initial confusion, awkward silence, polite surface interaction, "cocktail-party talk," frustration, and great lack of continuity. The individuals come face to face with the fact that 'there is no structure here except what we provide. We do not know our purposes, we do not even know each other, and we are committed to remain together over a considerable period of time (Rogers, 1970, p. 15).

While some authors attribute this anxiety to the unstructured nature of the group, Bennis and Shepard (1970), see the anxiety as more directly related to the theme of dependent and counter-dependent adaptations.

The trainer, not the lack of a goal is the cause of insecurity. He is presumed to know what the goals are or ought to be. Hence his behavior is regarded as a 'technique,' he is merely playing hard to get. For some, testing the power of the trainer to affect their futures

is the major concern. In others, anxiety may be aroused through a sense of helplessness, in a situation made threatening by the protector's desertion (Golembiewski and Blumberg, 1970, p. 96).

During this initial period of anxiety some individuals may angrily demand of the leader that he present a plan and goals for the group. Others may engage in trite, cliché level talk while still others may become non-communicative and withdrawn. They are all behaving in their own customary ways and utilizing their own unique psychological defense systems to cope with an anxiety producing situation. The result of these various behaviors is, as Stoller (1968) has stated, "... a sample of the world and one's behavior within the group represents a sample of one's behavior in the world" (p. 60).

Eventually group members relate personal aspects of their lives in spite of their ambivalence concerning the trustworthiness of the group. However, the quality of this communication is usually of a rather historical, impersonal nature. Stoller (1968), states that during this phase, there is a "... static and formalized style of relating. Members tend to be given their 'turn' and there is a concern with the individual's 'story,' his account of himself and particularly of his 'problem'" (Stoller, 1968, p. 55).

Egan (1970), has noted that language "is" the individual and if his language is of an impersonal, intellectualized nature he will tend to "disown" the experience which his words ostensibly describe. Helmuth Kaiser (1965), also speaks of this tendency to disown one's experience and from his vantage point of an individual

psychotherapist points out that a universal symptom of the neurotic is his inability to be "in" his words. Whorf (1956), goes one step further and states that language has a reciprocal effect upon experience and, therefore, an individual who speaks in a detached manner tends to experience himself as even more alienated from his feelings.

In the basic encounter group the participants tend to become more aware of how an individual "is" rather than what he says. They become sensitive to his nonverbal communication and then, when opportunities arise, they are encouraged to "feed back" their perceptions to the speaker.

Rogers (1970), observes that the expression of negative feelings is often the first bit of communication of an "authentic" quality where the individual is "in" his words and "owns" his experience.

Curiously enough, the first expression of genuinely significant "here and now" feeling is apt to come out in negative attitudes toward other group members or the group leader (Rogers, 1970, p. 18).

One possible explanation for the expression of negativity or hostility is suggested by Rogers.

This is one of the best ways to test the freedom and trustworthiness of the group. Is it really a place where I can be and express myself, positively and negatively? Is this really a safe place, or will I be punished? Another quite different reason is that deeply positive feelings are much more difficult and dangerous to express than negative ones. If I say I love you, I am vulnerable and open to the most awful rejection. If I say I hate you, I am at best liable to attack, against which I can

defend. Whatever the reasons, such negatively toned feelings tend to be the first "here and now" material to appear (Rogers, 1970, p. 19).

With the expression of some negativity comes a movement of the group process from external topics of conversation to the behavior within the group. The flavor of the interaction takes on a more "here-and-now" quality rather than a "there-and-then" emphasis.

Stoller (1968), views the final phase of the sensitivity group as having two major characteristics: urgency and elation. The participants sense that time is drawing to a close and they reduce their rationalizations and excuses and "... participants are able to respond more quickly and are willing to engage in more powerful struggles, both with themselves and with others" (p. 56). Concomitant with the urgency is a greater feeling of relaxation and informality. Physical postures and inter-personal communication are "... suggestive of lowered defensiveness and increased openness. This reflects the greater readiness to exhibit aspects of themselves which were formerly hidden and an inclination to reach out spontaneously which is rarely attained in our culture" (Stoller, 1968, p. 57).

During the review of literature it seems to this writer that the majority of authors in this field subscribe to three fundamental goals of basic encounter groups which are recurrent themes in their writing.

1) Responsibility for one's actions: The emphasis here is upon a turning away from a preoccupation with the external

world and "things" to one's own behavior. An individual who receives immediate feedback about his behavior and how it affects others is in a better position to "try out" more adaptive behavior and thereby to accept responsibility for the fact that he determines much of his own fate.

2) Development of trust: One aspect of the basic encounter group, psychotherapy and, indeed, of all human relationships is the development of trust. The implicit question in all new relationships according to Gibb (1968), is: "How much can I tell this new person? What aspects of me will he accept? What is there about me that he will condemn and reject? How much can I trust him?" Encounter group theory suggests that most people are more trustworthy and accepting than we assume.

The trusting person comes to accept more parts of himself. He comes to trust his impulses and other manifestations of his unconscious urges. He learns to trust his body and its messages. He accepts and lives with his feelings, urges, and fears. As he experiences more of what he really is, he is able to be more personal, remove his protective masks, depart from prescribed roles, and contact other persons in depth. With greater trust the world becomes a friendlier place. He allows himself to come closer to other persons. With increasing intimacy, others become more predictable and less frightening. For the trusting person the risks of loving and caring seem small. He enjoys expressive love and affection (Gibb, 1968, p. 102).

3) Functional attitudes toward others: As an outcome of learning to accept greater responsibility for one's own actions and trusting oneself as well as others to a greater degree, people tend to become more tolerant and democratic and less authoritarian.

Gibb (1971), summarizes ten studies of basic encounter groups all of which report attitudinal and behavioral changes in participant's in the direction of greater openmindedness, less prejudice and more tolerance of the behavior of others. This goal is seen as the result of the two goals previously mentioned and the research literature tends to concentrate on these actual attitudinal and behavioral changes that ostensibly occur in a significant number of participants of basic encounter groups.

Related Research

This section will deal with research that has been generated by basic encounter group theory and experience and research that has been conducted with the wide divergence of small group experiences that has followed in the wake of the first training groups at Bethel, Maine. An attempt will be made to differentiate between group psychotherapy and human relations training in general. Also, some distinguishing characteristics will be given to help differentiate between the many forms of human relations training. Finally, some research studies will be cited which deal with such factors as attitude change, behavior change and effects of the leader upon the group.

Human relations training has evolved into a generic term under which a host of small, intensive group experiences are subsumed. Marathon groups, basic encounter groups, sensitivity groups, embedded groups, programmed groups and T-groups are all somewhat different in format and theoretical underpinnings but all are facets of the human relations training program.

A central question in recent years has been whether human relations training is significantly different than group psychotherapy. A complicating factor is that the term "group psychotherapy" is also a generic term which includes within its body almost as many varied approaches as is the case with human relations training. Therefore, Adlerian group therapy, psychoanalytic group therapy, existential group therapy, behavioral group therapy and client-centered group therapy are all aspects of the group therapy picture and are often designated as being different than the various forms of human relations training.

