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THE EFFECTS OF HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING
ON SELECTED PERSONALITY VARIABLES

by

Everette E. Nance

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of the Graduate College
in partial fulfillment
of the
Degree of Doctor of Education

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THE EFFECTS OF HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING ON SELECTED PERSONALITY VARIABLES

Everette E. Nance, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1971

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of three types of human relations training in terms of attitudinal and behavioral changes in individuals. The types of training investigated were basic encounter, didactic and social modeling. The attitudinal and behavioral changes were based on measures of extroversion and neuroticism.

Two questions were formulated to give direction to the investigation. These questions were:

1. Does human relations training effect a change in an individual's attitude or behavior in regard to the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism?
2. Is one type of group process in human relations training more effective than others in bringing about changes in attitudes and behaviors regarding the selected personality variables?

Procedure

The sample for the study was selected from sophomore students attending Western Michigan University during the Fall Term of 1970. Participation in the study was on a volunteer basis and the number of

students participating was forty-eight.

Attitudes toward extroversion and neuroticism were measured by student responses on the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories. The behavior of participants regarding extroversion and neuroticism was measured by the Behavioral Observation Scale which was developed and validated by the writer.

Supplemental criterion measures analyzed were a test of congruence between attitudes and behaviors and the effects of counselor differences on participant's attitudes and behaviors. A process evaluation scale was used to determine if the treatment groups were as designed. The groups were as follows: two basic encounter, two didactic, two observational and two control.

Mean scores and t-ratios were used to analyze the extent to which human relations training effected changes in an individual's attitudes and behaviors regarding extroversion and neuroticism. One-way analysis of variance and t-tests were used to test the relative effectiveness of type of group process in bringing about changes in attitudes and behaviors regarding the selected personality variables. Product-moment coefficients of correlation were used to test the congruence of attitudes and behaviors and to establish inter-rater reliability for the Behavior

Observation Scale and Process Evaluation Scale.

A two-way analysis of variance model was used in an additional analysis to control for differences among group leaders.

Results

The results of the study give little reason to believe that human relations training had any influence on attitudinal changes regarding extroversion or neuroticism. The behavioral data obtained did, however, suggest that there was a relationship between type of group treatment and behavior of participants regarding extroversion and neuroticism. Of all the treatment groups studied, the Social Modeling Group was the most effective in bringing about change. The Didactic Group also changed more than the Basic Encounter and Control Groups.

Correlation analysis indicated that the participants attitudes and behaviors were not congruent. In this study, behaviors were more sensitive to the experimental treatments than were attitudes. This observation is consistent with other findings which have shown that behaviors are easier to change than are attitudes. Further investigation revealed that counselor difference may have been a significant intervening variable.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

During the decade of the sixties, public and private school systems, universities, industrial training divisions, rehabilitation centers, mental health clinics and other social institutions discovered that they were not meeting the educational and emotional needs of their constituents. They found that cognitive learning and skill training, the traditional components of education, could no longer satisfy the needs of a generation that had experienced the civil rights revolt, the ever-widening generation gap, and a major military conflict. Education, according to Birnbaum (1969), had rediscovered the emotions. In response to this dilemma there has been a growing interest in various approaches to affective learning that assigns to the emotional factor in education a role as important as the one traditionally given to substantive content and skills. Hence, there has been a marked increase in the use of group processes in social institutions concerned with human behavior (Betz, 1970).

Among the approaches being used, the most

enthusiastically embraced has been the so-called "sensitivity training" which is a specialized group type that might be classified in the psycho-process cluster. The term "sensitivity training" is used loosely to include a wide variety of laboratory approaches in human relations, group dynamics, organizational development as well as a number of verbal and non-verbal experiences that seek to increase awareness and release human potential.

There has been a growing concern among public, private and industrial educators as to the real value of psycho-process models in attaining educational objectives. The concern is generated because of two things: first, there is a group of "newly hatched trainers" who do not understand fully what they are doing and secondly, "sensitivity training" has been used as a catch-all method without any attention being given to setting concrete objectives.

For a number of years, the problem of attaining affective objectives in addition to informational objectives has been extensively studied by educators. In the affective domain, various forms of "sensitivity training" have demonstrated promising results in assisting students to attain selected affective goals (Golembiewski and Blumberg, 1970).

The use of affective techniques has not been

without problems. In some quarters, reaction to their use has been most violent, and at the present time, a conservative statement would be that their inclusion as part of the educational process is seriously questioned. Critics of the use of affective techniques point to the lack of basic research in the area of "sensitivity training," the preparation of trainers and the relationship of the process to the objectives of the educational system.

According to Betz (1970b), the level and kind of training and the process structured by the group leader are focal points at this time. Specifically, should the leader be psychologically sophisticated and use indepth psychological techniques, or can he be relatively unsophisticated psychologically and use didactically oriented techniques of a socio-process nature and still attain desired attitudinal and behavioral changes? Most writers agree that the use of the right process is crucial if one expects to attain specific goals (Bradford, 1967) (Birnbaum, 1969). In order to be able to choose the appropriate process, it is imperative that the trainer acquire extensive knowledge of the different processes involved. In respect to this, Birnbaum (1969) listed three kinds of training which have become highly popular. They are; (1) organizational development, (2) encounter groups,

confrontation sessions, and marathons and (3) non-verbal techniques.

Organizational development is a general term that includes a variety of approaches that combine affective and intellectual components in the use of small groups as a medium for consultation, problem solving, and re-education of individuals in both public and private organizations. Organizational development evolved primarily out of the earlier sociologically oriented focus of the T-Group that emphasized change rather than personal development. The T-Group will be discussed later.

Encounter groups, confrontation sessions and marathon labs are usually short term. Trainers in these sessions usually encourage the participants to explore in some depth their own feelings and motivations.

The non-verbal techniques are numerous and range from simple exercises with a minimum of body contact to physically intimate and emotionally revealing designs of the kind most often associated with Esalen and its' derivatives.

Each of the above mentioned approaches to "sensitivity training" is designed to serve specific purposes. Undoubtedly it is possible that each can be immensely beneficial to some individuals, and

provide little help, or be harmful to others. The original T-Group from which all forms of "sensitivity training" developed, can serve either purpose. It can provide the basis for a lab devoted primarily to personal growth or one that rigorously relates all personal learning to an organizational context. It has been the experience of the writer that unless a lab is consciously dedicated to the latter, the high degree of personal involvement pulls the focus toward individual growth. When those responsible for organizing human relations laboratories are unable to or unwilling to differentiate between various kinds of training, the result can be disastrous. The writer believes that both psycho-process and socio-process models can be used effectively in a group setting if the trainer is cognizant of "what he is doing."

There has been a split in the human relations movement regarding the use of psycho-process models (Bradford, Gibbs and Benne, 1967). The split began and continued when one branch chose to emphasize interpersonal group process and the opposing branch continued to emphasize didactic techniques in the quest for attainment of affective educational objectives.

The cleavage in technique and emphasis has led

to controversy over many critical aspects of group process application to educational spheres. Today, serious questions are being raised as to the appropriateness of selected techniques focused on interpersonal dynamics and physical contact. One such question: Does group process need to be interpersonally oriented in order to reach desired objectives? is a basic research issue (Birnbaum, 1969).

It seems that the element of change is involved in all forms of human relational training, be they psycho-process or socio-process oriented. Though the argument that change is the focal element involved would suffice in most instances, it isn't clear what type of change takes place or to what degree. It may be that if change is to be permanent, a person may have to accept an entirely new set of values. The writer believes that in most instances where change occurs as a result of exposure to human relations training, there is a basic change in attitudes toward personality variables which in turn effect a behavioral change in individuals. If this does not occur, the writer believes that the technique employed may not have been effective, depending on the objectives of the laboratory.

Miles (1967) suggests a way in which change may take place in an individual. He lists six steps

that people experience when change is possible; they are, dissatisfaction with present behavior, getting evidence on results, generalizing, applying and integrating and finding new dissatisfactions.

Lewin (1947) identified as the stages of change; (1) unfreezing, (2) changing, and (3) refreezing. The first two of his list are necessary conditions of change. The third is concerned with stability of whatever change occurs. Under each of these stages, one can identify certain key mechanisms, as follows:

Stage 1. Unfreezing

- a. Lack of confirmation
- b. Inductions of guilt anxiety
- c. Creation of psychological safety by reduction of threat or removal of barriers to change

Stage 2. Changing

- a. Scanning the interpersonal environment
- b. Identifying with a model

Stage 3. Freezing

- a. Personal-integrating new responses into the rest of the personality and attitude system
- b. Relational-integrating new responses into ongoing significant relationships

Basically, Lewin is saying that attitude change begins with a dissatisfaction or disequilibrium, with some information about the person that leaves him uncomfortable because it is unexpected or violates

his image of himself. The writer believes that Lewin and Miles explain the same phenomenon.

In order to determine the kind of change which takes place, to provide answers to fundamental questions and to provide leadership in applying appropriate group processes congruent with stated objectives, basic research on group process is needed at this time. Process and leader behavior are significant areas of focus for basic research, and for the most part, this type of research must be carried out in human behavior laboratories under controlled conditions.

The Statement of the Problem

The objectives of human relations training are generally geared toward changing attitudes and behavior. It seems that those attitudes and behaviors dealt with in most human relations laboratories relate to extroverted-introverted and neurotic-nonneurotic types. Two major questions regarding the affect of human relations training on such changes are investigated in this study. They are: (1) Does human relations training effect a change in an individual's attitude or behavior in regard to the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism? and (2) Is one type of group process in human

relations training more effective than others in bringing about changes in attitudes and behaviors regarding the selected personality variables?

With the above questions in mind, the following null hypotheses were developed.

Null hypotheses related to question one are listed below. These will be followed by those null hypotheses related to question two.

- HO 1 An impersonal experience (didactic group) in human relations will not effect a change in an individual's attitude toward extroversion.
- HO 2 An impersonal experience in human relations will not effect a change in an individual's attitude toward neuroticism.
- HO 3 An impersonal experience in human relations will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding extroversion.
- HO 4 An impersonal experience in human relations will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding neuroticism.
- HO 5 Exposure to human relations training in the form of the basic encounter group (a psycho-process model) will effect no change in an individual's attitude toward extroversion.
- HO 6 Exposure to human relations training in the form of the basic encounter group will effect no change in an individual's attitude toward neuroticism.
- HO 7 A personal psycho-process oriented basic encounter group experience will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding extroversion.
- HO 8 A personal psycho-process oriented basic encounter group experience will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding neuroticism.

- HO 9 Exposure to human relations training through observation of the group process (social modeling group) will effect no change in an individual's attitude toward extroversion.
- HO 10 Exposure to human relations training through observation of the group process will effect no change in an individual's attitude toward neuroticism.
- HO 11 Exposure to human relations training through the use of observation techniques will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding extroversion.
- HO 12 Exposure to human relations training through the use of observation techniques will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding neuroticism.

The null hypotheses listed above are related to question one. Below are listed those which are related to question two.

- HO 13 There is no relationship between types of human relations experience and changes in attitudes toward extroversion.
- HO 14 There is no relationship between types of human relations experience and changes in attitudes toward neuroticism.
- HO 15 There is no relationship between types of human relations experience and changes in behavior regarding extroversion.
- HO 16 There is no relationship between types of human relations experience and changes in behavior regarding neuroticism.

The following null hypotheses are not related to questions one and two but were developed to test the congruence of participant's attitudes and behaviors and to see if the use of different counselors was a significant nuisance variable.

- HO 17 No congruence will be observed between participant's attitudes and behavior regarding extroversion.
- HO 18 No congruence will be observed between participant's attitudes and behavior regarding neuroticism.
- HO 19 There will be no difference in the attitudes of participants in Experiments A and B toward extroversion as a result of being exposed to two different trainers.
- HO 20 There will be no difference in the attitudes of participants in Experiments A and B toward neuroticism as a result of being exposed to two different trainers.
- HO 21 There will be no difference in the behavior of participants in Experiments A and B regarding extroversion as a result of being exposed to two different trainers.
- HO 22 There will be no difference in the behavior of participants in Experiments A and B regarding neuroticism as a result of being exposed to two different trainers.

Definition of Terms

The definitions listed below are in reference to ambiguous terms stated in the above null hypotheses.

Impersonal Experience (didactic, socio-process model)

In this type of group, participants are exposed to lectures and discussions dealing with specific information rather than interpersonal interaction based upon conflict.

Personal Experience (basic encounter, psycho-process model)

In this type of group, the subjects are encouraged through interpersonal and intrapersonal interaction

to explore in some depth their feelings and emotions. A unique characteristic of the "basic encounter" is the modification of the behavior of group members by focusing on that behavior during the group process. The term "basic encounter" is most closely identified with the Rogerian approach to counseling and psychotherapy.

Social Model (observation group)

In this type of group, participants are not directly exposed to any subject matter content or interpersonal and intrapersonal interactions. They are indirectly exposed by being able to observe others who are participating in a "basic encounter group." This is accomplished by having the "social modeling group" observe the "basic encounter" without their knowledge through a one-way mirror.

Extroverted Behavior

Jung (1962) defined extroverted behavior as an outward turning of a person's psychic energy to an object outside of himself. In a sense, extroversion is an outgoing transference of interest from the subject to the object. If it is an intellectual extroversion, the subject thinks himself into the object; if a feeling of extroversion, then the subject feels himself into the object. The state of extroversion means a strong, if not exclusive, determination

by the object.

Eysenck (1969) defines extroverted behavior in the following manner; craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, always has a ready answer, generally likes change, carefree and easygoing, full of fun, jokes a lot, aggressive, may lose his temper, full of vigor, cannot keep feelings and emotions under control, prefers to keep moving and doing things, impulsive. The two definitions listed above were used in the study to identify extroverted behavior.

Introverted Behavior

Jung (1962) defined introverted behavior as a turning inwards of the psychic energy (libido). Here is expressed a negative relation of subject to object. Everyone whose attitude is introverted thinks, feels and acts in a way that clearly demonstrates that the subject is the chief factor of motivation while the object receives only a secondary value.

Eysenck (1969) defines introverted behavior in the following manner; quiet, retiring, introspective, looks before he leaps, does not lose his temper, not aggressive, is not easily excited, keeps feelings under control, somewhat pessimistic. These two definitions were used in the study to identify introverted behavior.

Neurotic Behavior

Eysenck (1969) defined neurotic behavior as being; easily offended, touchy, easily excitable, provoked or annoyed, restless and easily fatigued, not calm, changing moods, no confidence, sleepy, complains of physical ailments often, or generally that his health isn't good, blames his failure on poor health. This definition was used in the study to identify neurotic behavior.

Scope of the Study

The purpose of the study has been stated, null hypotheses have been developed and ambiguous terms defined. This section deals with what was involved in carrying out the study.

Participants in the study were selected from sophomore classes at Western Michigan University. The participants were pre-tested on attitudes and behavior in regard to the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism and stratified into experimental groups which have been identified and defined. The experimental groups were; didactic, "basic encounter," social modeling and control. These constituted the treatments which the subjects received. The participants were then post-tested on attitudes and behavior after a four week treatment

phase and data collected and analyzed. These procedures were carried out to answer the question: Do individuals experience as much change in attitudes and behavior as a result of participating in impersonal groups as they do in personal groups?

Importance of the Study

The writer believes that this study is particularly relevant to educators at this time. According to Betz (1970), students, teachers, administrators and employees of organizations other than public schools are being exposed to group processes which are ultimately designed to assist them in some way to more effectively live their interpersonal and intrapersonal lives. These people are often directed to participate in human relations groups against their wills. For this reason, many people question the value of using affective techniques in human relations training at all.

The writer believes that it is necessary for educators to have some human relations skills. Birnbaum (1969) discusses three ways in which human relations training may help in training school personnel in the affective area. First, in an area of increasing tension and alienation, both teachers and administrators must develop objectivity; Second, training in the affective area can help to reduce attitudinal blocks

and group resistance to needed educational change; Finally, appropriate human relations training should begin to equip teachers with a new teaching technology that is based on a learning group of peers, in contrast to the traditionally oriented class room with the teacher as an authority figure and the students as a group of charges.

The value of using human relations training in achieving educational objectives cannot be denied. However, there are some concerns which emerge and must be expressed. Betz (1970b) lists four major concerns which the writer believes are most important. The first concern is with leadership training; the second concern is with publicity or advertisement; the third concern involves the screening of participants; the fourth concern is the absence of hard data evaluation of the outcomes of psycho-process models such as the "basic encounter group." This study deals with the fourth concern.

It has been pointed out previously that the use of affective techniques to obtain educational objectives has been seriously questioned and that there is a need for empirical data concerning the effects of various human relations models on participants. The writer acknowledges these concerns and others dealing with qualifications of trainers

and the recruitment of participants. The research effort is designed to provide data regarding the effectiveness of three different human relations models.

Much has been implied about the dangers of "sensitivity training" and its' effects on the personality of individuals, but there isn't any documentation of these aspects of human relations technique as applied to groups. Perhaps, an old saying, "Where there is smoke there is fire," may be applied here. If individuals do in fact suffer a traumatic experience in certain affective groupings, it may be well to think of other methods to bring about desired personal and organizational changes. The present research provides empirical evidence as to the effectiveness of basic encounter, didactic and social modeling techniques in the area of human relations. Other studies have failed to provide any significant findings as to the relationship of various models to changes in personality types. It is anticipated that the results of the study will add to the literature and aid in resolving the conflict between methods and goals in group process application.

Overview

Chapter one has included an introduction, a

statement of the problem, null hypotheses, definition of terms, a scope of the study, a discussion of the educational significance of the study and an overview.

Chapter two contains a review of the literature related to human relations training and specific models and also a section on selected research on human relations groups related to the independent-dependent variables.

Chapter three reviews the problem, describes the sample and procedures used in the study, identifies independent and dependent variables and discusses them in relation to instrumentation. A section on data analysis concludes the chapter.

Chapter four presents and discusses research findings relevant to the independent and dependent variables.

