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## The Effects of Varying a T Group Design upon Self Concept

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THE EFFECTS OF VARYING A T GROUP  
DESIGN UPON SELF CONCEPT

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A Thesis  
Presented to  
the Graduate Faculty  
Central Washington State College

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In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Science

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by  
George Richard Woodruff  
August, 1969

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James S. Green

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Howard B. Scott

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine what effects the varying of a T Group design will have upon self concept.

One of the assumptions held by many people involved in the behavioral sciences is that self awareness and an understanding of human relations can be developed within an individual. The assumption is that an individual needs to see self in positive ways, and further, an assertion that development of self awareness, can be accomplished and that this will contribute to positive self-perception. An individual needs to see himself in positive ways, to know that he as an individual has some personal worth. Combs (1962, p. 53) states that a positive self is learned according to how people treat the learner. . . "People learn they are able, not from failure, but from success." The 1962 ASCD Yearbook Committee states "a positive self is teachable. If the self is learned as a function of experience, then, whether we are aware of it or not, children learn about themselves in the classroom. . . they learn about themselves from the kind of



experiences we and they provide." According to Combs, adequate persons are characterized by openness to events, a positive view of self, their willingness to confront reality, their willingness to permit data into awareness, (including perceptions about themselves, identification with others, acceptance of and openness to experience). He maintains that, "since all of these ways of perceiving are learned, they can also be taught if we can find ways to provide the necessary kinds of experience (p. 61)."

#### T Group Laboratory Experience Description and Goals.

T Group laboratory experiences are conducted with the intention of providing the individual with an opportunity to engage in open interaction with others in a non-threatening atmosphere. Through this kind of atmosphere and interaction it is believed that individuals will become more aware of themselves, of others, and of the structure of human relationships. The 1968-69 NTL Yearbook (p. 10) states "until the individual has an opportunity to reveal the way he sees things and does things he has little basis for improvement and change." This occurs when individuals are able to interact with one another within an atmosphere of trust and non-defensiveness and where people are willing to expose their

behavior to the open scrutiny of others.

The concept of T Group training was first put into action at Bethel, Maine. This first program was largely confined to a human relations laboratory. The use of the word laboratory was explained by Bradford, Gibb and Benne (1969, p. 3) as follows: "The term laboratory was not idly chosen. A training laboratory is a community dedicated to the stimulation and support of experimental learning and change and protected for the time from the full practical consequences of innovative action in ongoing associations."

The theory and general concepts of T Groups and laboratory training have been discussed by many writers, including Schein and Bennis (1965), Gordon (1950), Stock (1958), Shepherd (1964), Kemp (1964), and Luft (1963). A T Group is a relatively unstructured training group in which individuals participate as learners; it is also concerned with the participant's behavior and transactions within the T Group. In further clarification, Burke and Bennis (1961, p. 166) have described it as:

A device where, in an initially unstructured setting with the usual group controls, the members develop group norms, standards, power, and friendship structures, patterns of communication, and shared problems on which to work. In the process they analyze their

own behavior and that of others in the group, sharing these observations with other group members to gain both personal skills and insight, and knowledge of group functioning.

Cabianca (1967, p. 15) describes Rogers' use of the term "basic encounter group" as another way to refer to the T Group laboratory experience. In further elaboration, according to Cabianca, Rogers describes this experience by indicating that:

In an intensive group with much freedom and little structure, the individual will gradually feel safe enough to drop some of his defenses and facades; that he will relate more directly on a feeling basis, that is, come into a basic encounter with other members of the group; that he will come to understand himself and his relationship to others more accurately; that he will change in his personal attitudes and behavior; that he will subsequently relate more effectively with others in his everyday life situation.

Emphasis in T Group training has been concerned with the "here and now" opposed to the "there and then." These terms have been defined by Benne, Bradford, Lippitt (1964, p. 46), as follows: "here and now" focuses on immediate experiences of participants, while "there and then" focuses on prior experiences of participants, or prior feelings of the participant, directing to situations away from the laboratory. In further elaboration, Campbell and Dunnette (1968, p. 75) describe the "here and now" as behavior that is emitted in the group rather than behavior involving past experiences or

future problems. . . (on immediate) feelings and emotions experienced by the group members. More specifically Bradford, Gibb, and Benne (p. 2) state:

A T Group is a relatively unstructured group in which individuals participate as learners. The data for learning are not outside these individuals or remote from their immediate experience within the T Group. The data are transactions among members, their own behavior in the group, as they struggle to create a productive and viable organization, a miniature society; and as they work to simulate and support one another's learning within the society.

The revised NTL Reading Book (1969, p. 4) describes the T Group laboratory experience as:

A group formed for individual learning purposes where the data are created and analyzed by group work and not fed in from the outside and interpreted by a teacher, where learning is a group task entered into jointly, where the trainer does not deny the group the experience of creating and maintaining their own group even though this experience will be difficult and may produce anxiety.

Benne (1964, p. 217) indicated that the "most obvious characteristic of the T Group is the absence of any prearranged or externally assigned task," relating to "outside" problems. The NTL Yearbook (p. 14) describes a T Group experience as "A safe area" in which one's own feelings and those of one's group fellows may be observed and felt and their consequences upon personal and group action be observed." Similar descriptions of the T Group experience placing emphasis upon

honesty or openness and opportunity to learn about group functioning, were given by Schutz and Allen (1966).

The goals of T Group training have been discussed by many writers, including Bunker (1965) and Kemp (1964). Bradford, Gibb and Benne (p. 16 and 17) identified the purpose of laboratory training as being concerned with offering opportunities to improve the quality of participants in various associations and participation in diverse human affairs. More specifically they identified the goals as:

1. the participant's increased awareness of and sensitivity to emotional reactions and expressions in himself and in others.
2. greater ability to perceive and to learn from the consequences of his actions through attention to feelings, his own and others.
3. to stimulate the clarification and development of personal values and goals consonant with a democratic and scientific approach to problems of social and personal decision and action.
4. the development of concepts and theoretical insights which will serve as tools in linking personal values, goals, and intentions to actions consistent with these inner factors and with the requirements of the situation.
5. a laboratory curriculum designed to help some unit human organization assess its needs for change and to support that unit in inventing and testing ways in which changes may be achieved.

Fiebert (1968) outlines participant goals as follows:

1. a lowered threshold for personal self disclosure.
2. a lowered threshold for the open expression of positive and negative feelings.
3. increased awareness of one's feelings.

4. an increased ability to perceive the feelings of others and to process both verbal and nonverbal cues.
5. an increase in one's behavioral repertoire which can permit a decrease in feelings of stress and increase in feelings of satisfaction.

Stock (1958), in her survey of research on T Groups, finds the goals to be aimed toward facilitating learning of a special type:

1. increased sensitivity toward group processes.
2. increased awareness of the character of one's own group functioning.
3. increased ability to deal with a variety of group situations.

She concludes that the learnings which an individual gains at a human relations laboratory are valuable to the extent that he is able to utilize them in the groups which are important to him in his backhome setting. Schein and Bennis (1965, p. 35) state that the goals of a T Group usually include:

1. self-insight, or some variation of learning related to increased self-knowledge.
2. understanding the conditions which inhibit or facilitate group functioning.
3. understanding interpersonal operations in groups.
4. developing skills for diagnosing individuals, group, and organizational behavior.

They identify more specifically the following goals related to self:

1. increased awareness of own feelings and reactions and own impact on others.
2. increased awareness of feelings and reactions of

- others and their impact on self.
3. increased awareness of dynamics of group action.
  4. changed attitudes toward self, others, and groups; i.e., more respect for, tolerance and faith in self, others, and groups.
  5. increased interpersonal competence; i.e., skill in handling interpersonal and group relationships toward more productive and satisfying relationships.

In a summary of the effectiveness of T Group experience, Campbell and Dunnette (p. 74) have listed the following as desired outcomes:

1. Increased self-insight or self-awareness concerning one's own behavior and its meaning in a social context. This refers to the common aim of learning how others see and interpret one's behavior and gaining insight into why one acts in certain ways in different situations.
2. Increased sensitivity to the behavior of others. It refers first, to the development of an increased awareness of the full range of communicative stimuli emitted by other persons (voice inflections, facial expressions, bodily positions, and other contextual factors, in addition to the actual choice of words) and second, to the development of the ability to infer accurately the emotional or noncognitive bases for interpersonal communications. This goal is very similar to the concept of empathy as it is used by clinical and counseling psychologists; that is, the ability to infer correctly what another person is feeling.
3. Increased awareness and understanding of the types of processes that facilitate or inhibit group functioning and the interactions between different groups - specifically, why do some members participate actively while others retire to the background? Why do subgroups form and wage war against each other? How and why are pecking orders established? Why do different groups, who may actually share the same goals, sometimes create seeming insoluble conflict situations?

4. Heightened diagnostic skill in social, interpersonal, and intergroup situations. Achievement of the first three objectives should provide an individual with a set of explanatory concepts to be used in diagnosing conflict situations, reasons for poor communication, and the like.

5. Learning how to learn. This does not refer to an individual's cognitive approach to the world, but rather to his ability to analyze continually his own interpersonal behavior for the purpose of helping himself and others achieve more effective and satisfying interpersonal relationships.

Laboratory training was referred to by Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1962, p. 34 35) as sensitivity training, "an approach to human relations which is aimed at getting people to feel and behave differently." They claim that these aims may be realized through the acquisition of the more specific goals of understanding others and of self understanding.

Their reasoning is as follows:

Deficiencies in social sensitivity and behavioral flexibility are often related to unresolved personality conflicts within us. The existence of these internal conflicts often blurs our understanding of others and impedes our effectiveness in behaving appropriately. Therefore the starting point of sensitivity training is to help the trainee gain better insight into himself.