Gibb (1971), seems to think that there are distinguishable differences between "therapy" and "training" and states: "Although there is an increasing overlap among activities in therapy groups and training groups, most practitioners make distinctions between the two" (p. 839). He then proceeds to list seven major characteristics that separate human relations training from group therapy.

1. The focus is more upon analysis of here-and-now data perceptually available in the group rather than upon historical data or upon organizational or family life.
2. The focus is more upon personal growth and increased human potential than upon remedial or corrective treatment.
3. The focus is more upon the available interpersonal data than upon analysis of unconscious or motivational material.
4. The focus is more upon group processes, the functioning of the group, and the intermember interactions than upon leader-member relationships.

5. The focus is more upon trying out of new behavior in the training group than upon achieving new insight or new motivation.
6. The immediate and primary intent of the leader is to improve effectiveness or change behavior of normal people in the organizational or natural-group setting, rather than to relieve distress or to change personality or character structure.
7. Participants usually see themselves as normal people attempting to function more effectively at the interpersonal level, as group or organization members rather than as sick people seeking treatment to relieve suffering (Gibb, 1971, p. 840).

Gibb (1971), also differentiates between human relations training and "educational activities." He feels that education usually places stress upon such factors as knowledge, insight, ideas, cognitive problems and the "content" of the course. Conversely, training stresses behavior change, conative and affective behavior, and the "process" of the available group interactional data.

It seems, then, that human relations training occupies a definitive position on the continuum between "educational" and "therapy" experiences. Many writers (Bradford, Gibb, and Benne, 1964; Rogers, 1970; Schein and Bennis, 1965), agree that educational experiences are often "therapeutic" and that therapeutic experiences are often "educational" but there are differences and human relations training will now be broken down into some of its sub-specialities and an attempt will be made to differentiate between the major training approaches.

One of the major differentiations within the field of human relations training is the type of group that aims at organizational improvement and is usually conducted with employees

and employers within a corporation, business or institution as opposed to a group designed for the "growth" of the individual with no attempt to study and change the functioning of a larger system. Argyris (1962), and Friedlander (1967) have been two of the leaders in the field of systems change. They utilize a combination of didactic, system's analysis, sensitivity training and human relations participation exercises to effect change within the organization. Stoller (1968), and Bugental (1965) are two leading representatives of the type of group that aims at individual change without regard for systems change.

Gibb (1971), has categorized nine different types of groups which he feels are representative of most group approaches even though all of the various group labels and titles are not utilized. He also includes a brief statement of the central aims of each type of group, its definitive characteristics and the name of a leader in that field.

Categorization of Human Relations Training Treatments

	Treatment Designation	Central Aims	Definitive Activities or Characteristics	Description
1.	Creativity-growth	Creativity Awareness Releasing human potential	Induced experiences designed to expand human awareness	Otto & Mann (1968)
2.	Marathon	Personal growth Greater capacity for being intimate	Uninterrupted interpersonal intimacy	Stoller (1968)
3.	Emergent	Personal growth Group growth	Absence of leader Nonprogrammed, unpredictable, emergent activities	Gibb (1968)

Categorization of Human Relations Training Treatments (cont'd)

Treatment Designation	Central Aims	Definitive Activities or Characteristics	Description
4. Authenticity	Openness Authentic encounter	Interventions and experiences focused on openness and consonance	Bugental (1965)
5. Sensitivity	Personal competence Group effectiveness Organizational effectiveness	Focus on here-and-now experiences and on group processes	Bradford, Gibb & Benne (1964)
6. Programmed	Personal growth and/or competence Group effectiveness Organizational effectiveness	Experiences initiated and/or directed by absent leaders	Berzon & Solomon (1966)
7. Micro-experience	Interpersonal skills Group effectiveness Organizational effectiveness	Limited time (2 to 20 hours; 1 to 2½ days)	Bradford, Gibb & Lippitt (1956)
8. Inquiry	Skills of inquiry Group effectiveness System effectiveness	Data-gathering, quasistructured experiences	Miles, Cohen and Whidman (1959)
9. Embedded	Team effectiveness Organizational effectiveness Problem-solving skills	Training experience embedded in sequential and continuous organization-based program of inputs, data-gathering, and experiences	Argyris (1962) Friedlander (1967)

One of the major concerns of individuals involved in human relations training is the "sensitivity" of the individual and

this term is ubiquitous in the human relations training literature. Gibb (1971), defines this concept in terms of an "input" and "output" component.

Training is aimed at inducing greater sensitivity to self, to the feelings and perceptions of other people, and to the general interpersonal environment. Sensitivity is seen as an input process involving greater awareness of the feelings and perceptions of others. It also has an output component, aspects of which are described variously as availability of self, transparency, openness, authenticity, or spontaneity (Gibb, 1971, p. 841).

The research literature reveals that the input side of sensitivity has received a good deal of attention but there is relatively little information available concerning the output side. Bunker (1961), studied a two-week group consisting of 341 participants using behavior change descriptions for 229 experimental subjects and 112 control subjects. From 5 to 7 raters were used and the results indicated "... increased openness, greater tolerance for new information and greater acceptance of difference. This study bears out other findings that when changes do occur as a result of human relations training, they are likely to occur first in the sensitivity-input aspects of behavior change" (p. 844).

Other studies (Oshry and Harrison 1966; Miles, Cohen and Whidman 1959; Dietterich, 1961; Blansfield, 1962) verify the conclusion that training increases sensitivity to the work situation and interpersonal needs, sensitivity toward social factors in the interpersonal situation and in seeing other people in more interpersonal terms. Of seventeen studies reviewed by Gibb (1971),

14 of the studies supported the hypothesis that sensitivity to the feelings and perceptions of others is increased by various types of human relations training. Haiman (1963), in a study of attitudes, used 425 students as experimental subjects and compared them with a control group of 231 control subjects before and after a human relations training experience. He found his experimental subjects to be more "open-minded" and less dogmatic when faced with a novel situation.

Gibb (1971) feels that there is ample evidence at this point in time to strongly suggest that "... participants learn from human relations training to be somewhat more self-determining" (p. 846). As evidence he cites a study by Greiner (1965), concerned with business management-development programs. Greiner studied an industrial setting where selected supervisors and workers underwent a programmed human relations training experience. "He reports a 24 percent increase in the number of supervisors who described their work groups as highly motivated toward greater effort. A greater number of supervisors rated their meetings as 'lively' and interesting than before training. Supervisors initiated more activities and took greater risks. There was also a shift in top-management values toward greater acceptance of the initiation of new ideas by subordinates (p. 846).

Several studies indicate that attitude changes occur after training and Gibb (1971), has summarized ten articles that show significant tendencies, after training, "toward less authoritarian, more democratic and participative attitudes" (p. 847).