Chapter five summarizes the study, gives conclusions and discusses immediate implications for further research and implications for application.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF SELECTED AND RELATED LITERATURE

The review of the group process literature involves an exploration in two major areas. One area concerns a description of the historical development of human relations groups. The second related to what other researchers have discovered about the effects of different group processes on attitudes and behaviors regarding selected personality variables.

The emphasis on the historical and developmental aspects of human relations groups provides the reader with information regarding different models of human relations training. The second research area mentioned above is pertinent to the objective of determining the nature of the relationship between selected group processes and personality variables.

Historical Development of Human Relations Groups

In the past twenty years, there has been an increased emphasis on the therapeutic efficacy of group methods in areas of emotional psychopathology as well as in those of general emotional development. The T-Group, the marathon, the basic encounter group, the synanon group, and the gestalt workshop have

emerged as approaches which have been utilized by a wide range of organizations including industry, government, educational and religious organizations and community groups. The purpose of this section is to report an exploration of the development of these various approaches.

Review of the literature reveals that the boundaries of the various group methods are not clearly defined. In the following section these approaches will be defined and categorized as clearly as possible.

Group psychotherapy has been popularly considered as treatment where group members can try new behavior which hopefully encourages them to find better ways of dealing with personal and social conflicts and as an adjunctive treatment dealing primarily with psychopathology. Frank (1967) suggests an important function of the group in classical group therapy is to encourage the interaction of group members thereby encouraging independence from the individual patient-therapist role. The extent to which patients see themselves as being helped by the group is related to movement toward emotional growth. In this setting, the therapist has the task of insuring that the psychological meanings of the interactions in the group are clear to the patients so that each may relate

it to his personal difficulties and possibly have carryover to his outside life. Lipton (1961) indicates that this emphasis on the relationship between the interaction of each individual's behavior in the group and emotional transference is commonly associated with those in the camp of Freudian philosophy. Lipton suggests that another trend advocated by persons such as Rogers, Rank, Taft and the gestaltists, takes the broader position that personal growth results from any interpersonal contact, and are not as committed to the requirement that persons develop personal insights or deal with transference dimensions as a prerequisite to behavior change. It appears that the Rogers, et.al. group represents the dominant movement toward consideration of the whole arena of group processes as a major factor influencing change in the individual.

Shepperd (1964) speaking from a phenomenological point of view, outlines applications of Kurt Lewin's field theory to groups. Shepperd reviews studies which suggest that adequate group function is related to factors other than the group. These are: amount of interaction, compliance, consensus and recognition of internal versus external group norms by members. Fiedler (1967) divides groups by function and further by leader-member relationships, task structure and

power position of the leader. There is an extensive analysis of relationship between leader style, his power position, type of group and effectiveness. The emphasis on group dynamics and group therapy is illustrated in Bach's (1954) work in intensive group psychotherapy. In the preface, he states:

When participating in groups, patients are affected by and give expression to unconscious forces that are not recognizable in individual treatment. Consequently, a group therapist not only must know how to recognize the dynamics of transference and ego defenses but must master an additional skill. He must be able to recognize, reflect and interpret that set of psychological forces operating in group situations which the late Kurt Lewin started to investigate under the label of group dynamics (p. 1).

In essence, Bach is interested in the therapeutic significance for the patient. He places emphasis on the relationship between the movement of the group through various phases or levels of interaction and the growth of the individual. In his description of the developmental phases of groups from the initial to the work group, one sees clear similarities between his approach and that of the T (training) laboratory group (Bach, 1954).

The T-Group in its original formulation, was one which was primarily oriented toward greater development of a person's potential for functioning in the various intrapersonal associations of adult

life. Initially involved with group dynamics research, educational technology and human relations concerns, the T-Group has found utilization in industry, government and what may be termed "therapy for the normal person."

The origin of the T-Group in 1946 involved a workshop in Connecticut aimed at increasing the level of understanding of professionals in the fields of education and social work, businessmen and community leaders, of aspects of the local Fair Employment Practices Act. The main method to be used was group discussion, role playing and the analysis of the results. Upon request, participants were permitted to attend the evening staff meetings where group leaders and research observers discussed observations of each group's interaction. Participants reaction to hearing direct feedback on their behavior had a significant impact and a series of participant-staff discussions followed. As a result of several evenings of joint discussion, it was recognized that the feedback technique in group process had considerable force as a method of behavior change.

From 1949 to 1955 the staff of the National Training Laboratories (NTL) experimented with the inclusion of a variety of functions of the T-Group. One main trend was the decrease in the emphasis on the

utilization of the group to directly solve external community organizational problems. The focus shifted from a sociological-community organization to a psychological-interpretation approach. With a number of modifications and developments of the mechanics of group function, the T-Group emerged as one in which the focus centered mainly on the "here and now," and the interpersonal. The purpose of the group was defined as assisting the participants in more clearly seeing the relationship between their behavior in the T-Group and their function in their outside organizational life. Continued experimentation resulted in the reconsideration of the range of T-Group usage. Since 1960, there has been the consensus that the T-Group can integrate external community organizational problems or individual experiences of participants as part of the here and now learning process (Bradford, 1967).

In recent years, there has been a split in the application of the T-Group method. One arm of the "movement" used the T-Group as a therapeutic instrument for "normals" and is represented by the following organizations which by no means are all inclusive. They are: the Graduate School of Business Administration at UCLA, Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, The Esalen Institute and most recently, the Topanga Human

Development Center of Los Angeles. The other arm of the movement represents the use of the T-Group to promote learning of group function by an analysis of the task to be solved by the group and by feedback directed to a critique of interactions growing out of the problem solving process. In this approach, there is the extensive use of selfadministered psychological instruments geared toward providing objective data for feedback. Benne (1967) distinguishes between the applications as follows:

The prevailing definitions of normal behavior often lead men and women to a life of continuous role playing. Contrived facade and role meet contrived facade and role in much human exchange. Open and authentic encounter of person with person falls outside of the rules of the culture game. "Normals," caught in the culture game are isolated and alienated within their interpersonal relations and since the urge toward personal authenticity seems to be an inherent motivation in healthy selves, "normals" become alienated also within themselves. Sensitivity training offers the participants involvement in a regime of authentic interpersonal relations, in which processes of self discovery through personal confrontation and human encounter are practiced and praised. The immediate gains for the participant are strengthened ego and an improved self image (p. 80-135).

Of the task oriented group, Benne suggests that the focus is on aiding the members in becoming more effective group members. The group is usually smaller. The role of the leader (trainer) emphasized feedback to the group of critical events occurring in the group

(as distinguished from the individual interpretation of the role of the trainer in the therapy oriented groups). The leader utilizes rating scales, check lists and other means of qualifying the feedback information.

One sees in the Bach and therapy oriented groups clear indication of the existential approach, i.e., focus on the individual in the "here and now" sense, and emphasis on the "whole person" as he relates to his social milieu. This influence is further seen in the synanon group, and in the marathon technique as developed by Bach, Stoller and Gibbs.

The synanon (the small "s" refers to the therapy group as distinguished from the title of the foundation) is a unique form of therapy-encounter group which has developed with the Synanon Foundation. Originally, the synanon group was confined to Synanon residents who were required to attend sessions three times per week. In the last three years, the synanon has broadened to incorporate both Synanon residents and non residents "squares." This latter form is called the "synanon game." Yablonsky (1965) describes the resident synanon as an intensive group encounter where the emphasis is on extreme uncompromising candor among group members. No holds barred in efforts at honestly dealing with feelings. He

indicates that:

The synanon is in some respects an emotional battlefield. Here an individual's distorted self images and negative behaviors are attacked again and again. The verbal attack method involves exaggerated statements, ridicule and analogy (pp. 137-158).

The attack approach is rationalized in terms of the strong bond of concern between residents, constantly seeking to help each other develop more mature and socially responsible ways of interpersonally behaving. Each participant is expected to reveal areas of personal difficulty encountered in the resident work and his social life. In the process of the attack, the individual learns to examine valid and invalid statements and observations of his behavior.

The group leader (Synmaster) is usually an older resident who is responsible for grouping residents in order to achieve maximum therapeutic effect. With some exceptions, the residents do not remain in static groups. The constant reshuffling of group members serves the dual purpose of enabling sessions to deal with a variety of interpersonal and organizational problems and preventing the establishment of "contracts" between residents. A contract is considered the conscious agreement between two residents not to expose one another's emotional weaknesses. Strong emphasis is placed on this aspect of the synanon. There is no confidential information as far as the organization

is concerned. Personal information is passed from one session to the next so that verbalized desire to change behavior is constantly evaluated by member observation of personal behavior both in and outside the group. The focus of behavior change as a result of real insight grows out of the resident's awareness of the many pseudo-psychological games which the addicts have learned to play as a result of contact with professional therapists in institutions of narcotic rehabilitation. Yablonsky (1965) draws the following distinctions between the synanon and standard group therapy:

1. The leader is not a professional therapist, but rather an older member of the organization with whom there can be an identification in terms of past common drug experiences.
2. The leader can, and is expected to shift roles from leader to patient by taking his turn at "copping" to problems.
3. Peer status between leader and group members is a strongly sanctioned aspect of both the encounter group and interpersonal relationship outside the group.
4. The "no man is an island" concept is strongly adhered to. Emphasis is constantly placed on each member's responsibility for the behavior and personal growth of other members.
5. The content of the synanon is made up of events in the immediate environment. The basic assumption underlying the synanon is that in recognition of the deep characterological problems of the residents, complete honesty and intensive evaluation of behavior and behavior change, is the only way that the resident can grow sufficiently to remain free

of drug use. The success of the approach in preventing return to drug use has been amply demonstrated since the Foundation's inception.

The "square game" (the synanon group which contains both residents and non-residents) has been a relatively new innovation. It basically follows the resident synanon in orientation except that leadership in each session is achieved rather than prescribed. For the Foundation, the square provides an excellent opportunity for the resident population to interact with non-addict persons coming from the outside community. Through the use of non-addict persons, additional learning can take place as to the ways in which "normals" can cope adequately or inadequately with problems without resorting to the use of drugs. Endore (1967) describes the game for the non-addict as belonging to no school of psychotherapy. He likens it to a sport--a game which one plays similar to playing tennis or chess, where one is continually trying to improve his technique, and as a result of the competition, becomes close in terms of intimacy and respect for his competitors. The unique aspect of the game is that the content consists of the personal experience of the game players. Endore describes the result of the game (in which each time the participant submits his self image to attack)

as helping the game player to develop a self image which is more flexible--one which through flexibility, is toughened by recognition of areas of weakness which are common to all.

The Marathon, as developed by Bach and Gibbs, represents a radical departure from the established philosophy associated with professionally lead group therapy. In the Marathon, the emphasis is on time (as a fatigue producing factor) and group pressure, rather than professional therapeutic intervention to facilitate insight and behavioral change. Bach (1966) holds that the Marathon with its' extreme pressures and deemphasis on therapist-patient role, eliminates the time wasting games often played by patients in group therapy. The focus on confrontation rather than gentle interpretations, encourages participants to interact using the personal resources that are realistically required in the outside competitive world. One of the major goals of the Marathon is to elicit decisions to change which are revised in followup sessions. A condition of participation is the acceptance of the following rules:

1. Each Marathon group must stay together for the 24-36 hour period. No sub-grouping is permitted.

2. No alcohol or drugs are permitted and all participants must remain within sight and sound of the group proceedings.
3. The leader is bound by the same rules as the participants.
4. There are no limits placed on what is said or the use of any type of language. Violence or threats of violence are prohibited.
5. Professional therapeutic techniques are severely limited.
6. Leveling rather than tact is emphasized.
7. Focus is on how one acts in the group rather than past history. Each participant is expected to submit himself to at least one turn at disclosure during the period.
8. The philosophy is that as one is in the Marathon group, so is he outside (particularly when long hours tend to weaken social facades).
9. Recognition of growth changes is encouraged.
10. While no information is sacred in the Marathon, it is considered confidential with regard to revelation outside the group.

One of the unique distinctions which the synanon and Marathon methods have from conventional group psychotherapy and T-Groups is the prior commitment of participants to act in accordance with the rules for self disclosure behavior. This distinction suggests acceptance of the fact that the individual, regardless of level of emotional difficulty, can only attain significant behavioral change by recognizing his own maladaptive methods of functioning and deciding to change without the mainstay of the supportive

intervention of the leader. The existential elements of the Marathon approach are made explicit in Bach's (1966) following analysis:

All this becoming transparent, leveling exposure to influence, pressure, attempting changes and attempting new behavior, we believe, is a natural Gestalt, i.e., a result of learning experiences which should not be broken up into bits and pieces but should occur as a whole, mediating a significant turning point, a big step toward becoming what one can be! (p. 995)

Closely related to these two methods is the Non-group. The Non-group is described by Byrd (1967) as a social situation rather than a group in the classical sense. It grew out of observation in T-Group laboratories that trainees tended to depend on the trainer for initiative in trying new means of behavior in the group. In the Non-group, the emphasis is on autonomy and personal initiative. The Non-group has no rules imposed and no rules as to how interaction should take place. There are no prescribed goals, group production is taken for granted. Cliques may form and subgroupings develop. The emphasis is on each individual risking attempts at innovation and spontaneity in behavior in spite of fears of possible catastrophic consequences. It is suggested that because the Non-group is free to be non-productive, heightened productivity is obtained when the group finally finds a common grove, without emphasis on the

relationship, and a strain on the part of the leader to interpret verbal exchanges that lack clarity or authenticity. The group's reaction, in terms of attention versus confusion or boredom is considered a real test of the value of the encounter. The leader is committed to interacting with the group in terms of continuing experimentation with new ways of personally behaving. This method further illustrated the increased emphasis on the person as a totality, existing, emerging and receding in the group process.

The group approach used by Frederick Pearls, the Gestalt Workshop, although having many philosophical commonalities, differs radically in structure from the deemphasis of leader role previously discussed. Pearls (1967) takes the position that individual therapy is obsolete. Pearls feels that the group is effective only if the encounter between individual and therapist are effective and impressive. In essence, he uses the group as an audience for his interactions with the patient. While he encourages leveling type of feedback from the group member, he rejects either therapist or group member interpretations of behavior. In his assumption that the key to behavior change is not focused in insight as to the behavior but in the decision to risk change in the light of the "catastrophic expectations."

Pearls sees the group as a main factor in assisting the patient in transcending the point of risk. He states:

Now in the group situation something happens that is not possible in the private interview. To the whole group it is obvious that the person in distress does not see the obvious, does not see the way out of the impasse, does not see (for instance) that his whole misery is purely an imagined one. In the face of this collective conviction, he cannot use his usual phobic way of disowning the therapist when he cannot manipulate him. Somehow the trust in the collective seems to be greater than the trust in the therapist in spite of the so-called transference confidence. In the safe emergency of the therapeutic situation he discovers that the world does not fall to pieces if he gets angry, sexy, joyous or mournful. Group support for his self-esteem, the appreciation of his achievements toward authenticity and greater liveliness, also are not to be underestimated (p. 13).

The involvement of the existential approach has been referred to in preceding sections of this paper. Search of the literature on groups has yielded no clear existential group method per se. May (1967) indicates that existentialism is more an attitude and philosophy than a system of therapy. Thomas (1968) indicates that existentialism is an orientation rather than a system, and suggests several characteristics. He suggests that in order for growth to occur, emphasis must be placed on the patient's perceiving his needs manifested from moment to moment. The

increased internal awareness of each experience and, "the willingness to use one's own experience as the final authority for truth," (p. 228) is considered prime. Issue is taken with reductionistic theory as a means of explaining behavior, while the existential approach, that of therapeutic intervention with as few preconceived formulations as possible, is encouraged. Thomas holds that the existential approach in therapy does not offer a means of resolution to anxiety, fear and suffering, but, rather, by utilizing realistic self-appraisal of experience, offers a system of personal orientation which permits the individual to distinguish between unreal fears and those based in reality. He suggests that the personal life is enriched by more fully experiencing both the highs and lows of one's life. Pearls (1951) views openness to experience in Gestalt terms, in the sense of expanding one's contact boundaries with the environment, and thereby increasing the realistic flexibility of the figure ground. Pearls suggests that most persons conditioned to society to respond in stereotyped "ought" ways, lose their ability to monitor and evaluate their real feelings.

Acceptance of the orientation that "man is his choices," definitely influences the approach of the therapist's use of interpretation versus

encouraging awareness of one's own experience, focus on the "hows" of behavior rather than the "whys" of behavior.

Although it is clear that many of the boundaries of the various approaches have tended to become fuzzy, with the existential influence as the main common factor, the synanon method seems to show great promise as a model for individual problem solving. As a problem solving modality, the synanon clearly has elements in common with other forms. It distinguishes itself in application, in the areas of the "no man is an island" idea, peer status of leader and member, the content materials being taken from the immediate environment and the emphasis on concrete illustration in terms of similar leader-member experience.

Maslow (1967), in analyzing the synanon and outside applications, indicates that it might be better to have outside groups led by persons "wise in experience rather than by lecture," persons who have been through the mill of experience and as a result, know how to talk to others in the same circumstances. Utilization of immediate experience from the environment as content for the encounter group acts to better illustrate in practical terms, the meaningful though abstract concepts of humanistic existential

forces as they are emerging in the modern forms of group encounter.

It would be negligent at this point not to mention the influence of the Rogerian Approach to psychotherapy on group therapy. Rogers (1951) reviews studies where group therapy has been carried on effectively, operating on the same fundamental hypotheses as in individual counseling. Work has been done with maladjusted adults, students who have problems, interracial groups, with children and with parents. Out of these experiences with group therapy came a desire to conduct college classes in a client-centered, or more appropriately, a student-centered fashion. Some of the most significant learnings have come from the resounding failures and the glowing successes of the attempts to adapt the principles and procedures of successful psychotherapy to education.

These are the major fields in which the implications of client-centered therapy have been worked out. But equally significant contributions have come from other attempts, less fully explored. Interesting experiences in using a client-centered approach in group situations of friction and poor morale convinced Rogers that this approach had a contribution to make to industrial, military and

other groups.