Research on the T Group Laboratory Experience. In general, research investigations support the thesis that T Group laboratory experience can promote changes in attitudes, in self-concept, in interpersonal relationships, in behavior



toward others, and in value changes. Grater (1959), using the Bills Inventory of Adjustment to obtain discrepancy scores between the real self and ideal self scores on the instrument, revealed a significant reduction in the discrepancy between the two scores following a leadership training class conducted along T Group lines. Burke and Bennis (1958) measured six training groups who attended NTL's Bethel Summer Laboratory in 1958. Administering a Group Semantic Differential the first and third weeks, they found significant changes, greater congruence between perceived "actual self" and perceived "ideal self." Burke and Bennis (1961) found by using a Group Semantic Differential scale, that the perceived "actual self" and the perceived "ideal self" were much closer to each other at the end of laboratory training than at the beginning. They concluded that the laboratory is a powerful medium of change and can be beneficial in reorienting perceptions of members. Clark and Culbert (1965) presented a theory that T Group members become more self-aware as a result of participating in mutually therapeutic relationships, where one person congruently expresses feelings and allows the other member to express feelings also. The Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory was used to assess

a person's perception of a therapeutic relationship. The results supported their hypothesis of increased self-awareness. In the Carson and Lakin study (1963) attempts were made to replicate and improve upon the Burke and Bennis (1961) study concerning changes in self-concept and perception of others following sensitivity training. The group members filled out a 16-scale rating instrument for themselves and every other member of their group two weeks after training. Data from one of the two T Groups supported most of Burke and Bennis' hypotheses. Bunker (1965) used an open-ended perceived change questionnaire given a year after the laboratory to each subject and seven of his job associates to assess what changes they saw the subject making in the way he worked with people. He correlated this with a trainer rating of change completed at the conclusion of the laboratory. The results identified the following as changes effected by laboratory training: (1) increased openness, receptivity, and tolerance of differences, (2) increased operational skill in interpersonal relations, and (3) improved understanding and awareness of self, other, and interactive processes in groups. Schutz and Allen (1966) using the FIRO-B instrument, measuring expressed and desired inclusion, control, and

affection in interpersonal relations, found that participants in a T Group laboratory will change their fundamental orientation toward interpersonal relationships in a direction appropriate to the needs of a given individual after the T Group experience; e.g., the cold and reserved become more friendly.

Campbell and Dunnette (p. 101), concerning changes after the T Group laboratory, stated that, "In summary it seems relatively well established that the way in which an individual sees himself may indeed change during the course of a T Group."

The following are some of the instruments that have been used in evaluating T Group outcomes. French (1966) used the COPI (Communicated Objective Public Identity) and a 19-item Semantic Differential assessing their perception. Kassarijiam (1965) used the I-O Social Preference Scale, a measure of inner-other direction. Benn-Zeev (1951) and Stock (1958) used a Q-Sort. Green (1969) used the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

Criticisms and Questions Concerning T Groups. The quality and depth of the research to date has left much room for further exploration. Most of the recent research on

T Group training has not been very much concerned with the effects of trainer behavior, group time, group composition, group variables, and features of training designs as determinants of T Group outcomes. Heslet (1969, p. 1) reports that McGrath and Altman (1966) "come to certain conclusions regarding various aspects of group dynamics, a large portion thereof resulting in the conclusion, there is no clear-cut pattern of results. The observation is made that research in this area has not only become redundant but conflictual in that for most any study done there is another one which in its pseudo-replication negates the former." Campbell and Dunnette (p. 80) in their review of problems facing T Group research state that, "unless the various components and strategies involved in interpersonal sensitivity are taken into account during the design and implementation of research investigations, little new knowledge concerning T-group training effects. . . will accrue." Critics of the T Group experience, such as Thomas (1965), have amply pointed out that there is a serious lack of existing research on the general effects of group training; and they call for more research in this area. Tuckman (1965) has criticized research on group work for its lack of experimental rigor.

Gibb (1964) contended that T Group theory has yet to be refined and that the current status of theories was rather fragmentary. He referred to T Group theory not as a theory of group development, of influence, or even of personal dynamics, but as "a peculiar emergent Gestalt which deals with intent to learn and to change through increasing process awareness." Research evidence was described by Schein and Bennis (p. 237) as being meager "largely because of the fantastic difficulties of doing valid evaluation research." Kagan (1966) is cited in Anderson (1969, p. 1) as maintaining that it is very difficult to do valid research because the specific procedures and techniques have not been laid out in sufficient detail to permit replication of these studies. He states that although some procedures are now dimly perceptible, they are still essentially lacking. Harrison (1967, p. 11) points to the fact that historically we have studied the outcomes of training, but have neglected the process. "Instead of simply measuring participants before and after their passage through a black box called training, we must make some hypothesis about what it is that happens to the person which causes us to predict one outcome rather than another." The solution according to Harrison is to give

comparable groups of participants training which differs systematically along some important process dimension.

Platt (1964) and Rosenthal (1966) both state that the results the investigator hopes for have a way of turning up, unless he actively seeks in the beginning to compare more than one treatment and to test multiple contending hypotheses. Schein and Bennis (1961, p. 238) stated, "On the whole, results are positive and warrant the optimism we have about laboratory training. But vastly greater efforts will have to be made before we can firmly say that laboratory training has been proven to be an effective method of personal learning and organizational change."

Bunker and Knowles (1967) studied the effects of laboratories conducted for different lengths of time. Their assumption behind this kind of design was that if "the amount and kind of training outcome vary systematically and predictably as functions of some input (whether the design, the type of participant, the behavior of training staff, or whatever) then the obtained changes can be viewed as real." Their study was conducted in human relations training laboratories at Bethel, Maine. T Groups of three weeks duration (n=53) and those of two weeks duration (n=102) were compared against

one another and against a matched control group. Questionnaires were sent to each participant and his co-workers, and the results revealed that the participants in the three-week laboratory changed more than the participants in the two-week laboratory. Argyris (1965, I-II) tried to evaluate the relative effectiveness of lecture vs laboratory in the subject areas of interpersonal and group dynamics. The data (measured on behavior categories developed by the author) suggests that a laboratory approach with its emphasis upon exploration and confrontation, seems to provide more behavioral change. Boyd and Elliss (1962) compared the effects of laboratory training with the effects of a more conventional program utilizing case discussions and lectures. Participants in the laboratory training reported an increase in self awareness (observers were asked whether or not they had noticed any change in the behavior of the participants).

It has been reported by Stock (1965) that little has been done in the area of trainer design or what role the trainer assumes. She states:

In the more traditional T Group, the issue of trainer's role is one of the relatively unexplored areas. On a descriptive level, we do not know how much variation there is in the styles of different trainers or the type and range of trainer-inventions likely to

be made in a T Group. With reference to process, we do not know how different trainer styles influence the functioning of the group and its usefulness to the individual participant.

Culbert (1968) studied the effects of the leader's self-disclosure in two T Groups. In that study, one of the weekly sessions was spent in the T Group with two co-trainers and the other session was spent with one group member pairing off with another. The subjects in the group with the less self-disclosing trainers more often entered into relationships with their trainers and dual partners and the subjects with the more self-disclosing trainers more often entered into relationships with other group members. When Powers (1965) examined trainer orientation, the basic dimensions were determined through use of FIRO-F. A resource orientation (high desire to give) and a need orientation (high desire to receive) were shown for trainers. The results indicate that participants perceived resource-oriented trainers more positively than need-oriented trainers. Salzberg (1967), in a study using psychiatric patients in a human relations training program, using groups which met without trainers or therapists for four weeks, found that no significant differences existed between sessions attended



by the therapist and those sessions where the therapist observed but did not attend. Self-administered behavioral rating scales were used.

It would seem, then, that research regarding such laboratory training ought to concern itself with trainer variables and effects of different laboratory designs upon outcomes of the T Group experience.

Self-Concept-Theory and Definition. Interest in self-concept and its relationship to the behavior of an individual has been expressed by many people involved in the behavioral sciences, and in educational settings. The revised NTL Reading Book (1969) describes the self-concept as including both good and bad feelings one has about himself. Much of the recent work that has been done with self-concept has been put forth by individuals such as Rogers, Allport, and Combs, and Snygg. Because of the importance of their views, a brief discussion on how self-concept is described by them will be given in this section along with an explanation of how self-concept is used in this study.

Rogers (1951) presented one of the early notions of self-conceptor "self structure" which he described as "an

organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness (p. 136)." The self-concept for Rogers was viewed as being made up of perceptions one has of his: (1) characteristics and abilities. . . (2) relation to others and to the environment. . . (3) the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences . . . (4) the goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive and negative valence. The self was referred to by Rogers as possessing the tendency toward enhancement and maintenance of itself.

Another view on the self was that expressed by Allport, (Pp. 101-110) in relationship to the self and others. He emphasized the importance to an individual of a ". . . capacity for a warm, profound relating of one's self to others. . . a compassionate regard for all living creatures."

Combs and Snygg (p. 126) used the term "phenomenal self" to refer to the "organization of all the ways an individual has of seeing himself. . ." According to Combs those perceptions which seemed most vital to the individual formed an organized pattern which are viewed as the self-concept. The self-concept includes a concern about the positive feeling one has about himself. Combs and Snygg (p. 239) assert

that the degree to which persons are satisfied with themselves and look to themselves as being adequate persons, "(seeing) themselves in essentially positive ways and as a consequence free and open to their experiences," will determine their effectiveness in their relationships with people.

The purposes of this present study are not concerned with pursuing the question of what the self-concept is. However, self-concept will be used as a measurement defined by the three instruments used in this study.

The research seems to indicate that one of the biggest unexplored areas in T Group laboratory training is that of training design. The research question becomes: How does the differing of design affect the outcomes of T Groups?

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD

#### Design of the Study

This study concerned itself with two different T Group designs (training designs as variables which may affect T Group outcomes). The trainer was the same for both the groups, but the design dictating the trainer's approach was different between groups. One group (Group 1) was the more traditional T Group and was characterized by a non-structured approach (defined here as T Group experience without the use of exercises). The other group (Group 2) was characterized by a more structured approach (defined here as a T Group experience with the use of many exercises and handouts). An outline of the schedules for the T Group experience is presented in Tables 1 and 2.