Rubin (1967) found evidence to substantiate observations of clinicians that "high acceptance of self was related to high acceptance of others" (p. 848) and acceptance of self was significantly increased after training. Missing in this study as in many of the others are longitudinal data which would indicate whether these changed attitudes tend to last. There are now several theories of "group growth" both during and after training most notably those of Bennis and Shepard (1956), Schutz (1958), Gibb (1964), and Bion (1958). These theorists attempt to explain stages of growth that individuals and groups go through in an intensive group experience and later on after the group has discontinued. However, the data is sparse and as Gibb (1971), states: "What we seem to have are some promising theories, some meager data, and some methodological innovations. We do not as yet have adequate tests of the theories of group growth" (p. 850).

The effect of the leader upon the group has been an area of investigation and most writers seem to agree that the behavior of the leader can have a critical effect on the development of the group. Rogers (1970), sees the leader as being a "facilitator" or a "non-facilitator" and by this seems to mean that a leader can facilitate risk taking by his own attitude of acceptance and openness or he can discourage the same if he communicates an attitude of judgment, criticalness and threat. Powers (1965), found that "trainer style influenced effectiveness of the training. Trainers perceived as having a 'resource orientation' (high desire to give) were perceived more positively by participants than were trainers

with high need orientation (high desire to receive)." Another study conducted by Peters (1966), found that self-concept of the group members tended to converge during the group experience with their concepts of the trainer and also with the self-concept of the trainer. Finally, the self-fulfilling prophecy is pointed up by a study conducted by Psathas and Hardert (1966), in which it is shown, after analysis of several groups, that the leaders tend to give implicit norm messages to the members and the members tend to adopt these norms, in the group, to a significant degree (p. 854).

Therapy research comparing short-term to longer-term effects is scarce. This is an area where additional research is needed to determine the differences between immediate and long range results and the causes of those changes. Bergin (1971), discusses these research deficiencies and states:

One never really knows what the long range effect of the therapeutic procedure is, since there is no precise determination of the intervening influences that may affect the client's status in one direction or another (p. 256).

The present study includes an immediate and ten day follow-up measurement and is therefore, one study which provides longer term results within the same study.

Clinical observations of numerous writers (Rogers, 1970; Schutz, 1969; and Shostrom, 1969) are suggestive of a "spike" effect which reflects an initial improvement and sense of "well being" among most encounter group participants. This initial "euphoric" reaction seems to be followed within a few days after the group experience by a "re-entry" phenomenon consisting of depression and

disillusionment. Rogers (1970), feels that this sequence of events is a kind of "reactive depression" brought on by a loosening of defenses and great exhilaration during the group encounter and the expectation by the group participant that this euphoria can last indefinitely.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

General Design

This study was designed to investigate and evaluate the effectiveness of a basic encounter group in facilitating a more positive self concept and a more accurate perception of one's spouse. It was conducted with married students living in university housing at the University of Oklahoma.

The married student population living in university housing and enrolled in Spring course work during September 1971 totaled 1,844 individuals. The sample drawn from this population consisted of thirty married individuals or fifteen married couples.

The design provided for two distinct groups: 1) experimental group and 2) control group. The experimental group consisted of ten couples and the control group consisted of five couples. The sample was randomly drawn from the total population described above. If a chosen couple declined to participate in this study another couple was randomly chosen until the total sample was selected.

The experimental group was divided into two sub-groups and five married couples were randomly assigned to each sub-group.

This division was made because the author of the present study had previously conducted groups of various sizes and clinical experience indicated that an optimal group size would be from eight to fifteen members. Egan agrees with this group size but points out that the type of group and the goals of the group help determine size.

In practice, groups range in size from about eight to about twelve or fourteen members, but optimal size is determined to a large extent by the nature of the group and its goals (Egan, 1970, p. 6).

The control group consisted of five couples; randomly assigned. All Ss in the experimental group participated in a twenty-four hour basic encounter group led by the author. The control group received no treatment whatsoever.

The psychometric measurement used as the measure of change in this study was the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis, (Taylor, 1967), (T-JTA), a test used in personality assessment and marital counseling. The semantic differential (Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957), was also used to assess the attitudes of the Ss toward the leader of the group and to determine the differential impact of the leader upon the participants in this study, and ultimately, upon the test results of those individuals.

Population and Sample

The total main campus student population of the University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma during the Spring session, 1971 was 14,350 students. These students represented forty states of the union and eighteen foreign countries. The bulk of the student

body listed their permanent address as the state of Oklahoma and tended to represent the middle and upper middle socio-economic strata of the state.

A list of married students living in university housing was obtained from the student housing department of the university. A table of random numbers was used to assign each married couple a unique number. Fifteen married couples were then drawn from the total population. A letter was sent to each couple stating the purpose of the study, how their names were chosen and a brief description of the process and purpose of a basic encounter group. The letter also stated that the author of this paper would contact each couple by telephone at a specific time to answer any questions and to determine the interest and availability of the individuals for this study. In this manner, the fifteen couples were chosen and they were informed that, because of the nature of the study, they could be assigned to a control group which would not participate in a basic encounter group. However, they were asked to complete the T-JTA and the semantic differential in the same manner as the Ss in the experimental group. At this point, the fifteen couples were randomly assigned to either the experimental or the control group. The T-JTA was mailed to each couple together with the contract for the encounter group. An appointment was made and the author of this paper visited the couple to collect the completed tests and to discuss the work-shop contract. At this point, if any couple did not wish to participate in the study a new couple was chosen.

A total of twenty seven couples was contacted before the final sample of fifteen couples was confirmed. Once confirmed, all Ss completed the experiment. Of the twelve couples who declined to participate in the study the following reasons were given for not participating:

- 1) Six couples -- pressure of classes and school work.
- 2) Two couples -- one of the spouses in each case had "heard about such groups" and did not want to be in one.
- 3) Four couples -- Unable to leave children for such an extended period of time.

The above stated sequence of events is listed below in chronological order:

1. Randomly chose fifteen couples from all married students living in university housing.
2. Wrote letters to all fifteen couples.
3. Contacted by telephone and confirmed Ss interested in the study.
4. When fifteen couples were confirmed, random assignment of the couples to groups.
5. Sent T-JTA and workshop contract in mail and appointment was set for personal interview.
6. Interviewed each couple, collected completed T-JTA and discussed the workshop contract.

The ages of the participants were uncontrolled and there were no controls in regard to the class standing of the students, number of years married, intelligence, race or any other variables that could conceivably be used to form homogenous groups.

Treatment Procedures

Basic Encounter Group

The basic encounter group in this study was composed of two sub-groups. Each sub-group consisted of ten individuals (five married couples) in addition to the leader of the group making a total of eleven individuals in each sub-group.

At the beginning of each basic encounter group the leader reviewed the contract for the encounter group that each member had previously read and accepted. At this point the pre-test had been given. The first post-test was given one day after the conclusion of the group. The second post-test was given ten days after the group. It was felt by the author of this paper that a clear understanding of the purpose and methods of the group was a necessary prerequisite for the most effective utilization of the experience. Each participant should have in mind, as clearly as is possible, what he could expect from the encounter group and what would be expected of him. This approach is in philosophical agreement with the work of Sidney Jourard (1964) who stresses openness and candor in psychological research with humans. It is also in accord with Egan's (1970) basic premise of a contract for laboratory learning in order to minimize the manipulation of Ss through ambiguity and to maximize interpersonal growth through a clarification of goals and encouragement of individual responsibility.