Hobbs (1951) discusses the similarities and differences between client-centered and group-centered therapy. He states that a characteristic of individual therapy that one would not expect to find in group therapy is the feeling of direction and singleness of purpose, but in both content and feeling, groups grow to a remarkable cohesiveness that parallels the unity evident in individual therapy. Perhaps more important than similarity of content is the unity that comes from a sharing of feelings. Group therapy has identifiable characteristics not found in the counseling relationship when only two persons are involved. One of the most important of these distinctive characteristics lies in the fact that the group situation brings into focus the adequacy of interpersonal relationships and provides an immediate opportunity for discovering new and more satisfying ways of relating to people.

Cudney and Lowe (1970, 1971) have developed an approach to group counseling which does include direction and singleness of purpose. Cudney's and Lowe's approach combines teaching, individual counseling and small group counseling as a treatment modality. There are some peculiar aspects of the Self-Defeating Behavior Workshop, as Cudney's and

Lowe's approach is known, which distinguishes it from other approaches discussed thus far. They are: teaching with no interaction, no focus on the past, highly structured with strong leader control, focus on only one behavior, does not permit any personal information about people to be injected into the group, only the individual knows what behavior he is trying to change, and a most important point which is emphasized is that focus is placed on how a person keeps a problem rather than how a person gets rid of a problem.

Much emphasis is placed upon interaction of group members with each other in most group experiences. The Self-Defeating Behavior approach cautions against interaction of group members. Cudney and Lowe believe that interaction gets in the way of the individual's ability to deal effectively with his own problem. That is why interaction is discouraged. The fact that only one problem is worked on gives direction and a singleness of purpose to the individual which is similar to individual therapy.

The Self-Defeating Behavior Workshop developed by Cudney and Lowe is still in experimental stages. Promising results have been obtained with students and adults in identifying and solving individual problems. Further experimentation with this approach will

determine the effects it will have on group counseling in the future.

Selected Research on Human Relations Groups

Research in human relations has taken many forms, mostly, the research has centered on the T-Group. T-Group members, because of self selection, are likely to be homogeneous to begin with in regard to intelligence, job competency and emotional stability. The studies which have been conducted thus far have focused on what might be called "affective orientation" or preferences for expressing certain kinds of affect or functioning in certain cognitive-emotional interpersonal settings (Bradford, 1967).

In research at the University of Colorado, Gibb and Gorman (1954) studied the effects of "induced polarization" on defensive behavior and perceptual accuracy. Gradolph (1958) compared the behavior of three kinds of groups, composed on the basis of responses to a sentence completion test. Taken together, these studies suggest that group composition (based on certain personality variables) is a potent factor which finds rather direct expression in the character of group interaction. These studies

further suggest that group interaction is dependent upon possession of certain personality traits by individual members of the group. A question arises as to which personality variables are most relevant to group functioning.

Watson (1952, 1953) conducted a major study on the relationship of basic personality organization and social behavior, using as subjects 400 participants from the 1950 through 1954 summer labs at Bethel, Maine. In general, it was found possible to relate personality organization to behavior in a T-Group if certain "bridging" inferences were made about the general implications of these orientations for behavior. Blake and Mouton (1965) also studied the relationship between personality and behavior in a group situation. They selected two specific personality factors, language-skill and ascendancy-submission, and studied their relation to a wide variety of behavior and attitudes. No significant relationships were found between attitudes or behaviors regarding the specific personality factors. Bennis (1957) studied a twelve member T-Group conducted at Boston University in an attempt to predict group behavior from a variety of personality measures. No predictions could be made on the basis of responses on any of the personality measures

employed in this study. These three studies produced rather mixed results. In no case could all of the personality characteristics under study be shown to be related to all the behavioral measures.

In a study conducted by Spielberger and Weitz (1962) it was found that although no single personality measure was related to attendance at counseling sessions by college freshmen, it was still possible that the high attenders were characterized by a personality syndrome which determined their regular attendance at counseling sessions as well as their improvement in academic performance. This study, like all the others thus far mentioned suggests trends but offers no significant evidence that small group counseling effects personality changes in individuals. The following studies do suggest some relationship between group counseling and personality change.

Sternberg (1962) studied the relationship between sensitivity to the self-perception of others as a function of frequency of interpersonal contact and certain personality variables. Significant levels were obtained which indicated that growth of empathy will tend to be related to some function of interpersonal contact and that such growth will vary positively with time. This study suggests that time is an important factor in determining the effects of

group counseling on individual change.

Guinan and Foulds (1970) studied the effects of the marathon on personal growth. High post-test scores on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) suggested that the marathon was a significant force in facilitating personal growth. High post-test scores were obtained on all twelve of the POI scales and significant levels were obtained on seven of the twelve scales. This study also suggests that time and intensity are determinants of whether significant levels will be reached or not.

Davis (1967) investigated the sensitivity of selected instruments to personality changes produced by group counseling. The purpose of this study was to identify the test and or factors which were sensitive to change in selected measures of personality as the result of short-term group counseling. Significant differences were not found between means of students ranked by their counselors as showing the most and least personality changes. However, certain trends were observed. The variables found to be sensitive to personality changes generally indicated that the subjects became more interested in the materialistic things in life, accepted more responsibility for their actions, became more optimistic, cheerful and became less neurotic and

more extroverted. Of all the research reviewed, the study by Davis was the most related to the present study. The Davis' study only evaluated attitudes; however, the present study measures both attitudes and behavior of participants.

The related research presented in this section produced rather mixed results. In most instances, it was pointed out that individual behavior could not be predicted, in terms of certain personality variables, as a result of group counseling in the form of the T-Group. Other studies suggested trends toward more empathy or feeling for others, less neurotic and more extroverted behaviors in participants. Not much has been done in the area of the impact of the T-Group on individual learning and change. Research about T-Groups suggests a large checkerboard, incompletely and unevenly filled in. Some areas show a considerable concentration of work as has been discussed. Others are nearly empty. In some areas, the questions have been answered. In others, the questions are clear, but methodology or relevant theory is not yet fully developed. Most of the focus on human relations training has been geared toward bringing about change in individuals and groups and the degree to which this change has been accomplished was measured. The present research

looks at what happens to individuals as a result of having participated in human relations groups and the degree of effectiveness of certain human relations models in bringing about changes in attitudes and behavior.

Summary

In Chapter Two, several different human relations models were discussed and their historical development traced. Researches related to independent-dependent variable relationships were reported.

A review of the literature seems to support the writer's contention that the boundaries of the various approaches to human relations training are not clearly defined. Polarization seems to have been generated into two major camps; those who believe that in-depth insights are necessary before an individual can experience change and those who take the broader position that personal growth results from any interpersonal contact.

Most writers would agree that the use of the group process to bring about individual and organizational change was influenced by the development of the T - (training) Group which had its' origin in Connecticut in 1946. The controversy today does not center on the goodness or badness of group processes

but on the application of these processes. The T-Group, the encounter group, the marathon, the synanon, the non-group and the gestalt group are all examples of different kinds of group processes. No judgment has been placed upon their value in this chapter. An attempt has been made to clarify what each process entails.

The review of selected research in human relations produced rather mixed results. Some studies (Gradolph, 1958; Sternberg, 1962; Davis, 1967) suggest that group interaction is directly related to some personality variables while others (Bennis, 1967; Blake and Mouton, 1956) suggest that group interaction and behavior are not related to personality traits. Only one of these studies (Davis, 1967) was directly related to the present research. Though no significant levels were obtained, certain trends were observed. One trend was that individuals become more extroverted as a result of short term group counseling and less neurotic.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The design and methodology used in the study are reported below under five headings: (1) Review of the Problem, (2) The Sample, (3) Instrumentation and Variables, (4) Procedures and (5) Data Analysis.

Review of the Problem

The cleavage in technique and emphasis and the lack of hard data regarding the use of affective techniques to obtain educational objectives has generated some concern among educators about the value of such techniques. Serious questions are being raised as to the appropriateness of selected techniques focused on interpersonal dynamics and physical contact. This study was designed to answer one of these questions: Does group process need to be interpersonally or intrapersonally oriented in order to reach desired objectives?

The Sample

The sample for the study was selected from sophomore students enrolled in human growth and development and race and culture classes at Western

Michigan University during the Fall Term of 1970. Participation in the study was on a volunteer basis. The number of students participating was forty-eight. These students were selected from a group of sixty volunteers and attention was given to selecting those students who were at different points on the extroversion-introversion continuum. Because the number of volunteers was limited, equal numbers could not be obtained in each category of high, medium and low extroversion. Attention was given to this problem however, and in each group all categories were represented. The fact that the number of neurotics was limited to only 2 per cent of the total sample prevented placement of neurotics into each group. Most of the participants were in the middle.

Instrumentation and Variables

In Chapter One, the variables in this study were referred to briefly. They are discussed in more detail below.

Independent Variable

The independent variable in this study was Human Relations Training of which there were three levels: impersonal, personal and observational.

Theoretical definitions for these levels were given in Chapter One. Operational definitions will be given later in this chapter.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in this study were changes in attitudes and behavior regarding extroversion and neuroticism. Operational definitions for these variables were based on scores obtained on the Eysenck Personality Inventory, the Maudsley Personality Inventory, and a Behavioral Observation Scale developed by the writer. These tests and the behavioral scale measure the extent to which participants exhibit extroverted or neurotic attitudes and behavior. Personality, as it relates to the dependent variables, is discussed further.

An individual's personality is his unique pattern of traits. A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. Guilford (1959) lists three basic types of traits: somatic, motivational and aptitude. Somatic traits are thought of as those relating to structure or feature, such as heart rate, basal metabolic rate and body temperature. Three kinds of motivational traits are distinguished, all of which pertain to things we strive to do or

obtain. Needs are perennial desires for certain conditions, such as being noticed. Interests are longstanding desires to indulge in certain kinds of activities. Attitudes are distinguished by the fact that some social objects or policies are involved, as seen in attitudes toward the income tax, birth control, the Chinese, and so on. Aptitudes pertain to abilities to perform. Temperament is also defined as a trait; examples are, being confident, being cheerful or being impulsive.

In this study, changes in attitudes toward personality traits were measured by testing the subject's attitudes regarding the motivational and temperamental traits of extroversion and neuroticism. The Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories were used for this purpose. Examples of these tests are listed under Appendix A. The Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories are discussed further below.

Changes in behavior were measured by recording on a five point behavioral scale of the Likert type an individual's actions as they occurred in the group. These actions were in reference to extroverted and neurotic behaviors only. An example of the instrument is listed under Appendix B.

The Maudsley and Eysenck Personality Inventories

Both the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories, according to Eysenck and Eysenck (1969), measure the same traits. In fact the Eysenck Personality Inventory can be thought of as just another form of the Maudsley Personality Inventory. They were both used because only the Maudsley Personality Inventory has norms set in the United States and the Eysenck Personality Inventory is supposed to be an improved form. Both of these instruments measure the unitary traits of extroversion and neuroticism. Questions on these tests measure specific traits which are indicators of extroverted-introverted and neurotic-nonneurotic types. The specific factors measured by these instruments are listed below (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1968, p. 63).

Impulsiveness--TMP

Given to acting on impulse.

Jocular--J

Full of fun and jokes a lot.

Liveliness--L

Full of vigor, spirit, cheerful, keen,
exciting and gay.

Sociability--SOC

Likes social activity and contacts. Has

social poise and is not shy, bashful or
seclusive.

The above factors are indicators of extroverted
types. Those below are indicators of neurotic types.

Inferiority Feelings versus Confidence--INF vs CON

Feels accepted by others, confident and
adequate, satisfied with his lot. Not self
centered.

Sensitivity--SENS

Easily offended, touchy.

Irritability--IRR

Easily excitable or provoked.

Mood Swings

Changing moods, gloomy, sulken then gay
and cheerful.

Nervousness versus Calmness--N vs C

Calm and relaxed, not restless, not easily
fatigued or irritated, can concentrate on
matter at hand.

Sleeplessness--SL

Dull, drowsy, idle.

In the foregoing section, the independent and
dependent variables were identified and discussed.
Instrumentation related to these variables were
also elaborated on in terms of the specific factors
which they measure. Reliability and validity of these

instruments are discussed below.

Reliability and Validity of the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories.--In order to determine if

results relating to attitudes toward extroversion and neuroticism were consistent, alternate forms of the Eysenck Inventory were used. Alternate forms of the Maudsley were not available. The pre-test scores of the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories were correlated with each other to see if they were indeed measuring extroversion and neuroticism and doing it consistently. The raw scores were subjected to the Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation Statistical Test. The coefficient of correlation between the Eysenck and Maudsley Inventories on extroversion for Experiment A was .88 and for Experiment B, .74. The coefficient between the Eysenck and Maudsley Inventories on neuroticism for Experiment A was .81 and for B, .91. Raw scores used for computing these coefficients indicate that the instruments were reliable.

In a study conducted by Eysenck and Eysenck in 1967, the factor loading for the extroversion items was .97 and for the neuroticism items .71. This factor analysis was performed on the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories. Certain commonalities and clustering around these two factors were observed.

These results indicate that items on the tests are related to extroversion and neuroticism exclusively. From these results, the writer believed that scores obtained by using these instruments were valid.

The above information is in reference to the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories which indicate attitudes toward the selected variables. The behaviors of participants regarding extroversion and neuroticism were measured on a Behavioral Observation Scale developed by the writer.

The Behavioral Observation Scale

The Behavioral Observation Scale, as has been described previously, was constructed on a five point continuum. The traits of extroversion and neuroticism were given a value of five while introversion and non-neuroticism were given the value of one. An example of this instrument may be viewed in Appendix B.

Three persons were trained in the use of the behavioral scale prior to the study. These raters were used as observers of individual behavior in the groups during the collection of the base line data on the behavior of each person. For two consecutive meetings, the raters observed "basic encounter groups" which were ongoing at the Counseling Center at

Western Michigan University. The groups were observed for a period of one hour each time. An hour was allotted during the study for meetings.

Reliability coefficients were obtained for the Behavioral Observation Scale by computing a Spearman Rank Difference Coefficient of Correlation between each pair of raters. The writer believes that the coefficients obtained were well within acceptable levels to establish inter-rater reliability for the Behavioral Observation Scale. Below in Table 1, the coefficients for each pair of raters on both extroversion and neuroticism are displayed.

TABLE 1
SPEARMAN RANK DIFFERENCE CORRELATION OF
COEFFICIENTS FOR THE BEHAVIORAL SCALE

Raters	Coefficient of Correlation	
	Extroversion	Neuroticism
1&2	.922	.829
1&3	.87	.7
2&3	.81	.7

Procedures

The participants in the study were pre-tested on the Maudsley and Eysenck Personality Inventories

and then placed into eight groups of six people each. The eight experimental groups were further divided into two major aggregations of four groups each which hereafter are referred to as Experiment A and B. All procedures mentioned in this section apply to Experiments A and B. The reason for conducting duplicate experiments was to see if findings would be consistent in both. If they were, the validity of the findings would be enhanced.

A different counselor was assigned to conduct each experiment. These counselors met with each of the experimental groups in their particular section. This procedure was followed to see if the difference in counselors (trainers) would have any effects on the participant's attitudes and behaviors regarding extroversion and neuroticism. A paradigm is presented on the next page indicating the design of the study.

The design depicts the three main phases of the experimental design. The first phase was divided into five one hour sessions per group which took place during a two and one-half week period. The purpose of this first phase was to gather base line behavioral data relating to extroversion and neuroticism on each individual. This constituted a behavioral pre-test. Raters observed each

EXPERIMENT A

<u>Pre-test</u>		<u>Post-test</u>
Attitudes		Attitudes
Obtain Base Rate	Randomize Treatments	Observed Behavior
Observed Behavior	Different Groups	Different Groups
<hr/>		
Group	Group	Group
1. Six people	Social Model	Six people
2. Six people	Basic Encounter	Six people
3. Six people	Didactic Group	Six people
4. Six people	Control Group	Six People
<hr/>		
Time 2½ weeks. 5 one-hour sessions per group.	Time 4 weeks, 8 one-hour sessions per group.	Time 2½ weeks. 5 one-hour sessions per group.
<hr/>		

individual and rated that person on the behavioral scale mentioned earlier. Behavioral norms were obtained for each individual on the extroversion and neuroticism continua. The scores used were averages of the scores obtained at each of four observation periods during phase one.

Each group was given a similar topic to discuss during the first phase. These topics were changed for each session. The topics were general but were chosen for their current and controversial nature. Counselors were present during these sessions but did not attempt a leadership role. They acted only as participants in the discussion.

During the second phase, the participants were arranged into four treatment groups in each experiment. These treatment groups were arranged so that each was an entirely different group. This was done to insure that the individuals would not become sensitized to each other as a result of meeting together during phase one. The treatment groups were: (1) Social Modeling, (2) Basic Encounter, (3) Didactic and (4) Control. The entire procedure was duplicated in Experiment B. A description of what each group did follows.

The Social Modeling Groups observed the Basic Encounter Groups through a one-way mirror without

their knowledge. These groups were instructed not to discuss these sessions with members of other groups. The purpose of the Social Modeling Group was to expose the participants indirectly to a basic encounter situation in a non-threatening climate to see if there would be any significant change in their attitudes or behavior regarding extroversion and neuroticism. After each session, the trainers met with this group to answer any questions and to clarify the meanings of trainer intervention in the Basic Encounter Groups. During these sessions, the members of the Social Modeling Groups were free to discuss among themselves their perceptions of what was taking place in the Basic Encounter Groups.

The Basic Encounter Groups met for eight one hour sessions. Instructions were given to trainers (counselors) regarding the technique to be employed in these groups. In this type of group, the subjects are encouraged through interpersonal and intrapersonal interaction to explore in some depth their feelings and emotions. An example of the instructions is listed in Appendix C.

The Didactic Groups were exposed to some specific information in the form of eight prepared lectures relating to extroversion and neuroticism. The concept of self-defeating behaviors was presented to these

groups. Many self-defeating behaviors relate to extroversion and neuroticism. The participants were instructed to determine if they possessed extroverted or neurotic behaviors and relate them to the self-defeating behavior concept. The trainers lectured to the Didactic Groups for one-half hour and encouraged discussion on the topics during the remaining half of the session. The trainers met not only with the Didactic Groups but with all groups as was mentioned earlier. Examples of the lectures are listed in Appendix D.