The purpose of each exercise or handout in Group 2 was to emphasize a specific area of behavior or to practice a particular skill relating to communication, observations, helping relationships, or human relations in general. In some cases, exercises were used to elicit some specific behavior so that a particular skill could be practiced (e.g.,

TABLE 1

| SCHEDULE FOR T GROUP LABORATORY EXPERIENCE GROUP 1                  |  |                                       |                                       |   |  |
|---|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|--|
| MONDAY  | TUESDAY                                | WEDNESDAY                             | THURSDAY                              | FRIDAY  | SATURDAY   |
|   |  | JUNE 18<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group | JUNE 19<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group | JUNE 20<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group<br>4:00-10:00 P.M.<br>T Group |  |
| JUNE 23<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group<br>4:00-10:00 P.M.<br>T Group | JUNE 24<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group  | JUNE 25<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group | JUNE 26<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group | JUNE 27<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group                               | JUNE 28<br>9:00-12:00 A.M.<br>T Group<br>1:00-9:00 P.M.<br>T Group |
| JUNE 30<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>T Group<br>4:00-10:00 P.M.<br>T Group | JULY 1<br>Instrument<br>Administration |                                       |                                       |   |  |

TABLE 2

| SCHEDULE FOR T GROUP LABORATORY EXPERIENCE GROUP 2  |   |   |  |  |   |
|---|---|---|--|--|---|
| MONDAY  | TUESDAY   | WEDNESDAY   | THURSDAY   | FRIDAY   | SATURDAY  |
|   |   | JULY 2<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>1) I's exercise<br>2) One-word communication exercise                    | JULY 3<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>3) Expectations worksheet<br>4:00-9:00 P.M.<br>4) Paraphrasing handout<br>5) Beachball exercise | JULY 4<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>6) Feedback handout triads using feedback handout               |   |
| JULY 7<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>7) One-way two-way communication exercises<br>8) Behavior description handout<br>9) Who Am I | JULY 8<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>10) Self-knowledge questionnaire | JULY 9<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>11) Perceptions checking others feelings handout<br>12) Trainer exercise | JULY 10<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>13) Expressing our own feelings handout<br>14) Guess who exercise                              | JULY 11<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>15) Fish bowl exercise<br>4:00-9:00 P.M.<br>Alter-ego exercise | JULY 12<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>16) Blindfold exercise<br>12:00-9:00 P.M.<br>No exercises |
| JULY 14<br>9:00-11:00 A.M.<br>17) Taking stock exercise   | JULY 15<br>Instrument Administration                          |   |  |  |   |

the use of paraphrasing to clarify meaning and intent). At other times handouts were used to emphasize concepts which were considered important for further learning (e.g., the reasons for giving feedback). In all instances, distribution and reading of the handouts was followed with discussion of their contents and/or an exercise which provided the participants an opportunity to apply what had been described and discussed in the handout.

Copies of the handouts and descriptions of the exercises are included in the appendix section of this paper so that they may be replicated by others. The following list of exercises and handouts used in Group 2 is presented in the order in which they were used in the T Group laboratory.

#### Exercises and Handouts.

1. The I's exercise
2. One-word communication exercise
3. Expectations worksheet
4. Paraphrasing hand-out
5. Beachball exercise
6. Feedback handout
7. One-way two-way communication exercise

8. Behavior description hand-out
9. Who am I exercise
10. Self-Knowledge questionnaire
11. Perception checking handout
12. Trainer exercise
13. Expressing our own feelings handout
14. Guess who exercise
15. Alter ego exercise
16. Feedback handout
17. Blindfold exercise
18. Taking stock exercise

The desirability of using two groups differing in design has been pointed out by Harrison. He maintains that, "The fact that a person is in a control group biases his self-image and the perception of him by others; the fact that a person has participated in training inclines him and others to look for changes in his behavior (p. 10)." In comparing two groups that have been through a T Group training experience, the design eliminates this biasing of perception which occurs when an untrained control group is used. Another problem is that of administrative control. Usually someone makes a decision to send participants who are judged



more likely to benefit or are more willing to participate in a T Group. This problem according to Harrison (p. 11) "cannot be resolved by enforced randomness of assignment to training. Sensitivity training programs are usually designed for participants who are at least nominally volunteers." One way of initiating administrative control which preserves a degree of voluntariness has been suggested by Massarik (1965), "It involves delaying the participation of some volunteers and using them as a control group in the interim."

Measurements in this present study were taken after the T Group training experience. An important consideration in doing research in the field of group processes involves the arousal of expectations in the experimental setting which stems from the possible sensitization of subjects to the experimental treatment. This problem has been discussed by many including Campbell and Stanley (1966), French (1953), Underwood (1957), and arises from the fact that typical research designs involve pretesting of subjects prior to the subsequent experimental manipulation (i.e., T Group experience) and make him more susceptible than he might otherwise have been. To restate the problem in another way, the pre-treatment measurement may interact with the treatment itself and

produce differences in its effectiveness. Pre-testing, in effect, may then enhance the possibility of subsequent change on the specific instrument used. In further elaboration, Goldstein (1964), contended that threat is provided by the effects of pretesting. He further asserted that changes in post-testing scores could be expected with the repeated administration of the same measure simply because of the subject's sensitization to the instrument, or his sophistication in dealing with a particular test. To summarize, the reason for giving only a post-test measure in this study, was because the mere repetition of a given measure may of itself result in some changes in response.

The instruments used in this study were not administered by the trainer, but were given by someone else. Also, the tests were given individually rather than in the groups in order to help compensate for any "Halo effect" the group setting itself may have had. Goldstein points out that when any measures are obtained it is necessary that they be administered by a person equally well known to the experimental and control subjects, thus ruling out the trainer as the tester.

It has been found by the National Training

Laboratories and others that the length of a T Group normally runs between two and three weeks, consuming approximately 40 hours. The experimental groups (Group 1 and Group 2) met for 40 clock hours each over a ten-day period. The length of the individual sessions consisted of blocks of two and five hours, with one block of twelve hours. The control group did not meet as a group at any time during this ten-day period.

### Sample

The S's for this study were drawn from the total population of students who were enrolled in Psychology 487, Group Processes and Leadership, at Central Washington State College during summer quarter of 1969. The sample used in this study consisted of twenty-seven students. Eighteen were used in the experimental groups (nine in Group 1 using the non-structured approach, and nine in Group 2, using the structured approach). The remaining nine were used in the control group (Group 3). A description of the three groups regarding three variables is presented in Table 3.

The S's were not matched on age, or sex, because this would tend to destroy the groups' heterogeneity. According to Stock (1964):

TABLE 3

DESCRIPTION OF THREE GROUPS REGARDING  
THREE VARIABLES

| Group   | Sex    |      | Age  | Summer School Session Attended |                     |                    |
|---------|--------|------|------|--------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
|         | Female | Male | Mean | 1st Session<br>Only            | 2nd Session<br>Only | Session<br>1 and 2 |
| Group 1 | 4      | 5    | 26.1 | 3                              |                     | 6                  |
| Group 2 | 2      | 7    | 26.7 | 3                              |                     | 6                  |
| Group 3 | 4      | 5    | 29.4 | 0                              |                     | 9                  |

In planning a human relations laboratory an effort is often made to compose T Groups heterogeneously. In a general laboratory this means as much variety as possible with respect to age, sex, occupation, and geographical location. . . this principle is based on the assumption that a varied composition multiplies learning opportunities in the T Group and that differences such as occupational choice are likely to reflect differences in personality and experience and hence, behavior in a group.

A group size of twelve participants was chosen for this study because of the use of exercises which require that the group members be grouped into dyads, (a pairing of two individuals) and triads (a pairing of two individuals and one observer). Due to an unfortunate functioning of the registration system at Central Washington State College, the number of persons who were finally assigned to each of the groups was nine. The optimum number in T Groups has not yet been established by research, but Fiebert (1968), Hare (1952), Kemp (1964), Luft (1963), Shepherd (1964), and others suggest that groups should usually contain 10 to 15 members.

### Instruments

Instruments administered to both of the experimental groups and the control group included: the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Adapted California Q-Set, and a Semantic Differential.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was developed by William H. Fitts as a multi-dimensional measure of the self-concept. The author began work on the scale in conjunction with the Tennessee Department of Mental Health in 1955. The purpose of the scale was to develop an instrument that might contribute to difficult problems in mental health research. It has since been used for a variety of purposes, among them are counseling and clinical assessment and a research instrument in behavioral sciences.

The scale consists of 100 self descriptive statements which the individual uses to describe how he sees himself. These statements were derived from an extensive pool of self descriptive items which had been taken from numerous measures of self concept. Seven clinical psychologists then acted as judges in classifying the items. The 100 items that were finally retained in the scale were those in which there was perfect agreement by the judges as to what dimension of self-concept they were related to.

The system of classification that was used involves a 3 x 5 scheme which describes how the individual perceives himself in terms of (1) Identity: What he is (2) Self

Satisfaction: His self acceptance (3) Behavior: How he functions. These are further divided into six more categories. There is an overall category, Total Positive Self, which reflects the relative degree to which the subject describes himself in positive terms. Fitts maintains that individuals with high Total Positive Scores tend to like themselves, have confidence in themselves, and feel that they are persons of worth and value, whereas persons with low scores see themselves as undesirable and are doubtful about their own worth. The mean of the Total Positive Score, according to the manual is 345.57, with a standard deviation of 30.70.

A test-retest reliability utilizing 60 college students over a two-week period resulted in a reliability coefficient of .92 for the Total Positive Score. Reliability coefficients for the other profile segments fall mostly in the .80 to .90 range.

The manual discusses several kinds of validation procedures used during development of the Scale and its norms: Among them are: (1) content validity, (2) discrimination between groups, (3) correlation with other personality measures. The author attempted to establish content validity by requiring the unanimous agreement of seven

judges (clinical psychologists) regarding the appropriateness of each self-descriptive statement in an item pool. Several studies are cited as demonstrating the ability of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale to discriminate between identifiable groups. In one study comparing 369 psychiatric patients with 625 non-patients, it was demonstrated that the Scale could discriminate between the two groups (at the .001 level of significance) on the basis of almost every score on the Scale. Correlational studies of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale with other measures have been quite extensive. Among the measures used were the MMPI and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule.

In relation to both validity and reliability, the Total Positive Score appears to be the most useful score on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. It was the only dimension on the Tennessee which was considered in this study.