The contract used in this study (Appendix A), has been largely adapted from Egan (1970). It is recognized that this is

a general contract referring to attitudes and behavior in a most intellectual manner that has limited meaning for those individuals who have not previously participated in such a group. Golembiewski and Blumberg (1970) discuss the difficulties inherent in explaining the process of an encounter group and they observe that "Even if this presentation is clear and unambiguous, in the final analysis, to really know T-Groups requires experiencing them" (p. 4). It seems somewhat comparable to an astronaut who has gone to the moon attempting to explain to the people on earth his "feelings" about having traveled thousands of miles through space and having walked on the surface of the moon. In spite of his most descriptive statements it seems quite doubtful that the astronaut could convey the richness of his feelings to those people who have never experienced such a trip.

There was no attempt to form homogenous groups on the basis of age, IQ, race, class standing or any other variable. The class standing ranged from Sophomore to Graduate and ages were from 21 to 38 years. The majority of the participants fell in the age range of 25 - 35 years. There was one Negro married couple that was randomly assigned to an experimental group and the remainder of the Ss were Caucasian.

Control Group

The members of the control group were chosen exactly as the members of the experimental group were chosen. The individuals assigned to the control group completed the T-JTA and the semantic

differential in exactly the same manner as the Ss of the experimental group. They took the tests at equivalent time intervals "as if" they also had participated in the encounter group. The control group received no treatment whatsoever.

Measurement Procedures

Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis

The T-JTA is a standardized personality test that was "designed primarily to provide an evaluation in visual form showing a person's feelings about himself at the time he answered the questions" (Taylor, 1967). It is constructed so that the S can also rate his perception of another person--often his spouse. There are 180 items on the test that are equally divided among the nine personality factors on the test. No question appears in more than one category.

The nine personality "traits" on the T-JTA are arranged in polar fashion.

A. Nervous	Composed
B. Depressive	Lighthearted
C. Active-Social	Quiet
D. Expressive-Responsive	Inhibited
E. Sympathetic	Indifferent
F. Subjective	Objective
G. Dominant	Submissive
H. Hostile	Tolerant
I. Self-disciplined	Impulsive

The author of the test defines a trait as a "constellation of behavioral patterns and tendencies sufficiently cohesive to be used and measured as a unit" (Taylor, 1967). In constructing the test, a factor analytic design was used with each question and with each trait and the author's conclusion was: "Statistically

it has been established that each scale measures a unique quality of personality." A complete description of standardization techniques and interpretation of the nine scales may be found in the T-JTA manual, published by Psychological Publications, 1967, Los Angeles.

In addition to the nine "trait" scales, there is an attitude scale which is a measure of test taking bias. This scale is somewhat similar to the K scale of the MMPI and attempts to measure the attitude of the individual taking the test to determine how his "feelings toward life in general and toward himself in particular may be influencing the way he responds to test items" (Taylor, 1967, p. 10). A low score on this scale suggests that the person sees himself in a denigrating manner. A high score may indicate a spuriously good or overly defensive attitude.

It was recognized that some changes could occur in scores as a result of taking the test. These "testing effects" were controlled by the research design. The Ss in the experimental group had to make statistically significant changes (.05 level) as compared with the Ss in the control group. Therefore, if changes occurred because of testing effects these changes would be reflected equally in the control and experimental groups and would cancel one another out.

Semantic Differential

The semantic differential as developed by Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957), was used to evaluate the attitude of the

Ss toward the leader of the group. The typical seven point rating system was used and the various polar items relating to the factors of "potency," "evaluation" and "activity," were represented. The rationale for the use of this instrument was to help explain differences in test results between the two sub-groups of the experimental group if, indeed, such differences were to occur. Conceivably, the leader of the groups could have a much different impact upon the two respective groups and thereby skew the test results.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Self Perception

Hypothesis I; A through I:

A basic encounter group induces changes in a person's self perception. This change in self perception will be reflected on the nine sub-scales of the T-JTA in pre- and post-test administrations of this test. There will be no significant change in pre- and post-test scores for the control group.

Self perception scores on each of the nine trait dimensions of the T-JTA were analyzed for differences between means of the experimental and control groups. The first set of post-test measurements were taken 24 hours after the conclusion of the group experience and a similar time schedule was followed with the control group although this group received no treatment. The results of these measurements are summarized in Table 1.

It is possible for an individual to achieve a score from the first through the 99th percentile on each of the nine T-JTA trait dimensions. It is theoretically possible for a person to score at the first percentile on a trait during one testing session and at the 99th percentile during a second testing. If, for example, an individual scored at the 45th percentile on trait A during the pre-testing and scored at the 35th percentile during the

Table 1

Changes in T-JTA Self Ratings Between Pre- and Post-Test I

Testing Differences Between Experimental and
Control Group Means by Student's t

Trait		$\bar{x}$	t	df
A	Nervous/Composed	12.10	2.783**	24
B	Depressive/Lighthearted	11.15	3.846**	13
C	Active-Social/Quiet	4.55	1.492	28
D	Expressive-Responsive/Inhibited	6.05	1.197	2
E	Sympathetic/Indifferent	6.70	2.788**	29
F	Subjective/Objective	4.80	2.635**	31
G	Dominant/Submissive	5.90	1.331	12
H	Hostile/Tolerant	7.65	4.550**	5
I	Self-disciplined/Impulsive	8.55	3.436*	2

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

first post-test his net percentile change would equal ten percentile points. The change scores for all Ss in the present study were calculated in this way and a mean was calculated for the 20 experimental Ss and compared against the mean change scores for the ten control Ss. A t test was then applied to the data to determine if significant (.05) change had occurred in the experimental group. The scores obtained during the second post-testing were also compared against the pre-test scores.

Changes occurred on each of the nine traits of the T-JTA. Significance at the .01 level occurred on traits A, B, E, F, and H. The magnitude of change was great enough to produce significance at the .05 level on Trait I.

On the basis of this analysis by use of Student's t-test (Walker and Lev, 1953), Hypotheses I: A, B, E, F, H and I are accepted for pre- and post-test I measurements.

The experimental group tended, therefore, to make significant movement toward the polarities of: composed, lighthearted, sympathetic, objective, tolerant and impulsive and moved away from the polarities of nervous, depressive, indifferent, subjective, hostile and self-disciplined.