The Control Groups continued to discuss current topics as they did in Phase One. No attempt was made to influence their attitudes or behaviors regarding extroversion and neuroticism.

Phase Three was identical to Phase One. Post treatment attitudinal and behavioral data were collected on each individual in the same manner that the base line data were. Raters observed each individual in each group and scored that person on the behavioral scale. Averages were again computed on the four observations of each individual. This constituted a behavioral post-test. The participants were also given an alternate form of the Eysenck Personality Inventory and the same form of the Maudsley Personality Inventory. Post-test attitudinal data were collected

in this manner.

During Phase Two, each of the Basic Encounter and Didactic sessions were taped. This procedure was followed to insure that the Didactic Groups were indeed cognitive and impersonal and that the Basic Encounter Groups were affective and interpersonal in nature. After the experiments were concluded, the tapes were monitored by three trained counselors from the Counseling Department at Western Michigan University. Each counselor possessed at least an M.A. Degree in counseling. The raters monitored the tapes independently of each other. They therefore listened to different sections of the tapes chosen randomly. The process was carried out to insure that the independent variable had been manipulated. The writer wished to show that the results obtained were not independent of the treatments which the Basic Encounter and Didactic Groups received. Pearson Product Moment Coefficients of Correlations were computed on the scores obtained on a rating scale developed by the writer. These coefficients were obtained to establish inter-rater reliability for that rating scale. An adjusted t -ratio was performed on the results between Experiments A and B to test the validity of the treatments. The

coefficients are listed for each pair of raters in Table 2 and the t-ratio in Table 3.

TABLE 2
COEFFICIENTS SHOWING AGREEMENT
OF RATERS OF TAPES

Raters	Correlations
1&2	.960
1&3	.987
2&3	.970

Table 2 depicts the extent that the three raters agreed with each other. The coefficients of correlation between each pair of raters were high enough to establish inter-rater reliability.

TABLE 3
T-TEST RESULTS BETWEEN BASIC
ENCOUNTER AND DIDACTIC GROUPS

T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Level of p
7.581	10	.001

It is noted in Table 3 that the level of p obtained is significant beyond the .001 level. Validity was

established in that the Basic Encounter Groups were in fact different in the desired manner from the Didactic Groups. The level of p obtained supports the writer's contention that the independent variable was in fact manipulated. Rater's scores and an example of the Rating Scale are listed in Appendix E.

Data Analysis

Several statistical models were used for determining the nature and extent of relationships between independent and dependent variables. Discussion of these models follows. A one way analysis of variance model was the most commonly used model in this investigation. The model was particularly appropriate since many of the hypotheses involved three or more discrete levels of an independent variables and one dependent variable. Differences in means between levels were reported in the form of F -ratios. Further analysis determined adjusted t -ratios for the differences in means between various combinations of cells. The probability of observing these differences by chance was reported as p levels.

A two way analysis of variance model was used to determine similar information in instances where the hypotheses involved determining the effect and interaction of two independent variables upon one

dependent variable. In this study, this model was used to determine the effects that the use of different trainers had upon the attitudes and behaviors of participants toward the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism.

Product Moment and Spearman Rank Difference Correlation of Coefficients were selected as the most appropriate for analyzing relationships involving reciprocity in ratings between raters.

An adjusted t-ratio was used for hypotheses involving only two discrete levels of an independent variable. Results were reported as a t-ratio and level of confidence *p*.

Chapter Three has reviewed the problem and described the procedures used in the study. Independent and dependent variables were identified and discussed in relation to instrumentation. The sample and population were delineated and a section on data analysis concluded the chapter.

In Chapter Four, data are presented relevant to the selected independent-dependent variable relationships. Research findings are reported and discussed.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter presents statistical evidence pertaining to the null hypotheses listed in Chapter One. The data presented represent results obtained in Experiments A and B as they relate to independent and dependent variable relationships.

Review of the Problem

The study was designed to answer two major questions: (1) Does human relations training effect a change in an individual's attitude or behavior in regard to the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism? and (2) Is one type of group process in human relations training more effective than others in bringing about changes in attitudes and behaviors regarding the selected personality variables?

In addition to the above questions, hypotheses were developed to test the congruence of participant's attitudes and behaviors and to test the effects of the use of two different counselors on participant's attitudes and behaviors to see if this was a significant intervening variable.

Reporting of Results

Findings were reported in this chapter in relation to the null hypotheses stated. Hypotheses were rejected or not rejected on the basis of consistency of results both within and across experiments. That is, in order for a finding or difference to be judged as significant, it was necessary that results be consistent on both the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories in Experiments A and B in regard to attitudes and consistent on the Behavioral Observation Scale for Experiments A and B in regard to behavior.

Traditionally, investigators have stated the level of significance at which the null hypothesis would be rejected before they conducted the study. Either the .05 or .01 levels of probability were selected. Recently, however, a trend in behavioral science research has been to conduct the study, analyze the results and then report the level at which the null hypothesis can be rejected. The trend seems to be due, at least in part, to the realization that the .05 and .01 levels are nothing more than a matter of convention and have little logical or scientific basis (Winer, 1962). The emphasis is more on the power of the test than on the possibility of committing a Type I error. When Type I and Type II errors are of approximately equal

importance, then .20 and .30 levels of significance may be more appropriate than .05 and .01 levels (Winer, 1962). For these reasons, all p levels will be reported in the following sections of this chapter. The results of the study are presented by first stating the null hypothesis and then reporting the statistical findings. The order of the presentation of data will follow that of the two questions listed above.

Question One

Does human relations training effect a change in an individual's attitude or behavior in regard to the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism?

Table 4 presents data related to the performance of participants in the Didactic Group regarding their attitudes toward extroversion. The data are presented in relations to H_{O_1} stated below.

H_{O_1} An impersonal experience in human relations will not effect a change in an individual's attitude toward extroversion.

TABLE 4
ATTITUDES OF DIDACTIC GROUP
TOWARD EXTROVERSION
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Eysenck	Didactic	14.3	13.2	.36	.4	15.3	16.5	.27	.4
	Control	11.8	15.7	1.60	.1	14.0	17.0	.75	.25
Maudsley	Didactic	16.0	16.3	.10	.5	15.5	16.7	.25	.5
	Control	13.8	12.5	.74	.25	17.7	17.5	.03	.5

The mean scores on the Eysenck and Maudsley Inventories suggest a slight increase in extroverted attitudes except for Experiment A on the Eysenck Scale. That is, results were not consistent in both experiments and on both personality scales for the Didactic Group. The same results were observed in the Control Group. The differences in mean scores between pre and post test give no reason to believe that the Didactic Group treatment had any significant affect on attitudes toward extroversion. The t-ratio and level of p obtained suggest that the observed results were probably due to chance. Null hypothesis H_0_1 was not rejected. When compared to the Control Group, the amount of change in

the Didactic Group was negligible. In each instance, the Control Group exhibited more or as much change.

The data in Table 5 represent the attitudes of participants toward neuroticism

HO₂ An impersonal experience in human relations will not effect a change in an individual's attitude toward neuroticism.

TABLE 5
ATTITUDES OF DIDACTIC GROUP
TOWARD NEUROTICISM
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Eysenck	Didactic	11.7	12.6	.16	.5	10.1	11.0	.37	.4
	Control	6.8	9.5	.43	.4	8.7	11.8	.89	.25
Maudsley	Didactic	15.0	16.3	.51	.4	14.0	12.0	.46	.4
	Control	8.7	10.0	.43	.4	12.3	13.2	.15	.5

Mean scores on the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories are consistent except for Experiment B on the Maudsley. The scores tend to suggest a slight increase in neurotic attitudes. The Control Group exhibited as much change in the same direction as the Didactic Group. There is no reason to believe that there

is a relationship between didactic treatments and attitudes toward neuroticism as indicated by the levels of p obtained. H_{02} was not rejected.

Table 6 displays data related to null hypothesis H_{03} .

H_{03} An impersonal experience in human relations will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding extroversion.

TABLE 6
THE EFFECTS OF DIDACTIC GROUPING
ON EXTROVERTED BEHAVIOR
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Behavior Observa- tion	Didactic	3.5	1.4	3.90	,005	3.3	2.1	.97	.25
	Control	2.6	2.2	.26	>.5	2.9	2.7	.22	>.5

The data in Table 6 indicate rather mixed results. The amount of extroverted behavior decreased in both experiments but B did not experience as much change as A. When compared to the Control Group, it may be noted that there was more change in each instance in

the Didactic Group. Though the Didactic Group changed in the same direction in both experiments, there was some difference between post-test means. Since results were not consistent in both experiments, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

The data in Table 7 are related to null hypothesis

H_{04} .

H_{04} An impersonal experience in human relations will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding neuroticism.

TABLE 7
THE EFFECTS OF DIDACTIC GROUPING
ON NEUROTIC BEHAVIOR
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Behavior Observa- tion	Didactic	3.8	2.6	1.20	.1	2.3	1.4	2.90	.025
	Control	2.6	2.1	.29	.4	1.8	1.6	.56	.4

Results exhibited in Table 7 indicate a decrease in neurotic behavior for both experiments though not to the same degree. The differences in change as

reflected by pre and post-test means give little reason to believe that any relationship exists. The null hypothesis was not rejected because results were not consistent for both experiments. When compared to the Control Group, however, the Didactic Group changed more in their behavior regarding neuroticism.

The scores in Table 8 relate to the attitudes of participants in the Basic Encounter Group in regard to extroversion.

H₀₅ Exposure to human relations training in the form of the Basic Encounter Group will effect no change in an individual's attitude toward extroversion.

TABLE 8
ATTITUDES OF THE BASIC ENCOUNTER GROUP
TOWARD EXTROVERSION
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Eysenck	Basic Encounter	16.2	18.7	.50	.4	13.2	13.7	.13	>.5
	Control	11.8	15.7	1.6	.1	14.0	17.0	.76	.25
Maudsley	Basic Encounter	18.5	19.3	.47	.4	12.5	13.0	.07	>.5
	Control	13.8	12.5	.74	.25	17.7	17.5	.03	>.5

The mean scores displayed in Table 8 suggest a trend toward an increase in attitudes toward extroversion. The scores were consistent for the Basic Encounter Group in both experiments in the same direction. There is no reason to believe, however, that any relationship exists between this treatment and the dependent variable. The p levels observed indicate that any change which took place could have happened by chance about half the time if the null hypothesis is true. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

The data in Table 9 are related to the following null hypothesis.

HO₆ Exposure to human relations training in the form of the Basic Encounter Group will effect no change in an individual's attitude toward neuroticism.

TABLE 9
ATTITUDES OF BASIC ENCOUNTER GROUP
TOWARD NEUROTICISM
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Eysenck	Basic Encounter	9.6	9.7	.02	>.5	11.5	10.6	.12	>.5
	Control	6.8	9.5	.43	.4	8.7	11.8	.89	.25
Maudsley	Basic Encounter	11.6	11.8	.26	.4	14.1	16.3	.32	.4
	Control	8.7	10.0	.43	.4	12.3	13.2	.15	.5

The data in Table 9 indicate that attitudes toward neuroticism were in the middle range. There was a slight increase in attitudes as reflected by post-test scores on the Maudsley Scale and also on the Eysenck Scale except for Experiment B where a slight decrease was observed.

When compared to the Control Group, the Basic Encounter showed about the same amount of change. Results were fairly consistent on both instruments in the same direction as reflected by means and p levels. There is no reason to believe that the change which took place was due to the experimental treatment. The p levels were very high which suggest that the observed changes were probably due to chance.

Table 10 is related to null hypothesis seven which is stated below.

HO₇ A personal experience in human relations will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding extroversion.

The results in Table 10 suggest very little change in the behavior of participants regarding extroversion. The Basic Encounter Group showed similar results when compared to the Control Group. Results were consistent in both experiments. The difference between pre and post-test scores give little reason to believe that the Basic Encounter experience had any effect on participant's behavior regarding extroversion.

The null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE 10

EFFECTS OF THE BASIC ENCOUNTER GROUP ON
BEHAVIOR REGARDING EXTROVERSION
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Behavior Observa- tion	Basic Encounter	3.7	3.7	.03	.5	2.4	2.3	.34	.4
	Control	2.6	2.2	.26	.4	2.9	2.7	.22	.5

Table 11 relates to null hypothesis eight.

HO₈ A personal experience in human relations will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding neuroticism.

TABLE 11

EFFECTS OF THE BASIC ENCOUNTER GROUP ON
BEHAVIOR REGARDING NEUROTICISM
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Behavior Observa- tion	Basic Encounter	2.5	2.6	.10	.5	1.8	1.95	.15	.5
	Control	2.6	2.2	.29	.4	1.8	1.6	.56	.4

The behavior of participants in the Basic Encounter Group regarding neuroticism was similar to their behavior regarding extroversion. Very little change was observed in behavior. The means, do, however, reflect a trend toward more neurotic behavior in the Basic Encounter while the Control Group became less neurotic. The small differences observed between pre and post-test scores suggest that no relationship exists in regard to the affects of the Basic Encounter Group experience on participant's behavior regarding neuroticism. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 12 is related to null hypothesis nine.

H₀₉ Exposure to human relations training through observation of the group process will affect no change in an individual's attitude toward extroversion.

TABLE 12
ATTITUDES OF SOCIAL MODELING GROUP TOWARD
EXTROVERSION
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Eysenck	Social Model	14.0	16.8	.65	.4	15.2	15.2	.00	NS
	Control	11.8	15.7	1.6	.1	14.0	17.0	.76	.25
Maudsley	Social Model	17.5	15.3	.99	.25	17.5	18.0	.24	.5
	Control	13.8	12.5	.74	.25	17.7	17.5	.03	>.5

Generally, results obtained in Table 12 were consistent except for Experiment A on the Maudsley Personality Inventory. Participants in the Social Modeling Group became slightly more extroverted in their attitudes. When compared to the Control Group, the scores seemed less dramatic. The results were rather difficult to interpret and were inconsistent across both instruments and experiments. There is no reason to reject the null hypothesis. The Social Modeling Group had no significant affect on the dependent variable of extroversion in regard to attitudes.

Table 13 displays data related to null hypothesis ten.

HO₁₀ Exposure to human relations training through observation of the group process will effect no change in an individual's attitude toward neuroticism.

TABLE 13
ATTITUDES OF SOCIAL MODELING GROUP TOWARD
NEUROTICISM
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Eysenck	Social Model	7.2	8.3	.52	.4	12.3	11.2	.30	.4
	Control	6.8	9.5	.43	.4	8.7	11.8	.89	.25
Maudsley	Social Model	8.5	8.2	.30	.4	10.5	12.8	.31	.4
	Control	8.7	10.0	.43	.4	12.3	13.2	.20	.5

The mean scores in Table 13 were not consistent as far as direction was concerned. The differences between pre and post-test scores also do not reflect any great change in attitudes toward neuroticism. When compared to the Control Group, about the same amount of change was observed. The p levels obtained and the inconsistent results give little reason to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 14 is related to null hypothesis eleven.

- HO₁₁ Exposure to human relations training through observation of the group process will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding extroversion.

TABLE 14
EFFECTS OF SOCIAL MODELING GROUP
ON BEHAVIOR REGARDING EXTROVERSION
N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Behavior Observa- tion	Social Model	2.0	3.5	2.54	.025	2.0	3.6	2.4	.025
	Control	2.6	2.2	.262	.4	2.9	2.7	.22	.5

The mean scores in Table 14 reflect an increase in

extroverted behavior for the Social Modeling Group. Results were consistent in both experiments and in the same direction. The change in the participants regarding extroversion was far greater than in the Control Group. In fact the Control Group displayed a tendency toward introversion. The differences in mean scores and the levels of p obtained suggest that the Social Modeling Group had a tremendous affect on the behavior of participants regarding extroversion. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .025 level of probability.

HO₁₂ Exposure to human relations training through the use of observation techniques will effect no change in an individual's behavior regarding neuroticism.

TABLE 15

EFFECTS OF SOCIAL MODELING GROUP ON
BEHAVIOR REGARDING NEUROTICISM

N = 12

Scale	Group	Experiment A				Experiment B			
		Pre	Post			Pre	Post		
		Mean		t	p	Mean		t	p
Behavior Observa- tion	Social Model	3.0	1.3	1.9	.05	3.7	1.0	5.4	<.001
	Control	2.6	2.2	.29	.4	1.8	1.6	.56	.4

Scores presented in Table 15 indicate a decrease in neurotic behavior among participants in the Social Modeling Group. Results were consistent in the same direction for both experiments though not to the same degree. When compared to the Control Group, it is obvious that the Social Modeling Group experienced much more change in the desired direction. Differences in pre and post-test scores and the levels of p obtained support the effectiveness of the Social Modeling Group in reducing neurotic behavior. The null hypothesis was rejected at the levels of p reported.

The preceding analysis has been performed on the pre and post-test scores for all experimental groups on the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories and the Behavioral Observation Scale. The analysis was performed to answer question one. With respect to this question, it was noted that the impersonal group experiences produced more change in individuals than did the personal experiences.

The following analysis was performed on the differences between pre and post-test scores on all three measurement scales. These analyses were carried out to answer question two. As stated previously, null hypotheses will be presented and related to the statistical data obtained. The differences between pre and post-test scores were subjected to a one-way

analysis of variance test. Instances where a significant F-ratio was obtained, pair wise comparisons were made by testing group means with an adjusted t-ratio. Null hypotheses were rejected or not rejected on the basis of consistency of results in both experiments and on both personality inventories where attitudes were concerned. Results of investigating question two are presented below.

Question Two

Is one type of group process in human relations training more effective than others in bringing about changes in attitudes and behaviors regarding the selected personality variables?

In Tables 16 and 17, data are presented regarding the amount of change which took place between groups in regard to attitudes toward extroversion. These data are related to null hypothesis thirteen which is stated below.