The Adapted California Q-Set. The Q-Sort is a method of studying systematically the notions a person has about himself. The Q-Sort technique is frequently used in self-concept studies. Scores on the Q-Sort type of test indicate the congruence of real and ideal self ratings. A scale of



this type, the Adapted California Q-Set, was used to indicate the relationship of real and ideal self ratings of individuals in the experimental groups (Groups 1 and 2) and the control group after the T Group experience. In administration of the Adapted California Q-Set, a person is given a list of statements and is asked to sort them into a pre-arranged distribution along a continuum from those most characteristic of the person, to those least characteristic of him. Naumann (1964) stated "because the 100-item California Q-Set was designed for use in mental health investigations by at least fairly sophisticated professionals, it was considered too extensive and technical to use with persons such as undergraduate college students and other adults who had no training in mental health concepts." He suggested that fifty Q statements are an optimum number in terms of unsophisticated subjects' interests and abilities. Naumann then constructed a fifty-item instrument using upper and lower 25 items of the California Q-Set, Form III, as they were found to describe the "optimally adjusted personality."

A reliability check of the Adapted California Q-Set produced Pearsonian  $r$ 's ranging from .78 to .96 with a mean

r of .85.

Butler and Haigh (1954) used the California Q-Sort to test the assumption that the congruence between real self and ideal self would be greater after counseling. Prior to counseling, the average correlation between real self and ideal self for the group of subjects in this study was found to be zero, which indicated that there was no congruence between the way the subjects saw themselves and the way they would like to be. After counseling the author found a congruence between the real and ideal selves to be .34, an increase over what it had been before counseling.

This study was concerned with the congruence between how an individual sees himself (real self), compared to how an individual would most like to see himself (ideal self), as reported on the Adapted California Q-Set.

Semantic Differential. The Semantic Differential is a method in which concepts are rated on a series of bipolar adjectival scales. There are several ways in which the concepts and scales may be presented. The most convenient, according to Osgood (1957), is to place the concept at the top and center of the page in bold capital letters with the scales underneath.

The scales appear as a series of horizontal parallel lines. Placed on each end of a given line is an adjective, each the antonym of the other. The "direction" and "intensity" of the concept is provided by dividing each line into seven distinct areas. The middle portion of the line is neutral. It is the S's task to rate himself on each of the scales. He does this by placing a check mark at some point along the continuum between two opposing adjectives. For example, if the adjective "good" appeared at the left end of the line and the adjective "bad" appeared at the right end, the S who placed his check mark somewhere between the "neutral" (center) area and the "good" end of the line would thus be indicating the directionality of his self description. Further, as the check mark is moved from the middle toward either of the extremes on the continuum, the relative strength or intensity of the rating is reflected.

In this study a semantic differential constructed by Clifford Weedman (Center for the Study of Persons, LaJolla, California) was used. The instrument has ten pairs of bipolar adjectives which are to be rated on a seven-point scale.

With regard to validity, because there is no indepen-

dent criterion against which semantic differential scores may be compared, it is impossible to derive a validity statistic. No reliability studies involving Weedman's Semantic Differential have yet been reported in the literature.

### Procedure

1. The S's were assigned from those students indicating a desire to register for the Group Processes course during the summer quarter of 1969 at Central Washington State College into three groups of nine. This was done in the following fashion: The registration process at Central requires the student who wants a class to go through a registration system that consisted of going to the college fieldhouse where all departments are represented. The student must wait in line until he reaches a particular department's table; then, if the class he desires is open, he may register in it. Before registration the E gathered up all the cards for the Group Processes classes offered summer quarter, and with a table of random numbers, went through these cards and made a mark on those which would be assigned to the three groups. Two experimental groups were

taken from those students who signed up for Group Processes the first half of summer school (June 18 to July 15). The control group was taken from those students who were signing up for Group Processes the second half of the summer (July 15 to August 15).

2. The experimental groups ran 40 hours, one week apart, in the same location and at the same time intervals.
3. Measurement was taken after the T Group experience.
4. The instruments that were used are as follows:
  - a. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale
  - b. Weedman's Semantic Differential
  - c. The Adapted California Q-Set
5. The instruments were administered by someone other than the E. The subjects were contacted by mail regarding the time and day of the test administration. They were asked to come to the Psychology Clinic at Central Washington State College, the day following their final T Group session at any time during the day from 8:00 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. Upon arrival at the Clinic, the secretary handed each person a test packet and assigned him to a room to complete the instruments.
6. The three instruments were hand scored. The raw

data was then recorded on separate sheets. This information was then punched onto IBM cards at the Central Washington State College Computer Center and then run through a 620IBM computer which was programmed to derive group means, standard deviation, and a t-test of the differences between the various group means.

## CHAPTER III

### RESULTS

Two questions were asked in this study. One concerned how the varying of a T Group design would affect self-concept as measured by three self-report instruments. The second question pertained to whether or not participation in a T Group would make a difference in participants' self concepts when compared with controls who had not been in a T Group. The groups were assumed to be comparable so that significant differences which might be shown at the time of the post test could logically be attributed to the treatment variables. This study used a three group design; two experimental groups (Groups 1 and 2) and one control group (Group 3). Group 1 was compared with Groups 2 and 3, and Group 2 was compared with Group 3. Comparison of these three groups was made on the basis of three different instruments. The data in Tables 4, 5, and 6 show that no significant differences were found between groups on any of the three instruments.

Table 4 shows that there were no significant differences between any of the three groups on the basis of their mean scores on the Total Positive Self dimension of the

TABLE 4

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEAN SCORES FOR GROUP 1, GROUP 2,  
AND GROUP 3 ON THE TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT  
SCALE TOTAL POSITIVE SCORE

| COMPARISON<br>BETWEEN<br>GROUPS | MEAN TOTAL POSITIVE SELF<br>SCORES |         |         | df | t*        |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------|---------|----|-----------|
|                                 | Group 1                            | Group 2 | Group 3 |    |           |
| Group 1 vs<br>Group 2           | 352.55                             | 358.66  |         | 16 | - .55232  |
| Group 1 vs<br>Group 3           | 352.55                             |         | 400.77  | 16 | - 1.2625  |
| Group 2 vs<br>Group 3           |                                    | 358.66  | 400.77  | 16 | - 1.08454 |

\*Where  $t_{.05} = 2.1199$



TABLE 5

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEAN SCORES FOR GROUP 1, GROUP 2,  
AND GROUP 3 ON THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

| COMPARISON<br>BETWEEN<br>GROUPS | MEAN SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL |         |         | df | t*         |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|---------|---------|----|------------|
|                                 | Group 1                    | Group 2 | Group 3 |    |            |
| Group 1 vs<br>Group 2           | 4.166                      | 4.055   |         | 16 | .80192694  |
| Group 1 vs<br>Group 3           | 4.166                      |         | 4.122   | 16 | .32632650  |
| Group 2 vs<br>Group 3           |                            | 4.055   | 4.122   | 16 | -.54489224 |

\* Where  $t_{.05} = 2.1199$

TABLE 6

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEAN SCORES FOR GROUP 1, GROUP 2,  
AND GROUP 3 ON THE ADAPTED CALIFORNIA Q-SET

| COMPARISON<br>BETWEEN<br>GROUPS | MEAN Q-SORT |         |         | df | t*          |
|---------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|----|-------------|
|                                 | Group 1     | Group 2 | Group 3 |    |             |
| Group 1 vs<br>Group 2           | 300.333     | 331.111 |         | 16 | -.48114198  |
| Group 1 vs<br>Group 3           | 300.333     |         | 444.333 | 16 | -1.74676320 |
| Group 2 vs<br>Group 3           |             | 331.111 | 444.333 | 16 | -1.32931130 |

\*Where  $t_{.05} = 2.1199$

Tennessee Self Concept Scale. With 16 degrees of freedom, a two-tailed test required a t-value beyond 2.1199 for significance at the .05 level of confidence. As the data indicate, individuals in Group 1 and 2 scored lower, on the average, than did persons in Group 3, and the mean raw scores for these two experimental groups were only six points apart, whereas the point spread between Groups 1 and 3 was forty-eight points, and between 2 and 3 it was forty-two points.

The Semantic Differential test results indicate that none of the differences between group means approach the required level of significance at the .05 level.

Table 6 shows that there were no significant differences between any of the three groups on the basis of their mean scores on the Adapted California Q-Set. As the data indicate, individuals in Groups 1 and 2 scored lower, on the average, than did persons in Group 3. The mean raw scores for these two experimental groups were only thirty-one points apart, whereas the point spread between Groups 1 and 3 was 144 points; and between 2 and 3 it was 114 points. A mean score of 300 recorded for Group 1 gives a Pearsonian Correlation coefficient, between the real and ideal selves

on the Q-Set, of .63. A mean score of 333 recorded for Group 2 gives a Pearsonian correlation coefficient, between the real and ideal selves, of .60, whereas a mean score of 444 for Group 3 gives a Pearsonian correlation coefficient of .46.

In summary, there were practically no measurable differences in group mean scores on the semantic differential instrument. The results did show some differences in group means on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, with the control group having the highest mean score. On the Adapted California Q-Set the differences in means indicated that both of the experimental groups had expressed greater congruence between their real and ideal selves than did the control group. But none of the comparisons between any of the groups in this study revealed significant differences on the three self report measures.

In the light of these findings, then, it can be concluded that the presence or absence of structure (defined as the use of numerous exercises and handouts) in a T Group effected no significant between-group differences in self concept as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, The Adapted California Q-Set and the (Weedman) Semantic

Differential. It may also be concluded that participation in a T Group made no significant differences in the participants' scores on these instruments in comparison to the scores of persons who had not been in a T Group.

## CHAPTER IV

### DISCUSSION

It has been asserted that individuals need to see themselves in positive ways and that an increase of self awareness will contribute to better self-perception and acceptance of others. The goals of the T Group experience have included the advancement of better human understanding and better self understanding. The T Group method aims to provide the individual with an atmosphere of trust and non-defensiveness where he can feel free to try out different modes of operating. Through this method, the individual receives feedback on both his verbal and non-verbal behavior, and by receiving this information he should become better able to comprehend his own message system. He should also be better able to understand how others affect his behavior and how he, in turn, affects theirs.

The purpose of this study was two-fold. On the one hand, it was to determine whether or not individuals who had participated in a T Group would report more positive self-concepts than persons who had not had such an experience. On the other hand, its purpose was to compare the relative

effects of two treatments within T Groups; namely a non-structured approach (employed in Group 1) and a structured approach (Group 2). The variable of "self-concept" has been defined earlier in this paper. For purposes of this research, it has been operationally defined in terms of scores obtained on the three instruments, the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Adapted California Q-Set, and a (Weedman's) Semantic Differential.