Analysis of the second set of post-test measurements revealed (see table 2), that, again, there were changes in self perception on each of the nine traits of the T-JTA in the direction of significance. Significant changes at the .01 level occurred on traits A, B, C, D and F. Significance at the .05 level was achieved on traits G and H. There were numerous changes between post-test I and post-test II results. It was noted that traits

Table 2

Changes in T-JTA Self Ratings on Pre- and Post-Test II

Testing Differences Between Experimental and
Control Group Means by Student's t

Trait		$\bar{x}$	t	df
A	Nervous/Composed	12.85	4.24**	28
B	Depressive/Lighthearted	11.15	4.37**	6
C	Active-Social/Quiet	8.00	3.52**	18
D	Expressive-Responsive/ Inhibited	6.50	2.71**	16
E	Sympathetic/Indifferent	3.20	1.19	2
F	Subjective/Objective	4.90	4.53**	5
G	Dominant/Submissive	4.75	2.89*	3
H	Hostile/Tolerant	4.90	2.35*	4
I	Self-Disciplined/ Impulsive	4.75	1.67	2

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

A, C, D, F, and G reflected greater self percept change ten days after the basic encounter group than was the case 24 hours after the group. Traits E, H and I tended to decline in amount of significant change during the second post-test administration which occurred ten days after the group. Trait B remained the same on both post-test I and II.

On the basis of this analysis for pre- and post-test II measurements, Hypothesis I: A, B, C, D, F, G and H are accepted. Hypothesis I: E and I are rejected. It should be noted that traits A, B, F and H tend to maintain significance over the ten day period while traits E and I fade out with time. It appears that traits C, D and G need time in which to develop.

Perception of Spouse

Hypothesis II; A through I:

A basic encounter group will induce greater congruence in interpersonal perception in a marriage relationship. This greater congruence in the way a person sees himself and the way his mate sees him, will be reflected in statistically significant differences between pre-test and post-test scores on each sub-scale of the T-JTA. There will be no significant change in scores for the control group.

When the T-JTA is used to gain information about interpersonal perceptions it is referred to as a "criss-cross" measurement. For the purpose of this study, each S rated his or her spouse in addition to his self rating. Separate norms are provided in the T-JTA manual for these criss-cross measurements.

Table 3 summarizes the results of the criss-cross measure-

Table 3
Changes in T-JTA Criss-Cross Ratings on Pre- and Post-Test I
Testing Differences Between Experimental and
Control Group Means by Student's t

	Trait	$\bar{x}$	t	df
A	Nervous/Composed	3.12	.665	26
B	Depressive/Lighthearted	3.20	1.02	31
C	Active-Social/Quiet	1.85	2.75**	29
D	Expressive-Responsive/ Inhibited	5.60	2.48**	26
E	Sympathetic/Indifferent	5.85	1.30	29
F	Subjective/Objective	2.95	1.27	22
G	Dominant/Submissive	2.30	-.764	40
H	Hostile/Tolerant	1.30	-.045	25
I	Self-Disciplined/ Impulsive	1.55	.554	28

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

ments for the first post-testing session which occurred 24 hours after the conclusion of the basic encounter group. These $\bar{t}$ scores measure the mean differences between the experimental and control groups insofar as an individual's self perception and his spouse's perception of him tended to converge or diverge as a result of the basic encounter group. The absolute percentile differences between self perception and criss-cross measurements were taken in the pre-test, post-test I and post-test II. These absolute percentile differences form the basis for the comparison between the experimental and control group. If, for example, a husband rated himself at the 50th percentile on trait A during the pre-test and his wife rated him at the 60th percentile there would be a difference of ten percentile points in their views of him on that trait. If, during the first post-test, that same husband rated himself at the 45th percentile on trait A while his wife rated him at the 50th percentile there would be a difference of five percentile points with a net change of five percentile points and, therefore, greater congruence occurred on the criss-cross rating on that trait. In this manner, all the scores were analyzed and then compared against the control group. A low score would mean greater convergence and, therefore, more agreement between spouses.

From pre- to post-test I, traits C and D were significant at the .01 level, indicating that the experimental $\bar{S}$ s tended to converge in their perceptions of one another to a significantly greater degree on these two traits than did the $\bar{S}$ s in the control

group. Traits A, B, E, F and I showed a tendency for the experimental Ss to converge to a greater degree than did the control Ss. However, the convergence on these dimensions was not of sufficient degree to be significant at either the .01 or .05 level. Traits G and H showed a very slight tendency for the experimental Ss to diverge more than the control Ss in their perceptions of one another after the group experience. However, these t scores of $-.764$ and $-.045$ are of such low magnitude as to be insignificant and to preclude conjecture.

On the basis of this analysis for pre- and post-test I measurements the following hypotheses are accepted: Hypothesis II; C and D. Hypotheses II: A, B, E, F, G, H and I are rejected.

When post-test II results were analyzed on the criss-cross dimension it was found that traits A and D achieved significance at the .05 level and none of the other traits were significant at all. Traits E and F had moved from t scores of 1.30 and 1.27 respectively at post-test I to $-.896$ and $-.695$ at post-test II which seems to be a rather remarkable reversal. These results are summarized in table 4.

On the basis of this analysis, Hypotheses II: A and D are accepted. Hypotheses II: B, C, E, F, G, H and I are rejected.

T-JTA Attitude Scale

Hypothesis III:

Those experimental subject's who score in the "low" (sten of 1, 2, 3) or in the "high" (sten of 8, 9, 10) areas on the attitude scale of the T-JTA during the pre-test will tend to move

Table 4

Changes in T-JTA Criss-Cross Ratings on Pre- and Post-Test II

Testing Differences Between Experimental and
Control Group Means by Student's t

Trait	$\bar{x}$	t	df
A Nervous/Composed	5.65	1.70*	28
B Depressive/Lighthearted	5.25	.9290	26
C Active-Social/Quiet	.75	.2678	27
D Expressive-Responsive/ Inhibited	4.55	1.91*	11
E Sympathetic/Indifferent	2.95	-.896	14
F Subjective/Objective	1.80	-.695	16
G Dominant/Submissive	1.30	-.544	6
H Hostile/Tolerant	1.55	.557	10
I Self-Disciplined/ Impulsive	1.90	.650	31

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

toward the "normal" (sten of 4, 5, 6, 7) area in the two post-test administrations of the T-JTA. The control subject's who score in the "low" or "high" areas on the attitude scale during the pre-test will have the same scores on the post-test.

The change in the experimental group on the attitude scale was significant on both post-test's, at the .01 level. The statistical data concerning the results of the attitude scale measurements is summarized in table 5.

On the basis of these results, hypothesis III is accepted for both post-test I and post-test II.

Semantic Differential

Hypothesis IV:

There will be no significant difference in the perceptions of the experimental group and the control group concerning the group leader, as measured by the semantic differential.

The Semantic Differential as developed by Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957), was used to evaluate the attitudes of all Ss toward the leader of the basic encounter groups. This measurement device is divided into three categories and each category consists of six items arranged in polar fashion with seven possible choices for each item. The three categories are: Activity, Evaluation and Potency. The Semantic Differential, with its three categories and eighteen total items, may be found in Appendix C.