HO₁₃ There is no relationship between type of human relations experience and changes in attitudes toward extroversion.

The mean scores in Table 16 indicate that more change took place in the Control Group than in any other group. The amount of change was inconsistent in each instance between Experiments A and B. The F-ratios and p levels for both experiments on the

TABLE 16
AMOUNT OF CHANGE BETWEEN GROUPS ON
THE EYSENCK EXTROVERSION INVENTORY
N = 24

		Experiment A	Experiment B
Group	No.	Mean	Mean
Control	1	7.8	9.2
Didactic	2	2.8	6.8
B.E.	3	6.5	9.0
S.M.	4	6.8	4.8

EXPERIMENT A

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Group	86.0	3	28.6	4.62	>.05
Within Group	123.9	20	6.2		
Total	210.0	23			

EXPERIMENT B

Between Group	27.5	3	9.2	.97	>.05
Within Group	189.0	20	9.5		
Total	216.5	23			

TABLE 17
 AMOUNT OF CHANGE BETWEEN GROUPS ON THE
 MAUDSLEY EXTROVERSION INVENTORY
 N = 24

		Experiment A	Experiment B
Group	No.	Mean	Mean
Control	1	6.6	4.2
Didactic	2	5.8	5.2
B.E.	3	8.8	4.5
S.M.	4	8.3	4.5

EXPERIMENT A

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Group	35.8	3	11.8	1.5	$>.05$
Within Group	160.0	20	8.0		
Total	195.9	23			

EXPERIMENT B

Between Group	3.2	3	1.0	0.26	$>.05$
Within Group	80.0	20	4.0		
Total	83.3	23			

Eysenck Personality Inventory were not significant. Any difference in the way the groups responded was probably due to chance.

The mean scores in Table 17 reflect the same inconsistencies that were exhibited on the Eysenck Scale. The Control Group experienced about as much change as did any other group. There was a great variation in scores between Experiments A and B. The source table indicates relatively little between group variance in both experiments. F-ratios and p levels suggest that there wasn't any significant difference in the way each group responded. There is no reason to reject null hypothesis thirteen. We may conclude that there is little if any relationship between type of group experience and changes in attitudes toward extroversion.

The data displayed in Table 18 and 19 are related to null hypothesis fourteen which is stated below.

HO₁₄ There is no relationship between type of human relations training and changes in attitudes toward neuroticism.

The mean scores in Table 18 reflect a great difference in the way participants responded in Experiments A and B. The Control Groups experienced more change than all other groups in each instance. F-ratios and levels of confidence in each experiment give little reason to believe there was any significant

TABLE 18
AMOUNT OF CHANGE BETWEEN GROUPS ON THE
EYSENCK NEUROTICISM SCALE

		Experiment A	Experiment B
Group	No.	Mean	Mean
Control	1	7.7	9.8
Didactic	2	5.8	8.2
B.E.	3	5.0	7.5
S.M.	4	6.7	7.0

EXPERIMENT A

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Group	23.45	3	7.8	0.52	>.05
Within Group	299.5	20	14.97		
Total	322.95				

EXPERIMENT B

Between Group	48.8	3	16.3	1.52	>.05
Within Group	213.2	20	10.7		
Total	262.0				

N = 24 df = 23

TABLE 19
AMOUNT OF CHANGE BETWEEN GROUPS ON THE
MAUDSLEY NEUROTICISM SCALE

		Experiment A	Experiment B
Group	No.	Mean	Mean
Control	1	8.3	9.8
Didactic	2	8.3	5.0
B.E.	3	7.6	11.1
S.M.	4	6.6	11.3

EXPERIMENT A

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	11.1	3	3.7	0.26	>.05
Within Group	281.3	20	14.5		
Total	300.5				

EXPERIMENT B

Between Group	122	3	40.7	2.85	>.05
Within Group	286	20	14.3		
Total	408	23			

N = 24 df = 23

difference in the way each group responded.

The means on the Maudsley Personality Inventory also reflect great differences in the way subjects responded in each experiment. This is observed especially in the Basic Encounter and Social Modeling Groups. F-ratios and p levels for Experiments A and B did not reach any significant levels. The results in Tables 18 and 19 were inconsistent and inconclusive. Any differences in the way groups responded were probably due to chance. Null hypothesis 14 was not rejected for this reason.

The data in Table 20 are related to null hypothesis fifteen and represent the amount of change which each group experienced as measured by the Behavioral Observation Scale. The behavioral data were much more conclusive and consistent than the attitudinal data. It is noted that more change took place in the Social Modeling Group than any other as reflected by mean scores. It is also noted that the Basic Encounter Group experienced more change than the Control Group in the same direction. The Didactic Group, however, experienced change in the opposite direction. The levels of confidence obtained indicated that there was a significant relationship between types of grouping and behavior regarding extroversion. The nature of the relationship is such that type of group

TABLE 20
COMPARISON OF INDIVIDUAL GROUPS
ON EXTROVERTED BEHAVIOR
N = 12

		Experiment A	Experiment B
Group	No.	Mean	Mean
Control	1	3.65	2.80
Didactic	2	2.0	1.8
B.E.	3	3.97	2.86
S.M.	4	5.5	4.458

EXPERIMENT A

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Group	35.84	3	11.95	35.3	<.001
Within Group	6.77	20	.34		
Total	42.61				

EXPERIMENT B

Between Group	21.7	3	7.2449	13.87	<.001
Within Group	10.4	20	.52		
Total	32.1				

N = 24 df = 23

Group	t-ratio	p	t-ratio	p
1 & 2	3.408	.005	2.208	.05
1 & 3	.427	.4	.104	.5
1 & 4	3.368	.005	3.533	.005
2 & 3	3.084	.01	1.085	.25
2 & 4	7.390	.001	6.636	.005
3 & 4	2.581	.025	1.754	.1

may be a determining factor in bringing about behavior changes in individuals.

Since the F-ratio was significant, t-tests were performed on the scores to observe differences between groups. The t-ratios obtained indicated that the greatest differences were between the Social Modeling and Didactic Groups. The difference between the Social Modeling and Basic Encounter Groups was also significant, and the Social Modeling Group was significantly different from the Control Group in each instance. Other treatment comparisons were not significantly different from each other.

HO₁₅ There is no relationship between type of human relations training and changes in behavior regarding extroversion.

On the basis of the data presented in Table 20, null hypothesis fifteen was rejected. Table 21 compares individual groups on neurotic behavior and is related to null hypothesis sixteen.

HO₁₆ There is no relationship between type of human relations training and changes in behavior regarding neuroticism.

It is noted in Table 21 that mean scores indicate that the Basic Encounter Group experienced less reduction in neurotic behavior than any other group. Generally, the scores were consistent in both experiments. F-ratios and p levels indicated that type of human relations training is related to changes in

TABLE 21
COMPARISON OF INDIVIDUAL
GROUPS ON NEUROTIC BEHAVIOR
N = 12

		Experiment A	Experiment B
Group	No.	Mean	Mean
Control	1	3.55	4.65
Didactic	2	2.86	4.05
B.E.	3	4.0	5.1
S.M.	4	2.2	2.8

EXPERIMENT A

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Group	12.35	3	4.12	8.04	<.001
Within Group	10.25	20	0.51		
Total	22.61				

EXPERIMENT B

Between Group	18.10	3	6.05	15.42	<.001
Within Group	7.85	20	0.39		
Total	25.95				

N = 24 df = 23

Group	t-ratio	p	t-ratio	p
1 & 2	1.288	.25	2.234	.025
1 & 3	.697	.4	1.401	.1
1 & 4	2.443	.025	4.397	.001
2 & 3	1.208	.25	2.189	.05
2 & 4	.964	.25	2.53	.025
3 & 4	2.341	.025	2.197	.05

behavior regarding neuroticism. The nature of the relationship is such that the neurotic behavior of participants seems to be decreased as a result of participating in impersonal human relations groups. The probability of these differences occurring by chance is less than one time in a hundred. Null hypothesis sixteen was rejected at the .001 level of confidence.

Since significant F-ratios were obtained in each experiment, pair wise comparisons were made using adjusted t-ratios. The greatest difference occurred between the Social Modeling Group and the Control Group. The Basic Encounter Group also experienced less change than the Social Modeling Group in regard to neurotic behavior. Next to the Social Modeling Group, the Didactic Group experienced the most change. There was also a significant difference between the Control and Didactic Groups.

Tables 16 to 21 presented data related to Question Two. The data in these tables also seem to reflect incongruence between participant's attitudes and behaviors. Correlation analyses were used to further investigate this incongruence by testing null hypotheses seventeen and eighteen. The participant's attitudes and behaviors did not seem to be congruent in regard to extroversion or neuroticism.

the data seemed to indicate that attitudes fluctuate more than behavior.

- HO₁₇ No congruence will be observed between participant's attitudes and behaviors regarding extroversion.
- HO₁₈ No congruence will be observed between participant's attitudes and behavior regarding neuroticism.

Results of testing the above hypotheses are shown in Table 22. Pearson Product Moment Coefficients of Correlation were performed on combined pre and post-test scores to see if there was a relationship.

TABLE 22

TEST OF CONGRUENCE BETWEEN
PARTICIPANT'S ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS

Test Instrument	Extroversion	Neuroticism
	r	r
Behavioral and Eysenck	.09	.15
Behavioral and Maudsley	.001	.29

The data in Table 22 indicate that there was no congruence between the way participants responded on the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories and the Behavioral Observation Scale. Null hypotheses seventeen and eighteen were not rejected.

The data in Table 23 are related to null hypotheses nineteen through twenty two. These hypotheses are stated on the following page.

- HO₁₉ There will be no difference in the attitudes of participants in Experiments A and B toward extroversion as a result of being exposed to two different counselors.
- HO₂₀ There will be no difference in the attitudes of participants in Experiments A and B toward neuroticism as a result of being exposed to two counselors.
- HO₂₁ There will be no difference in the behavior of participants in Experiments A and B regarding extroversion as a result of being exposed to two different counselors.
- HO₂₂ There will be no difference in the behavior of participants in Experiments A and B regarding neuroticism as a result of being exposed to two different counselors.

Null hypothesis nineteen was rejected at the levels indicated in Table 23. The difference in counselors did seem to affect the way in which participants responded on each personality inventory. Null hypothesis twenty-one was rejected also. The difference in counselors could have affected participant's behavior regarding neuroticism. In regard to neuroticism, a level of confidence of .001 was obtained in relation to behavior. Null hypotheses 20 and 21 were not rejected because significant F-ratios and p levels were not reached. Any difference observed could have been due to chance. The interaction effect was not significant and neither were observations between groups, except for the Eysenck Extroversion and the Behavioral Neuroticism Scales. The results shown in Table 23 suggest that counselors were a significant

TABLE 23

RESULTS OF TWO ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
TESTS PERFORMED ON THE DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN PRE AND POST-TEST
SCORES FOR EXPERIMENT A AND B

Test	Between Counselors		Between Groups		Interaction	
	F	p	F	p	F	p
EE	8.030	.05	2.777	.05	1.650	>.05
ME	15.989	.01	.802	>.05	1.337	>.05
BE	2.789	>.05	2.705	>.05	1.208	>.05
EN	1.882	>.05	1.645	>.05	.931	>.05
MN	2.876	>.05	.394	>.05	1.143	>.05
BN	19.162	.001	18.316	.001	.510	>.05
Eysenck Extroversion EE			Eysenck Neuroticism EN			
Maudsley Extroversion ME			Maudsley Neuroticism MN			
Behavioral Extroversion BE			Behavioral Neuroticism BN			

intervening variable.

Summary

Mean scores, t-test, one-way analysis of variance and two-way analysis of variance were performed on pre and post-test scores on each dependent variable. The means and t-ratios indicated a slight increase for all groups in extroverted attitudes. While the Didactic and Social Modeling Groups became more extroverted, the Basic Encounter Groups experienced little change. The Control Groups changed as much as all other groups in regard to attitudes but not behavior. In this area the Control Group experienced less change.

The Didactic and Basic Encounter Groups experienced an increase in neurotic attitudes while the results for the Social Modeling Groups were inconsistent and difficult to interpret. The Social Modeling Groups and the Didactic Groups became less neurotic in behavior while the Basic Encounter remained the same. The Control Groups became more neurotic in attitudes toward neuroticism but exhibited less neurotic behavior.

When comparing the results of tests performed on differences in attitudes toward extroversion between groups, they were found to be inconsistent and inconclusive. Similar results were obtained toward

neuroticism. The behavioral data, however, were much more consistent and conclusive. More change took place in the Social Modeling Group than any other group. While not much difference was noted between the Social Modeling Group and the Control Group, all other comparisons showed considerable difference on the extroversion scale. The Social Modeling Group, the Control Group and the Basic Encounter Group became more extroverted while the Didactic Group became more introverted. In regard to neuroticism, only the Social Modeling Group and the Didactic Group became less neurotic.

F-ratios obtained from a one-way analysis of variance tests indicated that the participant's attitudes were not congruent with their behavior. Pearson Product Moment Coefficients performed on combined pre and post-test scores supported these conclusions.

Results obtained on a two-way analysis of variance suggested that the differences in counselors may have been a significant intervening variable.

Chapter Five presents a summary of the study, a discussion of the findings and implications and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

Review of the literature reveals that there are many concerns relating to the use of affective techniques in human relations training in achieving educational objectives (Birnbaum, 1969; Betz, 1970b). Critics of the use of affective techniques point to the lack of basic research in the area, the preparation of trainers and the relationship of the process to the objectives of the educational system. While all of these concerns are important, one was a top priority issue. Because of the lack of research evidence, there has been a growing concern among public, private and industrial educators as to the real value of psycho-process models due to the potentially undesirable side effects of intensive personal confrontation.

The literature further reveals that a split has developed in regard to the use of group processes (Bradford, Gibbs and Benne, 1967). This split began and continued when one branch chose to emphasize interpersonal group process and the opposing branch continued to emphasize didactic processes in the quest for attainment of affective educational

objectives. The cleavage in technique and emphasis has led to controversy over many critical aspects of group process application to educational problems in industrial, public and private educational settings.

Today, serious questions are being raised as to the appropriateness of selected processes focused on interpersonal dynamics and physical contact. One such question: Does group process need to be interpersonally oriented in order to reach desired objectives? is a basic research issue (Birnbaum, 1969). The result has caused a growing interest in various approaches to human relations training and a marked increase in the use of group processes in social institutions concerned with human behavior (Betz, 1970).

The present study was undertaken to answer two basic questions: (1) Does human relations training effect a change in an individual's attitude or behavior in regard to the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism? and (2) Is one type of group process in human relations training more effective than others in bringing about changes in attitudes and behaviors regarding the selected personality variables? In order to answer these questions, the experiment was designed to examine the effects of various group approaches on two

selected personality variables. These personality variables were attitudes and behaviors regarding extroversion and neuroticism. The group approaches used were: the Basic Encounter Group, the Didactic Group, the Social Modeling Group (observational) and the Control Group. These groups constituted the experimental treatments.

The participants used in the study were 48 student volunteers selected from sophomores in human growth and development and race and culture classes at Western Michigan University. The participants were divided into two major aggregations of twenty-four people each and designated as Experiment A and B. These two groups were further divided into eight experimental groups with six persons in each. A period of two and one-half weeks was provided to obtain base line attitudinal and behavioral data. Four weeks constituted the treatment phase and two and one-half weeks were provided to post-test the participants on the selected dependent variables.

The instruments used in the study were the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories which measured attitudes toward the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism and a behavioral scale which was designed by the writer to measure behavior on the same variables.

Reliability was established in this study for the Eysenck and Maudsley Personality Inventories by testing the agreement of responses by participants using the Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation Statistical Test. The coefficients for the Eysenck Personality Inventory were .88 for Experiment A and .74 for Experiment B. For the Maudsley Inventory, the coefficients were .81 and .91 respectively. Validity for the Eysenck and Maudsley Inventories was established in a study conducted by Eysenck and Eysenck in 1967. The factor loadings for the extroversion items was .97 and for the neuroticism items .71. Certain commonalities and clustering around these two factors were observed in this factor analytic study. Reliability was established for the Behavioral Scale by testing the agreement among three trained raters in a pilot test of the instrument. These raters observed groups which were in progress at the Counseling Center at Western Michigan University. The scores obtained from these observations were subjected to a Spearman Rank Difference Correlation of Coefficient Statistical Test. These coefficients were sufficiently high enough (.80, .80 and .70) to achieve inter-rater reliability for the behavioral scale.

In addition to the above instrumentation, a

specific scale was designed to measure the extent to which the basic encounter groups were interpersonal and the extent to which the didactic groups were impersonal and to demonstrate that the independent variable was in fact manipulated. Reliability was established among the three raters who listened to independent sections of tape recordings made of basic encounter and didactic sessions. Pearson Product Moment Coefficients of Correlations obtained were .96 for raters 1 and 2, .97 for raters 1 and 3 and .98 for raters 2 and 3. Content validity was established by performing a t-test on the scores of the basic encounter and didactic groups. The t-ratio was significant at the .001 level of probability. This level of probability indicated that the treatments were in fact as designed and were either personal or impersonal in nature.

Independent and dependent variable relationship in the present study were analyzed by means of the t-test, one-way analysis of variance, and two-way analysis of variance statistical models. The use of the adjusted t-ratio and one-way analysis of variance models permitted conclusions about the relationships between the different human relations approaches and the selected personality variables of extroversion and neuroticism. The two-way analysis of variance

permitted conclusions about the effects of the use of different counselors on results obtained.

Certain trends were observed when comparing means between pre and post-test scores. The t-ratios indicated a slight increase for all groups in extroverted attitudes. The Didactic and Basic Encounter Groups experienced an increase in neurotic attitudes while the Social Modeling Groups were inconsistent. The Social Modeling and Didactic Groups became less neurotic in behavior while the Basic Encounter Groups experienced little if any change. The Control Groups became more neurotic in their attitudes toward neuroticism but less neurotic in behavior.