The analysis of the results of this study indicated that neither of the two experimental groups had mean scores on the instruments used which were significantly different from each other or from those of the control group.

In the comparison of the two experimental groups with the control group on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (more positive reporting of self), the differences between group means actually "favored" the control group. While the differences were not significant, they do suggest some interesting possibilities. It may be, for example, that individuals after a T Group experience simply see themselves in more accurate, but less flattering ways. One could speculate, then, that less positive scores on a self-report measure such as the Tennessee Self Concept Scale would be a natural

consequence of the T Group experience. In other words, the T Group experience may "help" a person perceive himself in ways which he was not previously aware of; and the outcome may not be a "better" self concept, but a more negative one because he does not like what he now sees. Along these particular lines, Stephenson, Erickson, and Lehner (1965, p. 26) describe the effect of the group experience as "suffering" which was defined by them as seeing oneself less favorably immediately after a T Group experience. This could very well occur in many T Groups because of the characteristic honesty which is encouraged during the life of the group and which, in turn, provides the person with feedback regarding the impact of his own behavior—some of it positive and, typically, much of it negative (Humans do seem to be more adept at criticizing than they are at praising). Many of the unsolicited comments offered by participants in the two experimental groups in this study seem to stand in support of this notion. Comments such as, "I wasn't aware that I was putting people down before," "I didn't know I was perceived in that manner," and "It's too bad you have to take a class to understand yourself," were commonly expressed by the participants. A final, though certainly less



"interesting," explanation for the Tennessee Self Concept Scale results favoring the control group is simply that the apparent differences between groups existed from the outset because of a chance bias in the samples. Inherent to this very phenomenon, of course, is the additional possibility that the experimental groups had, before their T Group experience, significantly more or significantly less positive self concepts. In this latter regard, the design of this study needs to be examined. Although the design excluded the use of pre-tests because of the possibility of biasing and/or sensitizing the participant to the instruments, it may well be that such a risk is worth taking in order to establish the initial status of the sample groups on the measures used, and thus, add meaning to the later comparisons on the same or equivalent instruments.

In the comparison of the experimental groups with the control group, it was noted that the experimentals had more congruence between real and ideal selves, as reflected on the Adapted California Q-Set, than did the controls, but the measured difference between these groups did not reach statistical significance. Further, there was no indication that the individuals in either of the experimental groups

reported significantly greater congruence than the other between real and ideal selves following the T Group.

The lack of statistically significant differences between groups, notwithstanding, it does seem worth noting that in the case of the Q-Set the results were in the opposite direction from those reported on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. That is, on the Q-Set, the experimental subjects reflected greater congruence between their real and ideal self-sorts than did the control subjects. This could be accounted for as a function of more realistic viewing of self following T Group training or, for that matter, more acceptance of oneself as he is. It would, thus, be logical to expect that the Q-Set results would reflect greater congruence between what one identifies as his ideal self and his real self. But one is still confronted with the fact that the differences between the experimental subjects and the controls were not significant, which again could lead to speculation that the design of the study should be altered in such a way as to establish, as firmly as possible, that the sample groups at the outset were, indeed, equivalent in regard to self perceptions.

In the comparison of the two experimental groups with

the control group on the Semantic Differential no significant differences were found. Without the comparison of pre-test measures it cannot be known whether any individuals in the experimental groups changed the way they see themselves on this instrument.

In summary, it may be reasoned that self-perceptions may in fact change following a T Group experience, but direction of this change is unknown. It was shown in the comparison between groups on one instrument employed in this study (Tennessee Self Concept Scale) that both experimental groups reported a "poorer" self-concept than did the controls. On the other hand, the Q-Sort of real vs ideal self descriptions indicated that the experimental subjects were more congruent following T Group experience than the controls. In further study, the employment of pre-tests may answer the question concerning whether or not individual self-perceptions do change and, if so, in what direction they change.

Three other limitations of the present study which could be eliminated through a difference in design are (1) the use of only one trainer for two separate approaches and (2) the lack of any long range follow-up and (3) the size of the groups involved in the training.

One obvious way to overcome the possible biasing effects of having only one trainer would be to employ co-trainers with each of the differing approaches within separate groups. This would tend to control for the so-called Rosenthal effect (1966) (that experimenters influence, intentionally or unintentionally, the outcomes of their own experiment) which could be in operation when only one person acts as a trainer using different approaches with separate groups.

In regard to the need for long range follow-up measurements, there is little or no experimental evidence available regarding the duration of the changes in self-perceptions which are reported immediately following treatment or training. It is therefore a recommendation of this study that in any subsequent efforts to examine the effects of T Group training, the design include provision for at least two post-training assessments—one immediately following training and one a minimum of six months later.

Finally, in relation to group size, most of the research that has been done in this area indicates that the optimum number is somewhere between ten and fifteen. In this regard it should be noted that when exercises are

employed (as in the structured group within this study) they typically require combinations of two, three, and four individuals, thus dictating the group size of twelve, in order to stay with the ten to fifteen range.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to examine what effects the varying of a T Group design would have upon self-concept and also to determine whether or not individuals who had participated in a T Group would report more positive self-concepts than persons who had not had such an experience. The study employed a three group design with two experimental groups and a control group. One of the experimental groups was described as non-structured in that no exercises, "games," or handouts were used. The other group was structured; that is, the group trainer introduced handouts, gave instructions for sub-group discussions, directed group communication exercises and the like. The sample consisted of twenty-seven students at Central Washington State College, nine in each of the three groups. The length of the T Groups was 40 hours, over a ten day period. A post test measure only was taken to avoid any instrument interaction effects with the T Group experience, and to avoid any sensitization to the instruments. The instruments that were used were the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, Semantic Differential, and

the Adapted California Q-Set. No significant results were found between the three groups on the basis of t tests with a .05 level of significance.

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APPENDIX A

**BRIEF: THE "I's" EXERCISE**

Purpose: Participants find out some things about each other that each wants the others to know.

Props: Half-sheets of paper, pencil or pen, and pin.

Procedure:

1. Explain purpose of the exercise to the participants.
2. Tell them to think of ten things about themselves which would help others to know them and understand them better. Five of these bits of information should be things which they would feel free to tell anyone. The other five should be things they might feel a bit less ready to share indiscriminately.
3. Direct participants to spend ten minutes of "alone time" to write five of the statements beginning with "I" on one side of the paper provided them: (I am. . . .I like. . . .I detest. . . .I wish. . . .etc. . . .) and the other five on the flip side.
4. After the alone time direct participants to pin the paper to their chest so others can see one side (their choice) of the paper.
5. Have participants walk around the total group and read each other's statements for about ten minutes.
6. Send participants to their small groups for debriefing. Raise such questions as: "What sort of things did you find?" "Why did you write what you did?" "How did others react to your list?" "How did you feel about this experience?" "Which side did you display?" "Why?" and so on.
7. Divide small groups into triads. Have each introduce the second to the third in turn.

**BRIEF: ONE WORD COMMUNICATION EXERCISE**

Purpose: Participants realize importance of words used in communication.

Props: List of questions to guide debriefing.

Procedures:

1. Pair off people in group.
2. Instruct them to talk with one person starting by saying one word only, and then the other responds with one word, and so on in turn.
3. Ask each to try to find out how the other person feels, some of his interests, and so on.
4. Give signal to start, watch time, and call halt in five minutes.
5. Conduct a debriefing discussion, using the following questions:

How much did you learn about the other?

How effective was your communication?

What is the effect of one word at a time?

What does this suggest to you?

What non-verbal communication went on?

How did you feel as it happened?

Were you influenced by your feelings at the time?

Did your feelings add or subtract?

Did you reach a turn off point?

What does this all mean for "back home"?



EXPECTATION WORKSHEET: Answer the following

1. What would you identify as your personal learning needs at this workshop? That is, what expectations do you have--what outcome do you want to take home with you when you leave here?
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
2. What do you expect others (including fellow enrollees and staff members) to contribute to your learning needs; and how do you expect them to do it?
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
3. What do you expect to contribute to your own and others' learning needs; and how do you think you can best do it?

CLARIFYING BY PARAPHRASING

Many of us assume that what we understand from another's statement is what the other intended. We will repeat a phone number to get it correct, but if the statement is more complicated we tend to agree or disagree without trying to be sure we are clear about what the other meant.

Sometimes we get clarification by simply asking "What do you mean?", or by saying "Tell me more." However, we can get sharper clarity by paraphrasing, by showing the other person what his idea or suggestion means to us.

For example: "Are you saying. . . .(restate in other words. . . .?)"

"Does that include. . . .(cite a point)  
. . . .?"

"Would this be an example (then give one). . . .?"

"I hear you saying several things. . . .  
(then summarize). . . ."

Thus, it may help to (1) restate, (2) ask for more information, (3) give examples, and (4) summarize.

Before you agree or disagree with a remark you should make sure you are responding to what the other intended. Paraphrasing is one way of testing this.

An example:

Oscar: "Joe isn't qualified to be a principal."

You: "He doesn't have his certificate?"

Oscar: "He has his certificate, but he can't communicate with staff."

You: "Do you mean he doesn't listen to them?"

Oscar: "Oh, he listens for awhile; but then he cuts you off and just gives you an answer from the rule book."

Another example:

Sally: "Jack shouldn't be managing that dorm."

You: "You mean he is too harsh with the kids?"

Sally: "Oh, no! I meant that he has such expensive tastes he can't ever earn enough in that job to satisfy them."

You: "Oh, I see. You think he should have gone into work that would have insured him a higher standard of living."

Sally: "Exactly! Managing that dorm is not for Jack."

Paraphrasing helps bridge the communication gap. It increases accuracy.

An additional benefit is that it lets the other know you are interested in him, that you really do want to understand his point. If you can satisfy him that this is true, he will probably be more willing to try to understand your points.

**BRIEF: BEACHBALL EXERCISE**

Purpose: Participants' recognition and expression of feelings about authority and involvement.

Props: One beachball.