Table 6 summarizes the results of the Semantic Differential which was administered to both the experimental and control group during the second post-testing period, ten days after the

Table 5

Attitude Scale

Changes in T-JTA Attitude Scale Ratings in Post-
Test I and Post-Test II

Testing Differences Between Experimental and
Control Group Means by Student's t

$\bar{x}$	Post-Test I		$\bar{x}$	Post-Test II	
	t	df		t	df
1.05	4.40**	4	1.25	4.92**	8

**p < .01

Table 6

Semantic Differential

Testing Differences Between Experimental and Control Group
Means on Three Dimensions of the Semantic Differential

ACTIVITY

$\bar{x}$	t	df	p
7.83	.041	28	7.05

EVALUATIVE

$\bar{x}$	t	df	p
9.43	1.04	10	7.05

POTENCY

$\bar{x}$	t	df	p
5.20	.216	15	.05

conclusion of the basic encounter group.

The results obtained from Student's t test evaluation of the Semantic Differential reveals no significance at the .05 level on any of the three dimensions. Both the experimental and control group perceived the leader high on the dimensions of activity and evaluation. Both groups also rated the leader low on the dimension of potency.

On the basis of these results, Hypothesis IV is accepted.

Discussion

Comparing the self ratings on the T-JTA of the experimental and control groups it was found that significant changes occurred on all of the nine traits of the test either on the first post-test, the second post-test or, in some instances, on both post-tests. It was expected that a drop in significance would occur on the second post-test but this was not stated as one of the formal hypotheses of the study.

In the present study the "spike" effect for the self ratings, referred to in chapter two, was found on traits E, H and I. These traits are: sympathetic vs indifferent; hostile vs tolerant and self-disciplined vs impulsive. There was movement in the direction of "sympathetic" on trait E; "tolerant" on trait H and "impulsive" on trait I. This movement tended to regress toward the pre-test level during the second post-testing.

Traits A, C, D, F and G reflected greater shift after ten days than had been the case after 24 hours. These traits are:

nervous vs composed; active-social vs quiet; expressive-responsive vs inhibited; subjective vs objective and dominant vs submissive. The direction of movement on these dimensions has been described earlier in this chapter. This unexpected result may be due to various personality traits that are responding differentially to the group experience and are being reflected on the various traits of the T-JTA in different intensities at varying times. This reverse spike effect may also be due to the time at which the measurements were taken. It may be that the 24 hour measurement did not capture the euphoric effect expected and that there was still some euphoric effect that was tapped after ten days. A third possibility is the "incubation" effect described by Diven (1937), and more recently supported by the work of McAllister (1967). This concept has been used in the behavior therapy literature to explain a seemingly spontaneous increase in pleasure or fear, over time, with no subsequent stimulus which would explain the increase. Indeed, a clinical observation of this writer is that numerous participants in the experimental group, at a four week follow-up session not included in the study, seemed to feel that the group experience had the greatest effect upon them after several days of interacting with spouses and friends on a "different level." Another possible interpretation of this data is that the group experience itself was designed in a relatively structured manner; a contract was signed with the participants before the group and this approach may discourage the euphoric effect and encourage an emotional experience of less intensity.

The criss-cross measurements reflect relatively little significant shift. It seems that the experimental group converged in their perceptions of spouses on only two of the nine traits during the first post-test session. This shift was, however, significant at the .01 level when compared with the control group. These two traits were trait C, active-social vs quiet; and trait D, expressive-responsive vs inhibited. During the second post-testing session, trait C was no longer significant at any level and trait D was significant at the .05 level and no longer at the .01 level. Therefore, both traits which ostensibly reflected a greater tendency for married couples to agree in their perceptions of one another had large reductions in significance after 10 days. Trait A, nervous vs composed, reflected significance at the .05 level during the second post-testing after being highly insignificant at the first testing session after the encounter group.

The results of this criss-cross measurement support the findings of numerous investigators and is summarized by Gibb (1971), who states: "As is usually found to be the case, observers see less change in behavior than the participants report" (p. 849). In this study it has been demonstrated that there are highly significant changes in self perception and experience that seem to be brought about by basic encounter groups. These changes are often labile and unpredictable and change over time and other people who associate with the group participants report significantly less change in the participant than the participant seems to feel within himself.

The attitude scale of the T-JTA is an attempt to assess the test taking attitude of the S. It was validated against the K scale of the MMPI and the authors of the T-JTA emphasize that it is still an experimental scale. It was the only scale on the T-JTA that showed significance on both post-tests at the .01 level. The results of the analysis of the attitude scale suggests that the attitudes of the Ss who scored excessively high or low on this scale before the basic encounter group tended to regress toward the mean to a highly significant degree. Extrapolation of this data suggests that a S in this study who was initially "highly defensive" or "overly self-denigrating" tended to see himself in a more realistic, objective manner after participation in the basic encounter group.

Interpretation of these data concerning the attitude scale leads to some interesting possible explanations for this significant finding. It is possible that the items composing this scale are more sensitive to the type of changes made by this type of participant in an encounter group than many of the other items which constitute the nine scales of the T-JTA which may be more gross measures of such changes. It is also possible that an individual comes to see himself in a more accepting, objective light after such an encounter experience and these attitudinal changes take longer than ten days for spouses to become aware of. Analysis was also made of those Ss who initially scored in the mid-range of the attitude scale to determine if they moved to either extreme of the scale and it was found that none of the Ss

made such a shift.

A consideration of this study was that differences between groups could occur as a result of the quality of leadership rather than as a result of the group experience. In order to evaluate the perceptions of the groups toward the leader, the Semantic Differential was given to all experimental and control group ss. Comparisons made between the experimental and control groups indicated no significant differences (.05 level) between the perceptions of the various groups. It can be assumed, on the basis of this data, that the changes which did occur in self ratings, criss-cross ratings and on the attitude scale were not the result of leadership differences.

Another consideration in the analysis and interpretation of the foregoing data was the possibility of contamination effects. It is conceivable that some of the experimental and control group subject's were acquainted with one another before the study and discussed their experiences in the group, in taking the test or they interacted with one another, outside the experimental situation, in ways that could effect their perceptions of one another and thereby effect the final test results. In order to assess this possibility, this writer contacted each of the 15 married couples several weeks after the termination of the experiment and discussed this subject. Of the fifteen couples, two husbands in the experimental group indicated that they were acquainted in a rather superficial manner before the group and had become close friends as a result of the group experience. They were both in

the senior year of their college work. They stated that they had little contact for several days after the group because of the pressure of their studies and felt that their friendship had not effected the results of their examinations. Other participants had "seen" one another around the university community but none was acquainted. This finding is not surprising in view of random sampling procedures involving 15 couples chosen out of a total population of over 900 married couples.

Implications

The results of this study imply that significant changes in various dimensions of self perception occur in a population such as the one utilized and as a result of participation in a basic encounter group structured as the one described in this paper. No attempt was made to describe these changes in terms of "good" or "bad" but a clinical observation at a follow-up meeting several weeks after the experiment was that all the participants felt a greater sense of "well being" and greater insight into themselves. They seemed to think that they understood their spouse better than before the study. The control group Ss did not report these feelings. It is recognized by this writer that these positive reports could be due to cognitive dissonance, the self-fulfilling prophecy or a number of other factors. It seems, however, that these findings are valid in view of the degree of change as measured by the personality test tends to confirm the verbal reports of the group participants. The experimental group did

make significant shifts in self perception, inter-spouse perception and test taking attitudes when compared against the control group.