When comparing the amount of change which took place between groups, inconsistent results were observed on both attitudinal measures relating to extroversion. Similar results were obtained for attitudes toward neuroticism. The behavioral data were much more consistent. More change took place in the Social Modeling Groups than any other group. The Social Modeling Group, the Basic Encounter Group and the Control Group all exhibited more extroverted behavior while the Didactic Group became more introverted. In reference to neuroticism, only the Social Modeling and Didactic Groups exhibited less neurotic behavior.

Results obtained from one-way analysis of variance test indicated that participant's attitudes were not congruent with their behavior. This observation was varified by a correlation analysis. Two-way analysis of variance results suggested that the differences in counselors may have been a significant intervening variable.

Discussion

The results of the study give little reason to believe that there is a meaningful difference between the attitudes of participants in the eight experimental groups toward the selected personality variables, extroversion and neuroticism. The slight increases observed in extroverted attitudes are, however, supportive of and in line with previous research (Davis, 1969). On the other hand, the increase in neurotic attitudes within the Didactic and Basic Encounter Groups and the inconsistent results regarding attitudes of the Social Modeling Group toward neuroticism leaves some doubt about the use of these techniques in reducing neurotic attitudes.

The behavioral data obtained in the study did suggest that there was a relationship between type of group treatment and the behavior of participants regarding extroversion and neuroticism. While p

levels for all groups were not consistent in Experiments A and B, they were in the desired direction. The fact that the Didactic Group became more introverted in behavior while the Social Modeling Group became more extroverted might be explained by the very nature of didactic groups. In Didactic Groups, participants become accustomed to not interacting and develop a mind set toward listening. The transition into another group did not alter this behavior in the Didactic Groups in the study. Consequently, when post behavioral data were obtained, the participants of the Didactic Group were still exhibiting introverted behavior. The same explanation applies to the Control Groups which also showed a trend toward introversion.

The fact that the Basic Encounter Groups showed a trend toward more neurotic behavior in both experiments while all other groups displayed less neurotic behavior was a significant finding. The trend was probably observed because Basic Encounter Group situations initially produce anxiety and frustration reactions in individuals due to the threatening aspects inherent in such groups.

Since the primary purpose of the study was to evaluate the effectiveness of personal versus impersonal group processes in obtaining objectives, other measures were obtained to assist in the

interpretation of the amount of change which took place in each group as a result of the specific treatments involved.

Results of one-way analysis of variance tests indicated that there was no significant relationship between type of treatment and attitudes toward extroversion and neuroticism. The reason for this is probably because it takes longer to change attitudes than it does to modify behavior. Participants needed a longer time to integrate the knowledge and experiences which they had been exposed to.

Significant results were obtained regarding participant's behavior in the various groups. More change was observed in the Social Modeling Group probably because it was less threatening. The same holds true for the Didactic Group. The reason why the Basic Encounter Groups became more neurotic in attitudes and experienced little change in neurotic behavior was probably due to the high anxiety levels in the group which time never permitted to subside. Participants in the Basic Encounter may have felt so threatened that they refused to open their minds to change or refused to recognize any alternative ways of behaving. The incongruence of attitudes with behaviors points to the fact that people may develop facades as defense mechanisms. These facades become

self defeating when they inhibit insight into one's behavior and ways of thinking. Until anxiety levels decrease and trust levels increase, participants in Basic Encounter Groups may not progress very far in terms of understanding and relating to one another.

Participants in the Social Modeling Group also had an opportunity to discuss among themselves and to react with the trainers concerning trainer interventions. Their understanding of what was happening may have been better than that of participants in the Basic Encounter Group. The Social Modeling Group had access to all the information and could analyze situations as they developed. They experienced little if any anxiety and were probably less threatened by what was occurring in the Basic Encounter Group. These things probably accounted for the change observed in the Social Modeling Group.

Implications

The following section suggests some of the implications that resulted from the present study. Suggestions are of two types: possible application of findings and suggestions for further research. Possible applications are steps that might be taken by private, public and industrial educators in using human relations models to effect change in

their staffs. Suggestions for further research include recommendations for additional investigations that might be conducted in the use of affective group processes.

Implications for Possible Application

Organizations that wish to effect change in the attitudes and behaviors of their staffs could consider using simulated group experiences to acquaint their people with different concepts relating to change and personal growth. Perhaps methods or techniques that combine various human relations models, such as the didactic, observational and confrontation groups, could be used to achieve desired objectives.

The data of the present study suggest that observational and didactic techniques are the most effective models. There is reason, therefore, to use a combination of these two models. The basic encounter or confrontation model is not always the best technique to begin with but may be very effective if used in conjunction with other models. Anxiety producing techniques, in most instances, only confuse and alienate individuals who are exposed to them but have not been adequately prepared for those type of experiences.

Training in the affective area can help reduce

attitudinal blocks and group resistance to needed educational change. Choice of the appropriate group processes could make a difference in the achievement of objectives. Educators should be aware of the limitations of any given human relations model

Implications for Further Research

The data obtained in the study indicated that short term group counseling had no significant effects on participant's attitudes toward the selected personality variables. These results were supportive of other research done in the area (Davis, 1969). Although no significant differences were observed, certain trends were indicated. Betz (1968) points out that the reason why significant results are not obtained in short term group counseling is related to design. He cites studies (Kagan, 1966) (Cambell and Stanley, 1966) which have reported essentially similar results and have explained failure to achieve significance for similar reasons.

The writer believes that the limitations of time and duration of treatment affected results of the study. As Betz (1968) points out, it will be necessary to subject this often reported conclusion to analysis. In addition, more information is needed concerning the effects of differences in counselor behavior

on group process. The results of the study suggest that this was a significant intervening variable.

In future research, attention should be given to increasing the sample size of the groups and non-student sample groups should be investigated. When choosing counselors to lead specific groups, investigators should try to find persons who have similar training and make sure that the counselors chosen have the ability to use different group processes.

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APPENDIX A

EYSENCK PERSONALITY INVENTORY

Form A

By H. J. Eysenck
and Sybil B. G. Eysenck

Name _____ Age _____ Sex _____
Grade or Occupation _____ Date _____
School or Firm _____ Marital Status _____

INSTRUCTIONS

Here are some questions regarding the way you behave, feel and act. After each question is a space for answering "Yes," or "No."

Try and decide whether "Yes," or "No" represents your usual way of acting or feeling. Then blacken in the space under the column headed "Yes" or "No."

Work quickly, and don't spend too much time over any questions; we want your first reaction, not a long drawn-out thought process. The whole questionnaire shouldn't take more than a few minutes. Be sure not to omit any questions. Now turn the page over and go ahead. Work quickly, and remember to answer every question. There are no right or wrong answers, and this isn't a test of intelligence or ability, but simply a measure of the way you behave.

1. Do you often long for excitement?.....Yes___No___
2. Do you often need understanding friends
to cheer you up?.....Yes___No___
3. Are you usually carefree?.....Yes___No___
4. Do you find it very hard to take no for
an answer?.....Yes___No___
5. Do you stop and think things over before
doing anything?.....Yes___No___

6. If you say you will do something do you always keep your promise, no matter how inconvenient it might be to do so?.....Yes___No___
7. Does your mood often go up and down?....Yes___No___
8. Do you generally do and say things quickly without stopping to think?.....Yes___No___
9. Do you ever feel "just miserable" for no good reason?.....Yes___No___
10. Would you do almost anything for a dare?.....Yes___No___
11. Do you suddenly feel shy when you want to talk to an attractive stranger?.....Yes___No___
12. Once in a while do you lose your temper and get angry?.....Yes___No___
13. Do you often do things on the spur of the moment?.....Yes___No___
14. Do you often worry about things you should not have done or said?.....Yes___No___
15. Generally do you prefer reading to meeting people?.....Yes___No___
16. Are your feelings rather easily hurt?...Yes___No___
17. Do you like going out a lot?.....Yes___No___
18. Do you occasionally have thoughts and ideas that you would not like other people to know about?.....Yes___No___
19. Are you sometimes bubbling over with energy and sometimes very sluggish?.....Yes___No___
20. Do you prefer to have few but special friends?.....Yes___No___
21. Do you daydream a lot?.....Yes___No___
22. When people shout at you, do you shout back?.....Yes___No___
23. Are you often troubled about feelings of guilt?.....Yes___No___

24. Are all your habits good and desirable ones?.....Yes___No___
25. Can you usually let yourself go and enjoy yourself a lot at a gay party?....Yes___No___
26. Would you call yourself tense or "highly-strung"?.....Yes___No___
27. Do other people think of you as being very lively?.....Yes___No___
28. After you have done something important, do you often come away feeling you could have done better?.....Yes___No___
29. Are you mostly quiet when you are with other people?.....Yes___No___
30. Do you sometimes gossip?.....Yes___No___
31. Do ideas run through your head so that you cannot sleep?.....Yes___No___
32. If there is something you want to know about, would you rather look it up in a book than talk to someone about it?.....Yes___No___
33. Do you get palpitations or thumping in your heart?.....Yes___No___
34. Do you like the kind of work that you need to pay close attention to?.....Yes___No___
35. Do you get attacks of shaking or trembling?.....Yes___No___
36. Would you always declare everything at the customs, even if you knew that you could never be found out?.....Yes___No___
37. Do you hate being with a crowd who play jokes on one another?.....Yes___No___
38. Are you an irritable person?.....Yes___No___
39. Do you like doing things in which you have to act quickly?.....Yes___No___
40. Do you worry about awful things that might happen?.....Yes___No___

41. Are you slow and unhurried in the way you move?.....Yes___No___
42. Have you ever been late for an appointment or work?.....Yes___No___
43. Do you have many nightmares?.....Yes___No___
44. Do you like talking to people so much that you would never miss a chance of talking to a stranger?.....Yes___No___
45. Are you troubled by aches and pains?....Yes___No___
46. Would you be very unhappy if you could not see lots of people most of the time?.....Yes___No___
47. Would you call yourself a nervous person?.....Yes___No___
48. Of all the people you know are there some whom you definitely do not like?...Yes___No___
49. Would you say you were fairly self-confident?.....Yes___No___
50. Are you easily hurt when people find fault with you or your work?.....Yes___No___
51. Do you find it hard to really enjoy yourself at a lively party?.....Yes___No___
52. Are you troubled with feelings of inferiority?.....Yes___No___
53. Can you easily get some life into a rather dull party?.....Yes___No___
54. Do you sometimes talk about things you know nothing about?.....Yes___No___
55. Do you worry about your health?.....Yes___No___
56. Do you like playing pranks on others?...Yes___No___
57. Do you suffer from sleeplessness?.....Yes___No___

EYSENCK PERSONALITY INVENTORY

Form B

By H. J. Eysenck
and Sybil B. J. Eysenck

Name _____ Age _____ Sex _____
Grade or Occupation _____ Date _____
School or Firm _____ Marital Status _____

INSTRUCTIONS

Here are some questions regarding the way you behave, feel and act. After each question is a space for answering "Yes," or "No."

Try and decide whether "Yes," or "No" represents your usual way of acting or feeling. Then blacken in the space under the column headed "Yes" or "No."

Work quickly, and don't spend too much time over any question; we want your first reaction, not a long drawn-out thought process. The whole questionnaire shouldn't take more than a few minutes. Be sure not to omit any questions. Now turn the page over and go ahead. Work quickly, and remember to answer every question. There are no right or wrong answers, and this isn't a test of intelligence or ability, but simply a measure of the way you behave.

1. Do you like plenty of excitement and
bustle around you?.....Yes___No___
2. Have you often got a restless feeling
that you want something but do not know
what?.....Yes___No___
3. Do you nearly always have a "ready
answer" when people talk to you?.....Yes___No___
4. Do you sometimes feel happy, sometimes
sad, without any real reason?.....Yes___No___

5. Do you usually stay in the background at parties and "get-togethers"?Yes__?__No
6. As a child did you always do as you were told immediately and without grumbling? .Yes__?__No
7. Do you sometimes sulk?Yes__?__No
8. When you are drawn into a quarrel, do you prefer to "have it out" to being silent hoping things will blow over?Yes__?__No
9. Are you moody?Yes__?__No
10. Do you like mixing with people?Yes__?__No
11. Have you often lost sleep over your worries?Yes__?__No
12. Do you sometimes get cross?Yes__?__No
13. Would you call yourself happy-go-lucky? .Yes__?__No
14. Do you often make up your mind too late?Yes__?__No
15. Do you like working alone?Yes__?__No
16. Have you often felt listless and tired for no good reason?Yes__?__No
17. Are you rather lively?Yes__?__No
18. Do you sometimes laugh at a dirty joke? .Yes__?__No
19. Do you often feel "fed-up"?Yes__?__No
20. Do you feel uncomfortable in anything but everyday clothes?Yes__?__No
21. Does your mind often wander when you are trying to attend closely to something?Yes__?__No
22. Can you put your thoughts into words quickly?Yes__?__No
23. Are you often "lost in thought"?Yes__?__No
24. Are you completely free from prejudices of any kind?Yes__?__No

25. Do you like practical jokes?.....Yes___No___
26. Do you often think of your past?.....Yes___No___
27. Do you very much like good food?.....Yes___No___
28. When you get annoyed do you need some-
one friendly to talk to about it?.....Yes___No___
29. Do you mind selling things or asking
people for money for some good cause?...Yes___No___
30. Do you sometimes boast a little?.....Yes___No___
31. Are you touchy about some things?.....Yes___No___
32. Would you rather be at home on your own
than go to a boring party?.....Yes___No___
33. Do you sometimes get so restless that
you cannot sit long in a chair?.....Yes___No___
34. Do you like planning things carefully,
well ahead of time?.....Yes___No___
35. Do you have dizzy spells?.....Yes___No___
36. Do you always answer a personal letter
as soon as you can after you have read
it?.....Yes___No___
37. Can you usually do things better by
figuring them out alone than by talking
to others about it?.....Yes___No___
38. Do you ever get short of breath without
having done heavy work?.....Yes___No___
39. Are you an easy-going person, not gener-
ally bothered about having everything
"just-so"?.....Yes___No___
40. Do you suffer from "nerves"?.....Yes___No___
41. Would you rather plan things than do
things?.....Yes___No___
42. Do you sometimes put off until tomorrow
what you ought to do today?.....Yes___No___
43. Do you get nervous in places like
elevators, trains or tunnels?.....Yes___No___

44. When you make new friends, is it usually you who makes the first move, or does the inviting?.....Yes___No___
45. Do you get very bad headaches?.....Yes___No___
46. Do you generally feel that things will sort themselves out and come right in the end somehow?.....Yes___No___
47. Do you find it hard to fall asleep at bedtime?.....Yes___No___
48. Have you sometimes told lies in your life?.....Yes___No___
49. Do you sometimes say the first thing that comes into your head?.....Yes___No___
50. Do you worry too long after an embarrassing experience?.....Yes___No___
51. Do you usually keep "yourself to yourself" except with very close friends?...Yes___No___
52. Do you often get into a jam because you do things without thinking?.....Yes___No___
53. Do you like cracking jokes and telling funny stories to your friends?.....Yes___No___
54. Would you rather win, than lose a game?.....Yes___No___
55. Do you often feel self-conscious when you are with superiors?.....Yes___No___
56. When the odds are against you, do you still usually think it worth taking a chance?.....Yes___No___
57. Do you often get "butterflies in your stomach" before an important occasion?..Yes___No___

MAUDSLEY PERSONALITY INVENTORY

By H. J. Eysenck

Name _____ Age _____ Sex _____
Grade or Occupation _____ Date _____
School or Firm _____ Marital Status _____

INSTRUCTIONS

Here are some questions regarding the way you behave, feel and act. After each question is a space for answering "Yes," "?" or "No."

Try and decide whether "Yes," or "No" represents your usual way of acting or feeling. Then blacken in the space under the column headed "Yes" or "No." If you find it absolutely impossible to decide, blacken in the space headed "?", but use this answer only occasionally.

Work quickly, and don't spend too much time over any question; we want your first reaction, not a long drawn-out thought process. The whole questionnaire shouldn't take more than a few minutes. Be sure not to omit any questions. Now turn the page over and go ahead. Work quickly, and remember to answer every question. There are no right or wrong answers, and this isn't a test of intelligence or ability, but simply a measure of the way you behave.