Procedure:

1. Explain the purpose of the exercise to the participants.
2. Tell them that the individual who holds the beachball is the only one in the group who may speak. The individual who holds the beachball can keep it, pass it to another group member, or set it back in the center of the group.
3. After about ten minutes of discussion using the beachball, trainer then takes the beachball out of the group.
4. Have the participants talk about their feelings in relation to the beachball, e.g., how did they feel when they were in control of the group by holding the beachball, or how did they feel when someone else was in control.

## FEEDBACK

Feedback is a common thing. We receive it in many forms and from different sources. I get feedback, for example, when I'm on the target range and the person next to me observes through field glasses and tells me just where each of my shots hits the target. This helps me to get on-target.

Feedback comes to us both as individuals and as groups. It is usually informal, occasionally planned for. It may be verbal or non-verbal, positive or negative, precise or general. Sometimes we may recognize it, often we don't. For example, we plan a series of meetings and invite people. They come to the first session but never return again. That's probably non-verbal feedback. Or, I say something and you either respond verbally, listen "politely," or walk away--all examples of feedback.

If a group defines a goal, decides on and takes action toward it, it either succeeds or fails. If it succeeds, there is probably satisfaction, but without some provision for feedback (or some volunteering of it) we may never know why it succeeded. If the group fails, why? Does this prove that our group or our plan was no good? That our timing was wrong? Or that someone didn't do his part of the job right? How can we find out. Without feedback it will be very difficult to isolate the factors which made for failure so that they can be changed next time. Unless we know, we can't turn the experience of failure into the valuable learning experience it could be.

There are numerous ways to provide for planned feedback to groups. You may be familiar with something like Post Meeting Reaction Sheet which is sometimes used in on-going groups or at one of a series of meetings to provide feedback for planning subsequent meetings. The use of a process observer to describe to the group how they seemed to be working together is another method which may be used (this is sometimes called "mirroring"). A definite plan to pause at intervals in the meeting to ask, "Where are we?" or "What are we doing?" can be very helpful. Another way is the group's processes and to feel free to make observations and comments whenever they can be facilitative or helpful to the group.

In all of these and other methods of planned feedback to groups, we must be sure that:

1. The feedback is used.
2. It is shared as far as possible by the entire group. If the group as a whole is to learn and to make decisions, it must share in the diagnosis of its own processes, difficulties and effectiveness.
3. It is relevant to the needs of the group. For example, we need to know whether something was learned, or attitudes changed, it doesn't help much if you as a group member simply report, "I liked this session," or "I didn't like this session." Such a response is nondirectional--it doesn't clarify why you liked or didn't like the session.

As individuals we also need feedback in order to know which of our behaviors are helpful and which ones are not--which one ought to be modified or dropped in order to make us more effective participants.

Psychologists talk about the use of positive reinforcers or rewards. These are really examples of a kind of feedback which we all need in order to feel useful, liked and worthy. Research has shown, however, that there is much more negative than positive feedback in most situations. Most of us are quicker to criticize others (children and administrators, for example) than to commend them. But this may not be altogether bad, IF we give this negative feedback without conveying rejection of the person.

How can the recipient take negative feedback without feeling "hurt" rejected, or without becoming defensive? Here are some principles:

1. If an atmosphere of trust, and/or a warm relationship exists between two people, negative feedback may be handled constructively.
2. Negative feedback can be "taken" more easily from an objective observer whose relationship is quite impersonal.
3. We can accept feedback when we have the resources to do something about the criticism.

And here are some rules to follow in offering feedback:

1. Wait until an atmosphere of trust and mutual liking exists.
2. Check to see if the other person wants feedback.
3. Be reasonably sure it will be helpful to the other and that it is descriptive of his behavior--not just an expression of your general irritation with him (He can change his behavior; but he can't change your irritability!)
4. Be timely. For example, don't "save it up" to use at a later date to shoot the other guy out of the saddle.
5. Don't overload. A person can handle only so much at a time.
6. Don't demand change. Check your perceptions with others. (It may be your problem, you know.) And make your observations tentatively.
7. Limit your comments to observable behavior; don't make accusations or try to analyze why.
8. Watch your tone of voice, and avoid "loaded" words.

As a receiver of feedback:

1. Ask for it, especially in new groups, or if you are in a leadership role.
2. Listen to it. Check to see that you fully understand it.
3. Try to put it to use in a way which the group can see. Experiment with it. Test it out.

## ONE-WAY, TWO-WAY COMMUNICATIONS EXERCISE

- A. PURPOSE: The two parts of this exercise on communicating in which two messages of equal difficulty are given to your T-Group under different conditions should rather dramatically demonstrate that easier and most frequently used method of communicating to others (one-way) is less productive and more prone to errors than the more time-consuming and frequently unpleasant method (two-way).
- B. INTRODUCTION OF EXERCISE: This exercise will require the assistance of three persons from the T-Group-- a communicator and two observers. One observer will watch the communicator and the other will observe the rest of the T-Group for their reactions, facial expressions, body movements, signs of frustration, etc. At the end of the first part of this exercise the group will be shown the drawing described to them and records of accuracy taken. After gathering this information, and without discussing the exercise further, proceed with the second half.
- C. EXERCISE:
1. PART I, ONE-WAY COMMUNICATIONS DEMONSTRATION.
    - a. Place your communicator behind some opaque object such as a movable chalk board, bulletin board, or easel facing the rest of the



group in such a way that he may be easily heard by all but not seen except by the single observer. Give him a copy of drawing No. 1 and ask him to study it carefully. Inform him that in a couple of minutes he will be asked to describe this drawing to the T-Group in such a way that they will reproduce the drawing described on blank paper provided each.

- b. Give these instructions to the T-Group:  
" \_\_\_\_\_ is going to describe a drawing to you. You are to listen carefully to his instructions and draw what he describes as accurately as you can. You will be timed, but there is not a time limit. You may ask no questions of the communicator and you are not to ask questions or offer suggestions to one another. Each person is to work independently on this exercise."
- c. Ask the two observers to note their observations on a sheet of paper for future reference when reporting to the total group at the end of the second portion of this exercise.
- d. Give the signal to begin.
- e. Time the exercise.

f. Gather necessary information needed to complete top portion of Communications Exercise Record Sheet and then proceed with Part II.

2. PART II, TWO-WAY COMMUNICATIONS DEMONSTRATION

- a. "Now we are going to do much the same thing only varying the procedure slightly. This time \_\_\_\_\_ will be in full view of you during the exercise and you may ask him as many questions as you wish. \_\_\_\_\_ is obliged to answer your questions, but will not at any time be permitted to make any hand signals while conducting this exercise. You will be timed, but there is no time limit. Work as rapidly and accurately as you can."
- b. Give the communicator drawing No. 2 and allow him a minute or two to study it before starting.
- c. Give the signal to begin.
- d. Time the exercise.
- e. Collect the necessary information needed to complete the Record Sheet.

D. DISCUSSION FOLLOWING EXERCISE: Have the two observers report. Encourage the communicator and the T-Group members to express their views, feelings, etc., regarding the two parts of this exercise.

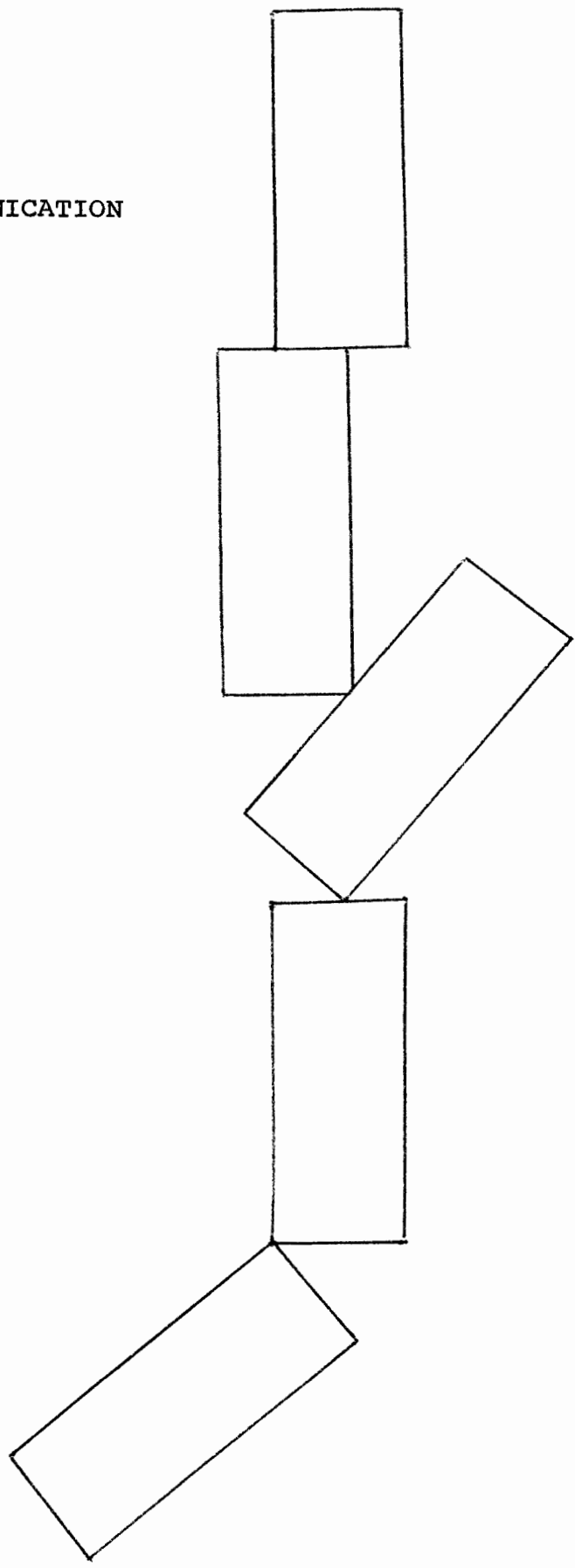
Share with the entire group the results of the Communications Exercises Record Sheet. If your group's experience with these two exercises follows anticipated results we can expect the following:

- a. One-way communications exercise--the task was accomplished more rapidly to the satisfaction of the communicator and usually at the expense of those receiving the message; the results are less accurate; it is a relatively pleasant experience for the communicator and somewhat frustrating to the T-Group members and the level of confidence of the hearer is lower.
- b. Two-way communications exercise--the task should take considerably more time to accomplish; its results should be much more accurate. It is generally a rather unpleasant and exasperating experience for the communicator and a much more pleasant one for the other group members and the level of confidence is higher.