Another implication of this study is that although basic encounter groups do seem to promote significant changes in self-perception, these changes are unstable and tend to fluctuate during the first ten days after the group. Changes in the expression of affection, hostility, dependence, independence, etc., may vary markedly but a greater change seems to occur in an individual's own perception of himself in regard to these factors rather than any changed behavior he ostensibly demonstrates. In other words, an individual may feel differently about expressing and receiving affection, expressing and receiving anger, becoming more active-social or becoming more quiet but these intra-personal feelings are not translated to as great a degree, into an output component so that significant others, such as spouses, recognize those changes.

One result of this study demonstrates a highly significant tendency for highly defensive or severely self-denigrating individuals to move towards a more accepting, realistic appraisal of themselves. In view of the large number of individuals who seek out counseling and psychotherapeutic aid for their personal and marital problems at this university and at similar institutions throughout the country, it seems that the basic encounter group is one efficient and effective treatment modality for the positive alteration of negative and defensive attitudes.

It can also be implied that the basic encounter group has an effectiveness distinct from the influence of the leader.

It is recognized that leadership quality is a highly significant factor in the development and outcome of the group process but it can also be implied that the group process has a power of its own apart from leader influence.

It should be noted that the glowing reports of many group adherents that the encounter group is the "answer" may be nothing more than a temporary euphoric phase. Conversely, a period of withdrawn and depressed behavior may also be a temporary phase followed in several days by an upturn in mood.

Generalizability

An attempt was made to obtain a heterogenous group of married couples for this study, It was felt that most participants of basic encounter groups were of middle and upper socioeconomic levels but beyond that point few generalizations could be made. Group participants come from the business world, politics, various professions, religion, colleges and universities, housewives and other areas of endeavor. They are also representative of various races and ethnic backgrounds.

Within the population sampled it is felt that a heterogenous group was obtained and in that respect there are many similarities between the Ss in this study and those group participants throughout the country. Nevertheless, there are some definite limitations as to the generalizability of this study. More than half of the Ss had been raised in the mid-western geographic area of the United States. The majority of the Ss fell in the age

range of 25 - 32 years. They were all students at the University of Oklahoma or spouses of university students.

On the basis of the preceeding information, it is apparent that the results of this study have limited generalizability. It seems that the results obtained could be safely generalized to university students in the mid-western United States through an age range of the 20's and 30's. It is very possible that different results would occur if this study were conducted in the extreme Eastern, Southern and Western geographic areas of the United States.

Future Research

The results of this study answered some questions but raised numerous others. In the burgeoning field of human relations training, the lack of closely controlled studies that are generalizable to large populations is striking. The following is a list of questions, some of which were raised by this study, which have not been adequately explored and could be fruitful leads for future experimentation.

1. What happens to the data over a longer period of time?
2. Is it possible to make adequate predictions of directionality on the T-JTA? For example, is a greater amount of hostility, quietness or activity a positive change and for what type of person is it positive?
3. Do different personality types tend to change in distinct ways?

- a. Do some people have a predisposition for the euphoric effect?
 - b. Do some types of people tend to change more or less than others on specific traits of the T-JTA?
 - c. Does a certain type of person make more changes in a highly structured group versus a group with little structure?
4. Can the results of this study be replicated?
 5. Are certain verbal and non-verbal techniques more productive of change than others?
 6. How do results of workshops spaced out over time compare with the more massed type of training in this study?
 7. What type of training can be used to promote more of the output component of sensitivity in order to facilitate behavior that is more readily visible to others?
 8. What accounts for the failure of some changes on the T-JTA to hold up over a ten day period?
 9. What accounts for a more marked increase on some traits of the T-JTA after a ten day period than after a one day period?
 10. What are the different effects of various theoretical approaches?
 11. What leader characteristics are most facilitative of positive change?
 12. What type of group experience tends to produce the highest "casualty" rate?

13. Are the results of this study generalizable to different populations?

14. Did the reading and signing of the group contract have any significant effect on the results of this study?

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

This study of a married couples, basic encounter group, compared a group of ten married couples who participated in a 24 hour basic encounter group with a representative control group consisting of five married couples. The experimental group spent 24 hours together over a three day period in a group that consisted of structured verbal and non-verbal exercises and unstructured group encounter periods. They were measured for self perception and perception of their spouse on a pre-test, and two post-tests using the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis (T-JTA), a standardized psychometric instrument. The T-JTA was administered one day before the encounter group, one day after the group and again, ten days after the group. A semantic differential was also administered during the final testing session to evaluate the perceptions of the Ss toward the leader.

The 30 Ss of this study were drawn from a total population of 1,844 married individuals living in University of Oklahoma married student housing during the Spring semester, 1971. Ten married couples were randomly assigned to one of two experimental sub-groups. Five married couples were randomly assigned to

the control group.

The basic encounter group was structured so that a series of verbal and non-verbal T-group exercises centering upon the awareness of the individual started the group. Periods of unstructured encounter time were provided and this was followed by exercises centering upon inter-personal themes between spouses and, again, periods of unstructured encounter time followed these exercises.

Each S took the T-JTA two times during each of the three testing sessions. He would answer the questions "as he saw himself" and then answer the questions a second time "as he saw his spouse." In this way it was possible to evaluate changes in self perception and greater congruence in the way spouses "saw" one another as induced by the basic encounter group. The control group received no treatment but they took the tests at the same time intervals "as if" they had participated in a group.

Four general hypotheses were formulated which predicted significant changes (.05 level) in self perception on each of the nine trait dimensions of the T-JTA. Significantly greater congruence (.05) between married couple criss-cross ratings on each of the nine traits was predicted. Significant shift (.05) from the upper and lower ranges of the attitude scale on the T-JTA to the mid-range on that scale for experimental Ss was predicted. Finally, the fourth hypothesis stated that the two experimental subgroups and the control group in this study would not show significant (.05) differences in their perceptions of the leader as measured by the semantic differential.

Comparing the basic encounter group with the control group on the basis of self perception it was found that significant changes occurred on six of the nine traits during the first post-test session. During the second post-test session, eight of the nine traits showed a significant change over the control group. However, there had been an unexpected increase in the amount of change on some of the traits and others had lost significance. The conclusion was that a basic encounter group induces significant change in self perception up to ten days after the group experience.

The criss-cross measurement taken during the first post-test session revealed a significantly greater congruence (.01) in perceptions of spouses on two of the nine trait dimensions. The second post-test session revealed a drop in significance (.05) and even though two of the nine traits were still significant, one of the traits had dropped out and another had taken its place. The conclusion is that there is much less change in an individual from the viewpoint of a spouse than that individual reports in regard to himself. Also, the changes, at least as measured by the T-JTA, tend to fluctuate over time and are difficult to predict.

The third hypothesis, concerning the attitude scale of the T-JTA, indicated great significance (.01) on both of the post-tests. The conclusion was that a person who is highly defensive and attempts to put on a good front, as measured by this scale, tends to become significantly less defensive after such a group experience and this change lasts up to ten days. Also,

people who are prone to severe self-denigration, as measured by this attitude scale, tend to move in significant (.01), numbers toward a more accepting and open attitude toward themselves and this change lasts up to ten days after the basic encounter group.