1. Are you happiest when you get involved in some project that calls for rapid action?.....Yes__?__No
2. Do you sometimes feel happy, sometimes depressed, without any apparent reason?.....Yes__?__No
3. Does your mind often wander while you are trying to concentrate?.....Yes__?__No
4. Do you usually take the initiative in making new friends?.....Yes__?__No

5. Are you inclined to be quick and sure
in your actions?.....Yes__?__No
6. Are you frequently "lost in thought"
even when supposed to be taking part
in a conversation?.....Yes__?__No
7. Are you sometimes bubbling over with
energy and sometimes very sluggish?....Yes__?__No
8. Would you rate yourself as a lively
individual?.....Yes__?__No
9. Would you be very unhappy if you were
prevented from making numerous social
contacts?.....Yes__?__No
10. Are you inclined to be moody?.....Yes__?__No
11. Do you have frequent ups and downs
in mood, either with or without
apparent cause?.....Yes__?__No
12. Do you prefer action to planning for
action?.....Yes__?__No
13. Are your daydreams frequently about
things that can never come true?.....Yes__?__No
14. Are you inclined to keep in the back-
ground on social occasions?.....Yes__?__No
15. Are you inclined to ponder over your
past?.....Yes__?__No
16. Is it difficult to "lose yourself"
even at a lively party?.....Yes__?__No
17. Do you ever feel "just miserable" for
no good reason at all?.....Yes__?__No
18. Are you inclined to be overconscien-
tious?.....Yes__?__No
19. Do you often find that you have made
up your mind too late?.....Yes__?__No
20. Do you like to mix socially with
people?.....Yes__?__No
21. Have you often lost sleep over your
worries?.....Yes__?__No

22. Are you inclined to limit your acquaintances to a select few?.....Yes__?__No
23. Are you often troubled about feelings of guilt?.....Yes__?__No
24. Do you ever take your work as if it were a matter of life or death?.....Yes__?__No
25. Are your feelings rather easily hurt?..Yes__?__No
26. Do you like to have many social engagements?.....Yes__?__No
27. Would you rate yourself as a tense or "highly-strung" individual?.....Yes__?__No
28. Do you generally prefer to take the lead in group activities?.....Yes__?__No
29. Do you often experience periods of loneliness?.....Yes__?__No
30. Are you inclined to be shy in the presence of the opposite sex?.....Yes__?__No
31. Do you like to indulge in a reverie (daydreaming)?.....Yes__?__No
32. Do you nearly always have a "ready answer" for remarks directed at you?...Yes__?__No
33. Do you spend much time in thinking over good times you have had in the past?.....Yes__?__No
34. Would you rate yourself as a happy-go-lucky individual?.....Yes__?__No
35. Have you often felt listless and tired for no good reason?.....Yes__?__No
36. Are you inclined to keep quiet when out in a social group?.....Yes__?__No
37. After a critical moment is over, do you usually think of something you should have done but failed to do?.....Yes__?__No
38. Can you usually let yourself go and have a hilariously good time at a gay party?.....Yes__?__No

39. Do ideas run through your head so that
you cannot sleep?.....Yes__?__No
40. Do you like work that requires
considerable attention?.....Yes__?__No
41. Have you ever been bothered by having
a useless thought come into your
mind repeatedly?.....Yes__?__No
42. Are you inclined to take your work
casually, that is as a matter of
course?.....Yes__?__No
43. Are you touchy on various subjects?....Yes__?__No
44. Do other people regard you as a
lively individual?.....Yes__?__No
45. Do you often feel disgruntled?.....Yes__?__No
46. Would you rate yourself as a
talkative individual?.....Yes__?__No
47. Do you have periods of such great
restlessness that you cannot sit
long in a chair?.....Yes__?__No
48. Do you like to play pranks upon
others?.....Yes__?__No

APPENDIX B

EXTRAVERSION AND NEUROTICISM OBSERVER
SCORING SHEET BASE DATA

SUBJECT'S NAME—EXTRAVERTED BEHAVIOR—NEUROTIC BEHAVIOR

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

5—4—3—2—1—

1. EXTRAVERTED BEHAVIOR: Craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, always has a ready answer, generally likes change, carefree and easygoing, full of fun, jokes a lot, aggressive, may lose his temper, full of vigor, can not keep feelings and emotions under control prefers to keep moving and doing things, impulsive.
2. INTROVERTED BEHAVIOR: Quiet, retiring, introspective, looks before he leaps, does not lose his temper, not aggressive, is not easily excited, keeps his feelings under control, somewhat pessimistic.
3. NEUROTIC BEHAVIOR: Easily offended, touchy, easily excitable, provoked or annoyed, restless and easily fatigued, not calm, changing moods, no confidence, sleepy, complains of physical ailments often or generally that his health isn't good, blames his failures on poor health.

OBSERVERS PLEASE NOTE NON-VERBAL AS WELL AS VERBAL BEHAVIORS. OBSERVE SUBJECTS THROUGHOUT THE ONE HOUR PERIOD, THEN RATE EACH INDIVIDUAL ON THE FIVE POINT SCALE ABOVE.

APPENDIX C

THIS INFORMATION FOR TREATMENT PHASE ONLY
SEPTEMBER 25 - OCTOBER 17

BASIC ENCOUNTER GROUP

The basic assumption of this experiment is that the same objectives may be obtained in terms of individual change using a didactic lecture discussion type technique in human relations training as can be obtained by using the Basic Encounter Group Technique. One is impersonal and the other is very personal.

Each Trainer will be expected to impart to each student who is in the Basic Encounter Group through his interventions his feelings about that person's behavior. He will be expected to confront each individual and try to get the person to examine his feelings and belief in depth. Where an individual's behavior appears self-defeating, the trainer will bring it to the individual's attention.

Much of neurotic, extraverted and introverted behavior is self-defeating. Mood swings, being irritable, not paying attention, making jokes at other peoples expense, being shy, lack of confidence, sleeping while session is going on, not talking, and talking too much are a few.

Use RET Rationale when explaining to students why they should try and get rid of their self defeating behaviors. Confine your interventions to those

behaviors which are indicators of Neuroticism, Extraversion or Introversion. These terms have been defined for you. Encouraging the students to interact on a personal basis will facilitate the accomplishment of goals set by the experimenter.

A list of self-defeating behaviors will be given to each trainer as a guide. These lists are not to be given to the students. We do not wish the students to get involved in discussing content from materials given to them. This will happen in the Didactic Group. The focus should be upon the student's actual behavior in the group. The "here and now."

Albert Ellis is a living psychotherapist who, in the early stages of his career, was a Freudian psychoanalyst. But the longer he used Freudian techniques, the more disenchanted he became with them, principally because he felt it was not working with some of his patients, even for those who had gained great insight into their past, a very important and necessary step in Freudian treatment. Thus Ellis began to develop his own kind of psychoanalytic help.

The key to Rational-Emotive Psychotherapy is the fact that Ellis believes there is a very close tie between one's emotions and his thoughts or internal sentences. Man is unique in that he thinks in words and sentences and thus in a very real way our thoughts

and internalized sentences become our emotions, and since man is able to control his rational enough.¹ Ellis sees unpleasant emotions, especially long-range unpleasant emotions, as being totally irrational.

Ellis gives a great deal of control over his emotions to the human person. He says that we are the ones who make ourselves happy or unhappy, not others. Only if we internalize what others say about us and agree with what they say, can we actually be hurt or made unhappy. It's not what's said or done that's important, but what our interpretation of what's done or said that is crucially important. The past also is important, but it's not crucial. It's our present feeling about the past that is crucial.

For Ellis, and for serious practitioners of Rational-Emotive Psychotherapy, the psychotherapy becomes one's religion, as it certainly has done with Ellis. Ellis calls his religion (besides RT) socialized hedonism, which he defines by saying, "Your paramount absorption should unashamedly be the fulfillment of your own desires, your morality that of enlightened self-interest and unabashed individualism."²

¹Albert Ellis and Robert Harper, A Guide to Rational Living (California: Wilshire Book Co., 1970) p. 13.

²loc. cit., p. 26.

Ellis is very directive in therapy with his patients, often doing the majority of the talking in a therapy session with his patient and prescribing "homework assignments" that his patients are to work on during the coming week or two and then they are to report on how they did during the next therapy session. Implied in these assignments is a willingness on the part of the patient to actively take part in his own therapy, and unless the patient is so willing, therapy with Ellis will not work.

Ellis says that there are ten irrational ideas which many people hold to and which prevent them from being happy and content with their life. For purposes of brevity, I will simply list these ten ideas.

1. It is a dire necessity for an adult to be loved and approved by almost everyone for virtually everything he does.
2. One should be thoroughly competent, adequate, and achieving, in all possible respects.
3. Certain people are bad and villainous and they should be severely blamed and punished for their sins.
4. It is terrible, horrible, and catastrophic when things are not going the way one would like them to go.
5. Human unhappiness is externally caused and that people have little or no ability to control their sorrows.
6. If something is or may be dangerous or fearsome, one should be terribly occupied with and upset about it.

7. It is easier to avoid facing many life difficulties than to undertake more rewarding forms of self-discipline.
8. The past is all important and that because something once strongly affected one's life, it should always do so.
9. People and things should be different from the way they are and it is catastrophic if perfect solutions to the grim realities of life are not immediately found.
10. Maximum human happiness can be achieved by inertia or inaction or by "enjoying oneself."

APPENDIX D

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

THE EFFECTS OF HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING ON SELECTED PERSONALITY VARIABLES

<u>Pre-Test</u>		<u>Post-test</u>
Attitudes		Attitudes
Obtain Base Rate Data	Randomize Treatments	Different Groups
Observed Behavior	Different Groups	Observed Behavior
Group		Group
1. Six people	Social Model	1. Six people
2. Six people	Basic Encounter	2. Six people
3. Six people	Didactic Group	3. Six people
4. Six people	Control Group	3. Six people
Time 2 weeks. 4 one-hour sessions per group.	Time 4 weeks 8 one-hour sessions per group.	Time 2 weeks 4 one-hour sessions per group.

THE EXPERIMENT WILL BE DUPLICATED IN ITS INTIRETY

PHASE I - TWO WEEKS

Group	Day	Room	Time	Day	Room	Time
Wyatt			p.m.			a.m.
1.	Friday	2215	4:30	Saturday	2215	8:00
2.	Sept. 11	2215	5:30	Sept. 12	2215	9:00
3.		2215	6:30		2215	10:00
4.		2215	7:30		2215	11:00
Carl						
5.	Friday	2217	4:30	Saturday	2217	8:00
6.	Sept. 11	2217	5:30	Sept. 12	2217	9:00
7.		2217	6:30		2217	10:00
8.		2217	7:30		2217	11:00

SECOND WEEK Sept. 18 & 19 SAME AS ABOVE

PHASE II - FOUR WEEKS
September 25, 1970 to October 17, 1970

Wyatt			p.m.			a.m.
1. Control	Fridays	2215	4:30	Saturdays	2215	8:00
2. Didactic		2215	5:30		2215	9:00
3. Basic En.		Co.Ce.6:45			C.C.	10:15
4. Social M.		Co.Ce.6:35			C.C.	10:05
Carl						
5. Control	Fridays	2217	4:30	Saturdays	2217	8:00
6. Didactic		2217	5:30		2217	9:00
7. BE Group		3109	6:30-8:30			
8. Soc. Mod.		3109	6:30-8:30			

PHASE III (The same as Phase I)
October 23, 24, 30 & 31, 1970

TESTING, Wednesday, September 2, 1970			
DAVE WAITE'S CLASS IN HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT			
CLASS	11-12:15	ROOM	2210
	1-2:15		3310
	3-4:30		2205

INTROCUCTION TO HUMAN RELATIONS EXPERIENCE

FIRST SESSION

This participation experience will consist of three phases. The first phase is a discussion section in which the students will be given current topics of interest to discuss. This is a data gathering phase in which the students will be observed by an observer placed in your sessions. The behavior of each student will be recorded on a behavioral checklist over this two week period. The mean of his behavior over these four sessions will be recorded. The second phase will be the treatment phase and will last four weeks. The third phase will be the same as the first.

FOR THE STUDENT:

This participation experience will be done in three parts. First, you will be given current topics and events to analyze and discuss. The second part will give you an opportunity to examine your behavior and feelings in small group settings. The third part will be identical to the first part in scope but with different topics.

YOU CAN EXPECT US TO:

1. To lead the teaching sessions and group work sessions.

2. To give you information and help you understand important concepts.
3. To be involved in a personal way in this endeavor.
4. To confront and listen deeply to you.
5. To provide a climate of realness in the discussions which facilitates dealing with life and death kinds of issues.
6. To be honest and shoot straight with you.

WE EXPECT YOU:

1. To attend every session, listen carefully, and work hard towards understanding.
2. To openly tell the workshop leaders when you do not understand a concept.
3. To make every effort to personalize your learnings, applying them to your life.
4. To tell the group how the learnings specifically apply to you.
5. To spend time and effort between classes deepening your understanding of how the class learnings apply to your life.
6. To keep everything you hear or see in confidence. Do not talk of what goes on in these sessions to anyone outside of your immediate group.

DISCUSSION TOPICS FOR THE FIRST PHASE

ALL GROUPS:

- September 11: Student demands in our universities and colleges have gotten out of hand. Administrators should take a firm stand and not give in to student demands, which are most often unreasonable.
- September 12: Entrance requirements for Black students should be the same as those for White students in our universities and colleges. Black students should take the same kinds of tests and should be judged the same as Whites. Do you agree? If not, why?
- September 18: In many of our cities today, Community Control of Schools has become a major issue. Parents and students think that they should have a right to have some say so about how the school is run and about its' curriculum. How do you feel?
- September 19: When a country is in the right, it is O.K. to wage war against another country. The war in Vietnam is a just war and all of America's young people should be proud to defend democracy all over the world. Do you agree with this statement? If not, why?

 PHASE II - TREATMENT PHASE
 ONLY CONTROL GROUP DISCUSSIONS

DISCUSSION TOPICS FOR PHASE III

- October 23: State aid should not be given to parochial schools. Do you agree?
- October 24: Teacher Unions are bad. Teachers who belong to unions are not concerned about the welfare of the child but only of themselves. Since teacher unions have come into being, teachers have done less teaching and more griping. A teacher who does not wish to belong to a union should not be made to.
- October 30: The Nixon Administration's policy toward education is to say the least very

noncomplimentary. He has twice vetoed an educational bill the last of which congress overrided. Nixon says "To have approved the bill would have been inflationary." Do you agree? If not, why?

October 31: Todays university curricula for training teachers is not doing the job. Teachers are finding out that the problems which they face once they are on the job are not dealt with in college. What do you believe would be a good training experience for teachers who plan to teach in an inner-city school.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR CONTROL GROUP
DURING TREATMENT PHASE

- September 25: Human relations training should be a must for all classroom teachers. Do you agree: Why or why not?
- September 26: Teachers should be able to beat a child if he does something to disrupt the class. Do you agree? Why?
- October 2: The abortion law in New York is morally wrong. Do you agree? Why?
- October 3: Revolution in this country is the only way left. Do you agree?
- October 9: Organizations like the SDS and Black Panthers should be exterminated.
- October 10: How would you bridge the generation gap?
- October 16: We made a great mistake when we sent troupes into Cambodia. Agree?
- October 17: The students who were killed at Kent State and Jackson State were killed because they had no business doing what they were doing. Noone should be held responsible, but themselves.

DIDACTIC GROUP LESSONS FOR PHASE II

LESSON I

In this session and the following seven, we will be dealing with the concept of self-defeating behaviors as they relate to neurotic-nonneurotic, and extraverted-introverted personality types. Everyone is to some degree an extravert, introvert, neurotic or non-neurotic type. This is exemplified by his or her behavior. There are healthy extraverts and healthy introverts. Neurotics on the other hand tend to be unhealthy both emotionally and physically. There are, however, some behaviors exhibited by extraverts and introverts which are self-defeating and tend to inhibit a person in his social contacts, on his job or in school. Below are definitions of the typical introvert, extravert and neurotic.

Extraversion-Introversion:

The typical extravert is sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to, and does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment and is generally an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer, and generally likes change.

He is carefree, easygoing, optimistic, and likes to "laugh and be merry." He prefers to keep moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and to lose his temper quickly. His feelings are not kept under tight control, and he is not always a reliable person.

The typical introvert is quiet and retiring. He is introspective, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead, "looks before he leaps," and distrust the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness, and likes a well-ordered mode of life. He keeps his feelings under control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner, and does not lose his temper easily. He is reliable, somewhat pessimistic, and places great value on ethical standards.

Neuroticism:

Neurotics are usually emotionally unstable and overactive or overresponsive; they have difficulty in returning to a normal state after an emotional experience. Such individuals frequently complain of vague somatic upsets of a minor kind, such as headaches, digestive troubles, insomnia, backaches, report many worries, anxieties, and other disagreeable emotional feelings. Such individuals are predisposed to develop neurotic disorders under stress, but such predispositions should

not be confused with actual neurotic breakdown; a person may have high neurotic tendencies while yet functioning adequately in work, sex, family, and society spheres.

HAVE STUDENTS IDENTIFY THEMSELVES BY THE TYPES PRESENTED ABOVE. ASK THEM TO PICK OUT THOSE BEHAVIORS WHICH MAY BE SELF-DEFEATING AMONG THE THREE PERSONALITY TYPES. INVOLVE THE STUDENTS IN A DISCUSSION RELATED TO THESE SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIORS. KEEP THE DISCUSSION IMPERSONAL.

EXAMPLE: YOU MIGHT ASK THE QUESTION, "HOW DOES SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIOR INHIBIT COMMUNICATION AND IMPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE TEACHER AND STUDENT?"

LESSON II

"THE PROCESS OF CREATING SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIORS"

By Milton R. Cudney
and James J. Lowe

To create self-defeating behaviors certain processes must occur. These processes are not only characteristic of particular behaviors, but, in fact, are a part of all self-defeating behavior. In this lesson we are laying bare the essential ingredients for creating self-defeating behaviors.

1. The beginning step is that the person experience from his environment certain events which he experiences as threatening and overwhelming and he believes that

unless he creates behaviors to deal with these threats something undefinably terrible will happen to him. He must either get the message or perceive the truth to be that if he remains as he is, he cannot satisfactorily cope.

Events that serve to encourage the creation of self-defeating behaviors can be such things as: rejection (such as telling a person he is no good and he will be left alone to cope with a frightening world if he stays as he is), given values to live up to that do not fit the person (to say you should not feel when in fact you do or you shouldn't be sexy when it is a natural part of one's self), have inadequacies from parents or other important people projected onto self and convinced that these inadequacies belong to oneself.

2. The creation of self-defeating behaviors is not assured merely by a person experiencing threatening events. If he could listen deeply to himself, for example, when someone said he was a bad boy for being angry at his father or mother, he would know he wasn't bad. At that moment being angry was appropriate for him. The person must make an inner psychic conclusion that there is something wrong with him rather than his environment. He thinks that merely being who I am brings this anxiety. Hence, the creation of anxiety reducing behaviors. He finds out, unfortunately, that

if he denies his anger his mother likes him better and the threat of rejection goes away. The lonely girl finds that if she fantasizes herself as a queen being surrounded by all kinds of attentive men her anxiety about being alone and unloved goes away. A boy sets unduly high standards for himself and finds church people being pleased and he feels that he is a better person and that all will be alright because God is on his side and will take care of him as long as he has these high standards.

3. In order for self-defeating behaviors to be created and sustained they must actually perform an anxiety reduction function initially. The person concludes this behavior is very important to me because look what it did for me. It helps me to cope with terrible feelings and makes me feel better. This behavior is my friend and I must keep it at all cost.

4. The person decides that in order to keep this friend he must have techniques and skills with which to perform this function. Ways of deceiving and defending are created to keep the behavior in tact. If someone discovers his technique or for some reason they do not become operable, new ones must be created. In other words, the person becomes an expert at keeping self-defeating behaviors and might become quite creative in the process.