Discuss what the implications of this exercise are for a school teacher who must communicate with a great many individuals and groups charged with work assignments and project responsibilities of a local association.

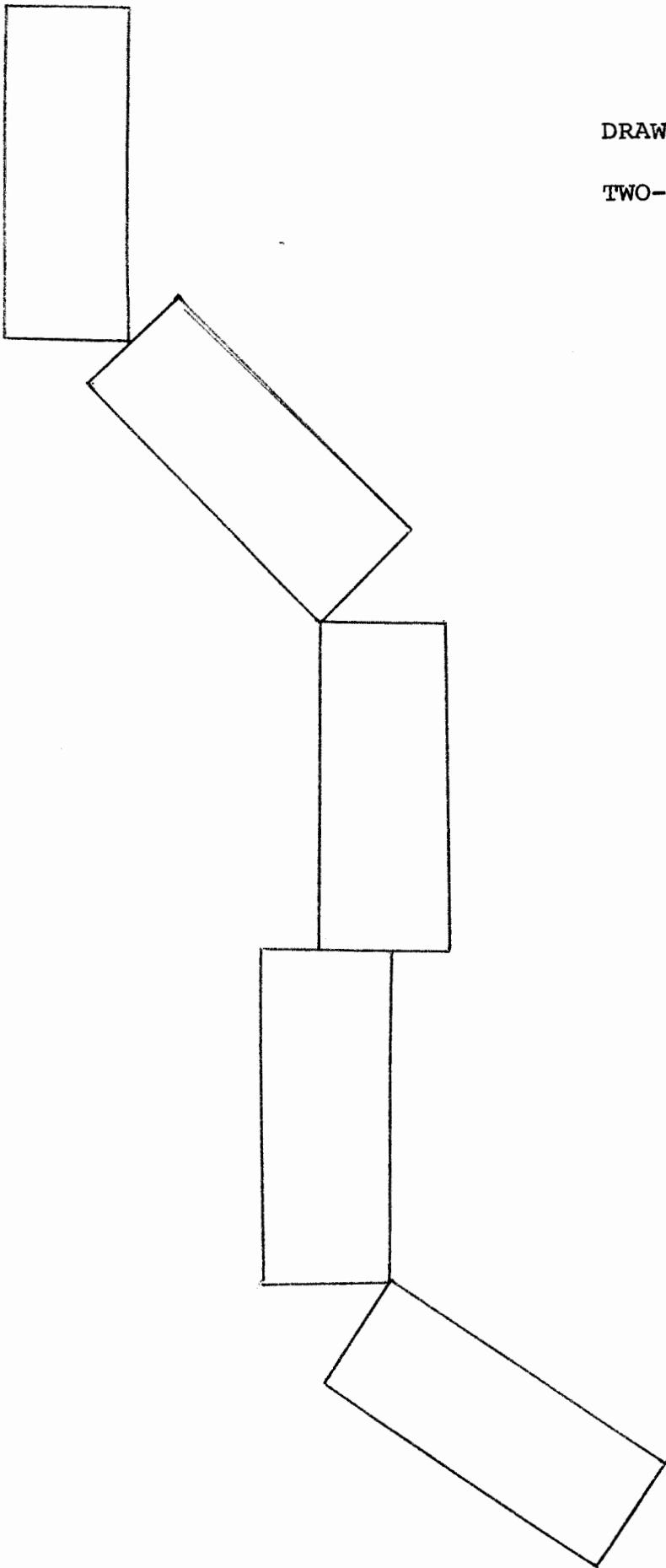
DRAWING NO. 1

ONE-WAY COMMUNICATION



DRAWING NO. 2

TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION



## COMMUNICATIONS EXERCISE

## RECORD SHEET

## PART I. ONE-WAY COMMUNICATIONS

ENDING TIME \_\_\_\_\_

BEGINNING TIME \_\_\_\_\_

LAPSED TIME \_\_\_\_\_ MIN. \_\_\_\_\_ SEC.

## NUMBER OF PERSONS GETTING

5 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_

4 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_

3 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_

2 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_

1 FIGURE CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_

0 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_

NUMBER OF PERSONS HAVING FIGURES DRAWN OF APPROXIMATELY THE SAME SIZE AND SHAPE AS THE EXAMPLE

\_\_\_\_\_.

NUMBER OF PERSONS HAVING FIGURES POSITIONED ON THE

PAPER IN APPROXIMATELY THE SAME PLACE AS THE

EXAMPLE \_\_\_\_\_.

## PART II. TWO-WAY COMMUNICATIONS

ENDING TIME \_\_\_\_\_

BEGINNING TIME \_\_\_\_\_

LAPSED TIME \_\_\_\_\_ MIN. \_\_\_\_\_ SEC.

## NUMBER OF PERSONS GETTING

5 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_

4 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_  
3 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_  
2 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_  
1 FIGURE CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_  
0 FIGURES CORRECT \_\_\_\_\_ % OF TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_

NUMBER OF PERSONS HAVING FIGURES DRAWN OF APPROXI-  
MATELY THE SAME SIZE AND SHAPE AS THE EXAMPLE

\_\_\_\_\_.

NUMBER OF PERSONS HAVING FIGURES POSITIONED ON THE  
PAPER IN APPROXIMATELY THE SAME PLACE AS THE  
EXAMPLE \_\_\_\_\_.

DESCRIBING ANOTHER'S BEHAVIOR

Communication is often complicated because one is not sure whether the other is responding to what is said or how it is said.

It helps communication if you try to let others know what behavior you are responding to by describing it clearly enough that they know what you observed. To do this you must cite visible evidence--behavior that is open to anybody's observation:

Example: "Bob, you seem to take the opposite of whatever Harry suggests." (This describes Bob's behavior. . . .)

NOT: "Bob, you're just trying to show Harry up." (This is not a description, but an accusation of unfavorable motives)

Avoid imputing motives or intentions, and also avoid ascribing character traits:

Example: "Jim, you've talked more than the others on this topic. Several times you cut others off before they had finished."

NOT: "Jim, you're too rude!"  
(This names a trait and gives no evidence. . . .)

Things get even worse when we give a double-barreled response that really does not describe behavior:

Example: "Sam, you're either lazy or an obstructionist--you put off answering my memo for three weeks!"

TRY: "Sam, I sent you a memo, and did not get a reply for three weeks." (This is observable behavior. . . .the intent is not.)

We sometimes complicate communication by over-generalizing from the actual evidence at hand:

Example: "The committee tells me one thing one day and a different thing the next. Why can't the committee make up its mind?"

TRY: "I got one instruction in a memo, but a different instruction when I talked to Fred."  
(You only observed the memo and Fred's comments,



not the entire committee and not the "mind" of  
the committee. . . .)

To develop skill in describing behavior you must sharpen your observation of what actually did occur. Many conclusions are based less on observable evidence than on feelings of irritation, affection, insecurity, jealousy, or fear. Our responses take the form of accusations that are expressions of our feelings, and are not descriptions of another's behavior at all.

## WHO AM I?

**PURPOSE:** The primary purpose of this exercise is to give the participant experience in searching for his own identity with self, others and in leadership positions. The secondary purpose is to give him an experience in verbalizing this identity with others and gaining feedback as to what meaning this might have for others.

**EXERCISE:**

1. Begin with alone time having each person with pencil and paper jot down:
  - a. Who he is to himself
  - b. Who he is to his family and others
  - c. Who he is to his students and/or those he may instruct
  - d. Who he is to his colleagues
2. Effect triads and have each rotate through the three roles of giver, receiver, observer until each has performed all three roles.
3. Reassemble as a group of twelve or fifteen and debrief. Interaction here is usually quite vigorous. Search for feelings about verbalizing their identity, reactions of others to their verbalization, and how they personally felt about sharing it.

## SELF-KNOWLEDGE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. When I enter a new group I feel. . .
2. When people first meet me, they. . .
3. When I'm in a new group I feel most comfortable when. . .
4. When people remain silent I feel. . .
5. I feel most productive when a leader. . .
6. I feel annoyed when the leader. . .
7. In a group I am most afraid of. . .
8. When someone feels hurt, I. . .
9. I am hurt most easily when. . .
10. Those who really know me think I am. . .
11. I trust those who. . .
12. I feel closest to others when. . .
13. People like me when I. . .
14. I feel loved most when. . .
15. My greatest strength is. . .
16. I am. . .

PERCEPTION CHECKING OTHERS' FEELINGS

When somebody speaks to you, you usually notice more than just the words he says. You note his gestures, voice tone, posture, facial expression, etc. You are also aware of the immediate present situation--the context in which the interaction is occurring. For example, you are aware of whether someone is watching. You make assumptions about how the situation influences what the other is feeling. Beyond all this, you also have expectations based on your past experience with the other, and these affect your perception of his feelings.

You make inferences from all these data--his words, non-verbal cues, the context, your expectations--and draw conclusions. These inferences may or may not be accurate, so it helps to "check out" your perceptions of the other's feelings--to make a "perception check."

To make a perception check you describe what you perceive to be the other's inner state in order to check whether you do understand what he feels. That is, you test to see whether you have decoded his expressions of feeling accurately. You transform his expressions of feeling (verbal and non-verbal) into a tentative description of his feelings.

A good perception check conveys the message: "I want to understand your feelings--is this (making a description of his feelings) the way you feel?"

Examples: "I get the impression you are angry with me. Are you?"

NOT: "Why are you so angry with me?"  
(This is mind reading, not reception checking. . .)

"Am I right that you feel disappointed that nobody commented on your suggestion?"

"I'm not sure whether your expression means that my comment hurt your feelings, irritated you, or confused you."

Note that a perception check: 1) describes the other's feelings, and 2) does not express approval or disapproval. It merely conveys: "This is how I understand your feelings. Am I accurate?"

Another point--your perception of another person's feelings often results from what you are feeling, or are afraid of, or are wishing for, rather than from the other person's words, tone, gestures, grimaces, etc. Thus, if you feel guilty, you may perceive others as angry or accusing toward you. Our inferences about other people's feelings can be, and often are, inaccurate. Thus, it is important to understand the other as a person--and that means his feelings. Perception checks help you avoid actions that you later regret, because they were based on false assumptions of what the other was feeling.