Another finding of this study was that the leader seemed to be viewed by both the experimental Ss and the control Ss in essentially the same manner. There was a high degree of agreement between the groups on the three dimensions of the semantic differential concerning the leader. Therefore, the significant changes that did occur in the various measurements between the experimental and control groups did not seem to be due to a different quality of leadership.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

A CONTRACT FOR A BASIC ENCOUNTER GROUP

Please read the following contract carefully and then decide whether you wish to participate in the kind of experience described in the contract.

The goals of the group: The goals of this group will be to know ourselves better and to learn to know our spouse better. Our own conception of ourselves is often at odds with the way other people see us and husbands and wives often complain that their spouse "does not understand." The goal of this workshop is to learn to see ourselves more objectively and to see our spouse more objectively also and to improve our methods of communication.

Leadership in the group: The group will have a leader, but since he is not a leader in the traditional sense of that term, he is sometimes referred to by different titles, such as "trainer" or "facilitator." The name is not important, but his function is. He is skilled in group dynamics and has had experience participating in and working with groups. He will subscribe to the same contract that you do; that, he is a leader-member. As leader, his function is to put his knowledge of groups and his experience in groups at the service of your group. He is a resource person not a super-member. He will tell you about some of the problems that face most beginning encounter groups and will help clarify what may be occurring in the group or feelings that an individual may be having. He will also occasionally suggest some group "exercises" which will, in his opinion help clarify how an individual or the group is feeling at any particular moment.

Learning by doing: You will learn how to relate to others more effectively by actually relating. You will see yourself in action and you will talk about the ways in which you relate to the other members of the group.

Feedback: Your own behavior is the major input in the workshop. In this workshop you may try new ways of behaving (perhaps by speaking up more often if you are generally quiet and reserved) and it will be possible in this situation to learn through feedback from others how your behavior strikes them. You will be encouraged not only to react to others and tell them how their behavior strikes you but to ask for the opinions of others in regard

to your own behavior when you feel that you want the opinions of others. By means of such honest feedback, you should come to a better understanding of your own interpersonal abilities and limitations.

The here and now: The emphasis in this group will be upon the present rather than the past. You will not be forced or encouraged by the leader to talk about aspects of your past life unless you choose to do so. Your right to say "No" will be supported by the leader of the group. The emphasis will rather be upon your current feelings "within yourself" and in relation to your spouse.

Emotion: In many aspects of our daily life we find that our emotions are discouraged. We learn to "turn off the tears," never show irritation or anger and to "be cool" in showing our affection. In this workshop an emphasis will be placed upon emotional honesty i.e., that irritation, if we feel irritable can be expressed. If we feel like crying, it is perfectly acceptable to do so and if we like another person very much there will be freedom to state that fact.

Rules: Because of the wide spread publicity concerning various types of "groups" such as nude groups, it is understood that in this workshop there will be no nudity, no physical violence and no drugs or intoxicants. It is the feeling of the leader of this group that learning to accept ourselves more fully and learning to understand and accept our spouse is an exciting "trip" that requires no artificial help.

Husband

Wife

Group Leader

Date

APPENDIX B

FORMAT FOR BASIC ENCOUNTER GROUP

BEGINNING

- A. Introduction and review of the contract by the leader.
- B. Jacobson's deep relaxation.
- C. Non-verbal encounter by milling about room and maintaining eye contact.
- D. Goal assessment pairs with couples spending time together attempting to determine what they want from the group experience and from one another.
- E. Unstructured basic encounter period for the entire group.
- F. Awareness exercises emphasizing sound, sight, smell, touch and taste.
- G. Choosing a new name for each group member that seems to "fit" that person and the sharing of first impressions.
- H. Establishing "comfortable distance" exercise with other group members.
- I. Unstructured basic encounter period for the entire group.

MIDDLE

- A. Exploring your space exercise.
- B. Listening exercise in marital dyads.
- C. Unstructured basic encounter period for the entire group.
- D. Positioning each group member in the way he is perceived according to his behavior in the group.
- E. Lunch; food is provided and married couples feed one another. This exercise involves the feelings connected with "giving" and "receiving."
- F. Trust fall and "blind" trust walk for married couples.
- G. Goal assessment pairs.
- H. Role trading in marital dyads.
- I. Unstructured basic encounter period for the entire group.

TERMINATION

- A. Unwrapping. Each spouse, in turn, curls into a tight ball and the spouse slowly unwraps him and both people are to be aware of their feelings of resistance, wishing to help, fear, resentment, etc.

- B. Group fantasy. All group members lie in a circle with heads in the center, making the spokes of a wheel. A fantasy is started about the group and each person spontaneously adds to the fantasy.
- C. Roll and rock.
- D. Unstructured basic encounter group and termination.

The verbal and non-verbal exercises listed above are treated fully in terms of rationale and implementation in William Schutz's book: Joy and also in T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method by Bradford, Gibb and Benne.

APPENDIX C

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

"The leader of this group"

good	_____	_____	_____	_____	bad
hard	_____	_____	_____	_____	soft
active	_____	_____	_____	_____	passive
optimistic	_____	_____	_____	_____	pessimistic
heavy	_____	_____	_____	_____	light
excitable	_____	_____	_____	_____	calm
positive	_____	_____	_____	_____	negative
masculine	_____	_____	_____	_____	feminine
warm	_____	_____	_____	_____	cold
complete	_____	_____	_____	_____	incomplete
severe	_____	_____	_____	_____	lenient
concerned	_____	_____	_____	_____	apathetic
timely	_____	_____	_____	_____	untimely
strong	_____	_____	_____	_____	weak
involved	_____	_____	_____	_____	remote
tenacious	_____	_____	_____	_____	yielding
complex	_____	_____	_____	_____	simple
meaningful	_____	_____	_____	_____	meaningless

Directions: Please rate the leader of your group on each of the above dimensions e.g., good - bad; hard - soft, etc. Place an X on the space that seems to describe this person most accurately for you.

APPENDIX D

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

THREE DIMENSIONS OF CATEGORIZATION

ACTIVITY

1.	Active	- - - -	Inactive
2.	Excitable	- - - -	Calm
3.	Warm	- - - -	Cold
4.	Complex	- - - -	Simple
5.	Meaningful	- - - -	Meaningless
6.	Involved	- - - -	Remote

EVALUATIVE

1.	Good	- - - -	Bad
2.	Optimistic	- - - -	Pessimistic
3.	Positive	- - - -	Negative
4.	Complete	- - - -	Incomplete
5.	Timely	- - - -	Untimely
6.	Concerned	- - - -	Apathetic

POTENCY

1.	Hard	- - - -	Soft
2.	Heavy	- - - -	Light
3.	Masculine	- - - -	Feminine
4.	Severe	- - - -	Lenient
5.	Strong	- - - -	Weak
6.	Tenacious	- - - -	Yielding