5. Practice in using self-defeating behaviors is necessary.

6. Although self-defeating behaviors do work at reducing anxiety they always bring negative results to the owner. Ways of rationalizing or denying the results must be created.

7. If a person cannot deny all of the negative results from keeping self-defeating behaviors and he gets involved in change programs he must find ways to defeat these change programs.

THE REAL OR PERCEIVED GAINS FOR KEEPING SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIORS

1. The behavior began when the owner was under stress. The behavior was created to cope with the stress.
2. The behavior was designed to lessen anxiety such as decrease fear, decrease loneliness, or prevent rejection.
3. The behavior is maintained because there is fear one cannot satisfactorily cope with life without the behavior.
4. In an unaware way the person says to himself "I must keep this self-defeating behavior because I receive a very important gain from it."

Participant Involvement in Discussion

1. Discuss this concept to clarify the idea.
2. Have participants discuss their real or perceived gain for keeping their self-defeating behaviors.

LESSON III

A RATIONALE FOR CHANGING SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIORS

Humans are unique beings and it can be a mistake to try and categorize their behavior into certain brackets and label them, because too often this categorizing puts restrictive limits on behaviors that do not fit the categorizations. There are, however, some behaviors that seem to be self-defeating to the persons who own them. A few such behaviors are presented below.

Dr. Milton Cudney of Western University's Counseling has observed these behaviors in people he has worked with over the last few years.

MANIFESTED SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIORS

1. Living for others, trying to please, very concerned about what others think. People with these behaviors also have hostile and resentful feelings towards those they try to please.

2. Feeling a strong desire to be free. A popular notion is to get on a motorcycle and just take off, to roam around with no strings attached, to go to a place that in one's mind is attractive, generally where it is felt that the people will be different. There is a strong feeling of getting away from those people

that are perceived to be putting restrictions on one.

3. An inability to put into words what one feels inside. A strong sense of no one really being able to know what life is like for another.

4. Severe ups and downs in mood, energy, and outlook.

5. The blaming of other people for one's personal difficulties, or the blaming often takes a more generalized form of blaming the system. In the college-age people the blame most often is put onto parents. With married people it goes to the other spouse, but here too, parents often get their share of the blame even when the person has been long gone from the family.

6. A sense of helplessness. A sense of giving up because there seems little hope of doing anything about the situation.

7. Apathy and violence which are direct outgrowths of feeling helpless.

8. Living, by one's mind set towards life, in the past or future.

9. A strong desire to do one's own thing, but the absence of the committant responsibility that is very much connected to doing one's own thing.

10. Fearful of being independent and self-sufficient, yet often maintaining outer behavior that appears the opposite.

11. Psychological irresponsibility that manifests itself by people not recognizing that one's behavior is largely a result of decisions made by the individual. And, in addition, as cultural forces impinge on a person, not to recognize that there are alternate choices as to what one's reactions to these forces will be.

12. An antagonism towards institutions, i.e., government, education, business, church, and family because these institutions are perceived to be stifling personal growth (which is accurate). However, there is a lack of realization on the part of many individuals that while they are antagonistic and rejectful of institutions, they do contribute to the size and power of them every time they maintain internal disorder within their person. For it is clearly evident that when a person fails to maintain order within himself he will give the reins of his life to outer organizations even though he may consciously wish otherwise. And it is this continuation of internal disorder that helps build institutions to be so large and powerful that they dictate to people how they should behave.

13. The most common pervasive behavior, one which encompasses the previous list, is the hiding of oneself, the fear of genuinely just being who one is in particular moments with other people.

14. Playing practical jokes on people and having fun at other people's expense.

15. Always complaining about your health.

16. Not being able to control one's temper or emotions.

17. Acting on the spur of the moment without giving any thought to the consequences of one's actions.

18. Being too serious about life, so much so that one is too introspective and quiet.

19. Letting other people take advantage of oneself all of the time.

20. Becoming excited too easily and not being able to calm oneself.

21. Worrying too much about insignificant events and displaying outward signs of anxiety and frustration.

As one continues to interact with people that manifest these, and other self-defeating behavior, the question of why do people have these behaviors keeps cropping up.

ASK THE STUDENTS TO IDENTIFY THOSE BEHAVIORS LISTED ABOVE WHICH ARE EITHER EXTRAVERTED, INTROVERTED OR NEUROTIC. GIVE REASONS WHY THEY MIGHT HAVE DEVELOPED.

LESSON IV

REASONS FOR THE BEHAVIORS

In the last session, we looked at some self-defeating behaviors then as a group tried to give some reasons for those behaviors being developed. We will continue with this same train of thought in the present lesson.

As one listens to people, these are the messages they behaviorally cite that give explanation to the reasons for the self-defeating behaviors.

1. As a helpless baby I came into a culture which had values and a way of perceiving life that in many ways was contrary to me as a human being. My culture valued things outside of people and I got the message that these inner feelings and thought I had were wrong.

2. My culture presented a dichotomous reality and it contributed to a split in my thinking. I think in terms of black and white, either-or, and a division of mind and body.

3. My culture gave me ideas about masculinity and femininity that didn't fit me as a growing child. Boys do want to cry sometimes. Girls aren't always the nicey-nice person the culture tries to evoke, Sex interest is not bad.

4. My culture failed to see difference in intellect, looks, skin color, and size as just differences. Values

of right and wrong, values of better or worse, moral judgments were attached, and I became confused.

5. As a child my body told me to listen to myself and reject these wrong pressures, but I was so small and helpless, and the culture so large and powerful and seemingly right that I didn't quite know what to do and I was anxious.

6. In growing up in the best way that I could find, through trial and error and circumstances, I lessened this anxiety. Because I needed approval as a child and because I feared rejection by important people around me I tried to fit into my culture. When I tried and could not succeed I gave up and dropped out. Most often, however, I worked at fitting myself to these cultural pulls.

7. To fit in, thus perceiving that I was more accepted, I set my inner self off from my outer self.

8. In setting this inner self off from the outer self, I denied my inner person which resulted in doubts about myself, suspiciousness of inner being and fear of others touching me in these areas.

9. Systems of defense were created and fed by me to hide and protect this inner self.

10. These systems of defense today are protecting my inner being but also bringing unfortunate results in my life. It is clear that while I maintain defenses

and perpetuate ineffective behaviors I am my own worst enemy.

11. Today, as I come to this group, the results referred to in my last statement are:

- a. The inside and outside work against each other.
- b. I distort reality because I project my internal confusion on my outer world and I end up not knowing what is me and what's out there.
- c. My insides make choices that my conscious mind is largely unaware of and I do not realize myself as a choice maker. Thus, I do not really believe another when they tell me I am doing all this to myself. Thus, I'm irresponsible in that I do not take responsibility for what I am really doing.
- d. I am alienated from myself and I do the same thing to others. Apathy and violence are common outgrowths of this.
- e. My openness to growth is largely not available because of my defensive armor.
- f. I am lonely, lonely mainly because I am not together with myself nor with others.
- g. Energy put into defenses cannot be put into creative living.
- h. Ofttimes I intellectually understand what I am doing, and how, and why, but I'm unable to change.

THE MAIN THRUST OF THIS LESSON IS THAT A PERSON IS THE PERPETUATOR OF HIS OR HER OWN DIFFICULTIES.

Relate this rationale to extraverted and neurotic behavior. Pick out those extraverted, introverted and neurotic behaviors which are self-defeating and try to build reasons for their existence. Discuss the

foregoing case.

The idea is to keep referring to extraverted, introverted and neurotic self-defeating behaviors in each lesson so that the student will perceive those behaviors as being unwanted.

LESSON V

Detrimental behaviors have negative results and these should be spelled out. The client needs to see the hurt he and others feel as a result of this continuing to behave ineffectively. The alienation he feels, his depressions, his apathy, his meaninglessness, his confused personal and interpersonal relationships, etc., all need to be clearly seen. This is because for someone to continue acting ineffectively, at least on a behavioral level, he believes it is the best way to behave even when his mind might tell him something else.

In all cases of people behaving in ways that work against themselves there are either real or perceived gains for the maintenance of the behavior. These need to be brought out into the open. It may be that the person is trying to avoid loneliness, or avoid rejection, attempting to gain approval, being dependent and thinking that is a good thing, avoiding a hurt, etc.

IDENTIFYING THE ACTUAL NEGATIVE RESULTS OF THE BEHAVIORS

As long as a person continues to maintain a self-defeating behavior his inner belief is that the end results are better for him than if he were unable to use the behavior.

This inner conclusion can be changed by compiling realistic data which a person can use to honestly confront himself on the issue concerning the actual results of self-defeating behaviors. When a person honestly realizes he would be better off without the behavior he can risk (not using self-defeating behavior after having used it for a long time feels like a risk) not using it at a particular moment and experience that life is better to him without it.

One way to understand the intent of this lesson is to visualize a scale which on one side has the accumulated reasons one believes he should keep the behavior. On the other side list reasons the behavior should be changed.

1. Experiences missed because self-defeating behaviors are maintained. In some ways identifying negative results is difficult to understand because so many of the results are not directly felt by us. Many of the results are experiences missed, and this is difficult to grasp. How can you miss the book that wasn't written, the poem that went unsaid, the thrill

of a deeper love, the fragrance of the Springtime because you got in the way of your smelling, the meaning of people because you did not extend yourself? Think of how much we miss because we stand back away from people and hide behind feelings of inadequacy, poor self-concept, apathy, reluctance, and deceiving ourselves.

Think of the creativity that is missed because as we walk through life we keep putting the same old behavioral patterns into gear. We don't realize the newness and the growth and the thrill and even the hurt and pain of new ways of behaving and reacting. Continuing to put old patterns into operation causes us to pay a high price in lack of spontaneity, creativity, authenticity, giving of ourselves to others, and fulfilling ourselves.

If an engine of a car, to use an analogy, was an eight cylinder auto (and had capacity well beyond that if it opened itself to growth) and only functioned on two cylinders its' entire life, and somehow asked the engine if it was happy and doing its best, it would say 'yes' because it knew nothing but the level of functioning that it had performed. That is like us! Unless we can understand the price we pay in keeping self-defeating behaviors we will never let them go. We have to know this deep inside.

2. Common direct results of self-defeating behaviors.

- a. Loss of friends and loved ones
- b. Injustice done to others
- c. Physical difficulties such as ulcers and headaches
- d. Loss of job and money
- e. Money spent for tranquilizing drugs
- f. Being lonely
- g. Unhappiness
- h. Heavy weight of anxiety
- i. Confused relationships
- j. Can't be ourselves
- k. Depression
- l. Early death
- m. Inner doubt

3. The accumulated effect of self-defeating behaviors in our culture.

- a. People in our culture seldom meet in deep ways. What is common is that people interact mask to mask or defensive structure to defense structure.
- b. A result is a noisy static in the minds of people and causes our country to do harmful things to ourselves and others. We see the enemy without when he is within and by looking in the wrong place we never get an answer to our dilemma. By maintaining noise we:
 - 1. Impair our relationships with other countries
 - 2. Create a credibility gap between government and people and between adults and youth

3. Persecute certain minority groups

Group Involvement: What price do each of you pay for keeping your behavior? Please give thought to this and share your thoughts with each other. Discussion.

LESSON VI

"ELIMINATING SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIORS"

By Milton R. Cudney
and James J. Lowe

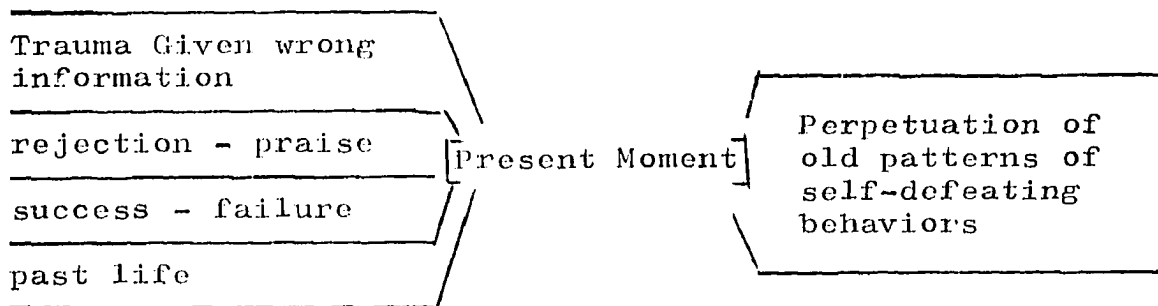
YOU ARE YOUR OWN WORST ENEMY

In this lesson we would like to help you face up to the fact that as long as you continue using self-defeating behaviors you are an enemy to yourself. In addition, we want you to realize that you are doing these behaviors and bringing onto yourself the results of these behaviors.

People seldom fully admit that they are the creators and perpetuators of their self-defeating behaviors. Sometimes they make partial admission. Sometimes they make intellectual admission but do not face this issue squarely inside. Ways of avoiding seeing oneself as his own worst enemy is to blame other people, one's childhood, present circumstances (draft, bomb), Parents, lack of parents, response. People can even blame themselves as a way of excusing themselves

from doing anything about changing. Sometimes people blame their stomach, or feelings, or some other part of their body for why they do self-defeating behaviors.

Each moment of life is a new moment, and the possibility of being different is always available, but too often we do not take the opportunity to be different. The diagram below might help to clarify this concept. Imagine your life as a river flowing along. The river has a past and a future. The future depends on what happens at any particular moment.



The future does not have to be a re-run of the past.

Examples of being an enemy to oneself:

1. Try to study and have one's mind wander
2. To make a mountain out of a molehill
3. To take reactions of others in the wrong way and end up being hurt
4. Getting oneself all nerved-up and tense over various situations and then have difficulty performing
5. To behave in such a way so as to get fired or kicked out of school or rejected by a boyfriend or girlfriend
6. Always focus on what is bad in self and others

7. To stutter
8. To keep from having orgasm
9. To quit prior to finishing important task
10. To get excited easily over nothing
11. Always worrying about one's health and complaining to others about one's troubles
12. Having fun at others expense. Loss of friends as a result

INVOLVE THE GROUP IN A DISCUSSION OF BEING THEIR OWN WORST ENEMY. HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT: WATCH AND CATCH YOURSELF BEING AN ENEMY TO YOURSELF AND BRING THIS INFORMATION BACK TO THE WORKSHOP FOR DISCUSSION. INSTRUCTORS: REMEMBER TO DEAL WITH CONTENT RATHER THAN FEELINGS.

LESSON VII

"CATCHING YOURSELF IN ACTION"

By Milton R. Cudney
and James J. Lowe

People respond to life's pulls with lots of behaviors, some of which are self-defeating. We are the doer of self-defeating behaviors.

To do self-defeating behaviors or things we must have a way to pull this off. If we take a close look at the dynamics of the behavior we can most often see how this is accomplished.

Most people that do self-defeating behaviors do not let themselves know how they do it. There are reasons for this. If they did let themselves know they would be open to facing the feelings and anxiety behind the behavior. They would have to risk change. Doing the behavior over and over makes it seem so close that it is difficult to see, too.

Choice is a big part of keeping self-defeating behaviors, because to keep them we must make choices to put the behavior into question. This is what we want to understand and see today. We want to see ourselves as choice makers and doers of self-defeating behaviors.

Choosing is accomplished by:

1. Telling ourselves certain ideas such as:
 - a. I can't face the world alone.
 - b. People won't like me without doing this and that would be terrible.
 - c. Risking would be hurtful and bad for me.
 - d. Making a mistake is a horrible sin.
 - e. Other people must love me constantly or I will be unhappy.
 - f. If I let go the behavior the same feelings I experienced when I created the behavior will come back and overwhelm me.
2. Putting new experiences through old perceptions:

An example of this could be that you experience we workshop leaders as fearful when, in fact,

you have had no actual experiences that tell you that I should be feared. You might be screening us through other adults you have known or teachers or authorities. Or you might be afraid of me because I am a man and see me through past experiences with others and not experience me anew for what I am.

You need to see how your mind processes experiences and what it does with it. Your mind is you. To see this is to become the master of your mind.

3. Distort reality. To change reality to fit structures you have within yourself rather than to take life as it is.
4. Veering away from touchy areas. You must catch yourself as the veerer. You might make some areas off-limits and constantly keep away from them. Areas such as hostility, anger, fear, sexiness are examples of this.
5. Blanking your mind or making your thinking vague when you get near important data and if you saw it you would have to change. You must see yourself as a blanker of your mind.
6. Maintaining a split between the inside and the outside.

To be the master of your eliminating self-defeating behaviors you must catch yourself in action. Opportunities for catching are available constantly in your everyday living. You might consider putting yourself in situations in which you know you are likely to defeat yourself so you can see yourself choosing to do it.

YOU NEED TO GET YOURSELF TO THE MOMENT OF TRUTH, THAT MOMENT YOU ARE ABOUT TO PUT A SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIOR INTO OPERATION AND AT THAT MOMENT YOU HAVE FULL FREEDOM TO CHANGE. In making choices to function without self-defeating behaviors life will be better for you and this factor will reinforce your use of healthier behaviors.

LESSON VIII

Review at this Point

Review Lessons One through Seven and then involve the students in a discussion. Try to get the students to relate the Self-defeating Behavior Concept to their own behaviors as they have occurred in the preceding sessions.

GIVE OUT NEW GROUP ASSIGNMENTS FOR PHASE III BEFORE STUDENTS LEAVE.

APPENDIX E

PROCESS EVALUATION SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS TO RATERS: Listen to the tapes until you think you can determine if the dialogue taking place is of an introspective or impersonal nature. Listen to different segments of the tapes and then rate them on the five point scales below.

Introspective in this study is defined as dialogues dealing with interpersonal interaction of an affective nature. Impersonal is defined in this study as dealing with the cognitive domain only. Subjects may discuss but the dialogue and or the trainer interventions are never introspective in nature.

INTROSPECTIVE
AFFECTIVE

IMPERSONAL
COGNITIVE

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —

5 — 4 — 3 — 2 — 1 —