DIMENSION: recognition and expression of feelings about authority

TASK: Group members are asked to take a few minutes to formulate, individually, a question they wish to ask the trainer. It may be personal, related to his outside life, to his role in the group, or to whatever the individual wants to know. The idea is to have each group member carefully think of a question he wants to ask the trainer with regard to something he wants very much to know. After a few minutes the trainer starts around the room, with each person stating his question and the trainer answering as honestly as he can.

## EXPRESSING OUR OWN FEELINGS

As we interact with others we find that communication of feelings is as important as communication of ideas. Although we usually try to describe our ideas carefully and accurately, we often do not try to describe our feelings clearly.

Feelings get expressed in many different ways, in body changes (blushing), in actions (pounding the table), in words (I'm angry!!). However, these signs may be misleading. . .blushing may indicate anger, but it could also indicate pleasure, or embarrassment, or uneasiness. Further, the same specific feeling does not always get expressed in the same way--affection may show up via a "good turn" or a "left-handed compliment." And expression of ideas often overshadows expression of feelings. . .others overlook our expressions of feeling because they are "idea-oriented."

While it is difficult to express our feelings, if you wish others to respond to you as a person, you must help them understand how you feel.

One way to describe a feeling is to name it: "I feel angry." "I'm embarrassed." Since we don't have enough labels for all our feelings we often use similes: "I feel like a tiny frog in a big pond." "I feel like my arm is being twisted." A third way is to report action urges: "I could hug you for that!" "I wish I could walk out." We use figures of speech: "I just swallowed a bundle of spring sunshine!"

We can, of course, express our feeling with or without identifying our feeling state:

Example: "He's a wonderful guy!" (does not describe your feeling state. . .) "His soft voice and pleasant smile make me feel relaxed and comfortable in the group." (describes your feeling. . .)

Thus, you can try to make clear what feelings you are experiencing at the moment by identifying them. The statement you make should (1) refer to "I" "me" or "my," and should (2) specify some kind of feeling by name, simile, action urge, or other figure of speech.

Another point: because feelings express themselves in us simultaneously in words, actions, and body changes, we may send out contradictory messages when we "smile when (we) say that!" The clearest communication of feelings occurs when your description of your feeling matches

that being conveyed by your actions and other non-verbal expressions.

Finally, don't express your feelings in order to put pressure on the other person, but to add more information that will enhance the communication relationship.



## BRIEF: "GUESS WHO" EXERCISE

Purpose: To provide a dynamic situation for feedback to members of the group. This exercise creates a situation where otherwise unexpressed feelings may be forthcoming. The exercise may be too tension producing for some members of the group so that it should be used when the trainer feels the group is mature enough for it. The following procedure describes a positive feedback situation. The same procedure may be used to provide for other kinds of feedback as well.

Props: paper, pencils

Procedures:

1. Each person is given a small slip of paper and asked to write on it a brief description of a statement or an action by a member of this group which had contributed to putting either the group or team at ease, they are asked not to identify the person or to put their name on the slip.
2. The slips are collected, shuffled and read aloud one at a time by a member of the group. After the reading of each one, members of the group try to identify who was being described and why they think so. They are encouraged to identify themselves if they wish to. They are also encouraged to give examples and personal reactions about the discussion.
3. After all slips have been discussed, the group identifies several categories of actions and statements which they generally agree are effective in putting people at ease, e.g. physical approach, eye contact, seeking advice statement such as "What would you do if. . . ?" personal aside in a meeting, providing feedback to other persons, etc.
4. Value and adaptability of the exercise is discussed.

## ALTER EGO EXERCISE

**Purpose:** To provide an opportunity for group members to try to communicate with each other regarding a "problem" with personal meaning to them; and to practice the clarifying skills of perception checking, paraphrasing, behavior description, and sharing their own feelings as feedback. To practice process observations and reporting.

**Props:** Paper and pencil.

**Procedures:**

- (1) Give fifteen minutes Alone Time where in each person is instructed to identify a "problem" (Depending upon context and lab objectives, this may have to do with something on the job, a personal problem with family, colleagues, etc., or a "hang-up" involving someone in the group etc. . . .) Use of a Problem Analysis Worksheet may be very helpful.
- (2) Have the group members pair-up. They each choose a partner--preferably one with whom they have some need to get to know better. (Doing this non-verbally sometimes produces data which is worthwhile.)
- (3) After they have organized themselves into pairs, instruct them to decide which member of each pair will be the first to participate verbally in the discussion to follow. (Label the two members of each pair "A" and "B".)
- (4) Instruct the "A's" (half the group) to form a small circle and to share whatever they're willing to share from their Alone Time material.
- (5) Instruct the "B's" in private that they are to sit behind their respective partners (as alter egos) and carefully observe the kinds of responses, overtures, etc. their "other self" received during the discussion.

Tell them to take notes for reporting back to their partners.

- (6) Allow the discussion to continue for 10-15 minutes, then break and have alter egos report to their partners privately. The partners, however, may not respond at all-- they must remain silent. This should take about 5 minutes.
- (7) Instruct the "A's" to resume their discussion. And this time, instruct "B's" to sit in a place where they can observe their partners and take notes on what they do in response to others.
- (8) Allow discussion to continue for 10-15 minutes, then break and have alter egos report to their partners privately; only this time allow two-way communication.
- (9) Reverse the procedure, with "B's" in the center.
- (10) Debrief in entire group.

Debriefing Suggestions:

- (1) How did each of you feel when you were engaging in only one-way conversation?
- (2) What did you feel when you used two-way communication? Did it help? Was it clearer--to each of you?
- (3) To the inner group: Were you surprised to learn any of the things reported to you by your alter egos? Did it have any effect upon what you did during the second round? Were there any implications in this for you in regard to other groups you are members of?
- (4) Do you feel in any way differently about your partner now?

**BRIEF: BLINDFOLD EXERCISE**

Purpose: Participants find out some things about trusting themselves and other members of the group.

Props: One box of cotton and a blindfold for every group member.

Procedure:

1. Pair off people in group.
2. Have one member of each pair blindfold and put cotton in the ears of their partner.
3. Then have the member that is not blindfolded lead their partner around for about 25 minutes.
4. Reverse the process, the member that was not blindfolded becomes blindfolded, again for about 25 minutes.
5. Have participants assemble in the large group.
6. Discuss what kinds of feelings and reactions they had in regard to leading and being lead.

TAKING STOCK EXERCISE

**Purpose:** The primary purpose of this exercise is to help the individual to indentify and describe some meaningful learnings which have accrued up to now.

The secondary purpose is to examine ways in which these learnings can be taken back to school or home and applied.

- Procedure:**
- a. Alone time--10 minutes--Have each participant write down two or three things he has experienced here which have special meaning for him; then how he expects to use it.
  - b. Form triads and share (five minutes for each role which is assumed two times in rotation--the first time to describe the learning, the second to identify or explore uses it will have at home.)

Debriefing questions which may be helpful:

1. Are you aware of what you are learning?
2. If you knew what you wanted to learn, would it be more easily accomplished?
3. Is learning to know what you need to learn helpful?
4. What feelings did you experience when you were asked what you had learned?
5. How have your experiences here affected your communication skills?
6. Have you learned any ways which help others learn? How will this help you when you get "back home?"
7. Have you discovered how or when others help you most in your own learning?

APPENDIX B

NAME \_\_\_\_\_

DATE \_\_\_\_\_

Below you will find the phrase "THE WAY I SEE MYSELF" followed by scales, with 7 steps on each scale. The meaning of each scale is given by the words at the ends of the scale. Note that the end words are opposites of one another.

What you do is to look at the words at the end of each scale and decide where on the 7 points of the scale you feel that the phrase "THE WAY I SEE MYSELF" should be checked. The meaning of each point on the scales is indicated by the words extremely, quite, slightly, and neither/both.

In checking the scales be sure to: (1) place only one check on each scale; (2) omit no scales, even if it is just your best guess.

THE WAY I SEE MYSELF

|          | Extremely | Quite | Slightly | Neither/Both | Slightly | Quite | Extremely |            |
|----------|-----------|-------|----------|--------------|----------|-------|-----------|------------|
| Honest   | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Dishonest  |
| Slow     | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Fast       |
| Strong   | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Weak       |
| Sad      | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Happy      |
| Hot      | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Cold       |
| Shallow  | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Deep       |
| Pleasant | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Unpleasant |

THE WAY I SEE MYSELF  
(cont.)

|         | Extremely | Quite | Slightly | Neither/Both | Slightly | Quite | Extremely |         |
|---------|-----------|-------|----------|--------------|----------|-------|-----------|---------|
| Passive | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Active  |
| Tough   | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Fragile |
| Useless | _____     | _____ | _____    | _____        | _____    | _____ | _____     | Useful  |

GROUP NO. \_\_\_\_\_

(leave blank)

CODE NO. \_\_\_\_\_



APPENDIX C

TO: Selected participants in Psy 487  
FROM: Joe Rich, Chairman, Psy Dept.  
RE: Validation study  
Date: July 5, 1969

Through the psychology and education departments at CWSC we offer numerous classes and consulting services which involve group processes training. These experiences are provided for enrollees both on and off campus. One of the perennial problems which we encounter when we operate these groups concerns our appraisal of procedures. We are, therefore, studying the suitability of a number of instruments. In order to do this, we have selected some groups and a number of individuals who will be in our Psy 487 classes during this summer quarter to complete three such instruments. You are either a member of a group to which individuals were randomly assigned, or you are a randomly selected individual whose actual group membership is unimportant for purposes of this study.

Let me point out that your grade in the course is not in any way affected by the scores you have on these instruments. In fact, the scores will be treated as group data only.

Further, I want to emphasize that it is imperative that you do participate in this appraisal process in order to preserve the random make-up of the group selected for this study of the validity of the three instruments, and their suitability for our work with groups.

We have arranged for the following times and places for conducting this appraisal.

PLACE OF TEST ADMINISTRATION: PSYCHOLOGY CLINIC ROOM  
212, BLACK HALL

DATA: JULY 15 16. Do to the nature of the study, all administration of tests must be given on one day only. However, for your convenience, you may come in any time between 8:00 a.m. and 4:30 p.m. on July 15 16.

Thank you