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A Didactic Method of Preparation for Encounter Group Participants

Lawrence H. Bergmann

Eastern Illinois University

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A DIDACTIC METHOD OF PREPARATION FOR

ENCOUNTER GROUP PARTICIPANTS

(TITLE)

BY

Lawrence H. Bergmann

THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF

Master of Arts

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

1977

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I HEREBY RECOMMEND THIS THESIS BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING
THIS PART OF THE GRADUATE DEGREE CITED ABOVE

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A DIDACTIC METHOD OF PREPARATION FOR
ENCOUNTER GROUP PARTICIPANTS

BY

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ABSTRACT OF A THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts in Psychology at the Graduate School
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CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS
1977

The utilization of group procedures has mushroomed in the past ten years. While developing in part from group psychotherapy, involvement in groups has become a movement in its own right. Encounter groups, marathons or other intensive group experiences are no longer seen as a "second-best" treatment but a useful technique to be added to the tools of the psychotherapist. However, the rapid development of these treatments have often exceeded a strong theoretical rationale and the negative consequences have become increasingly evident. Preparation for individual therapies has been shown to be one method for improving outcomes and avoiding undesirable consequences. However, there is little research utilizing a preparation for encounter groups. The purpose of this study was to formulate and test the effects of a pre-marathon group preparation strategy on encounter group participants. Sixteen subjects were assigned to two randomly selected experimental treatments, one receiving an encounter group experience with a pregroup preparation and one participating in a group experience without such a preparation. In addition, two control groups were utilized, one receiving a posttest only and the other a pre and posttest. Criterion instruments were the Personality Orientation Inventory and the Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) Attitude Questionnaire. The pregroup preparation lasted approximately 50 minutes and was didactic in nature. The purposes, stages,

history and research in the area of encounter groups were presented. Encounter groups lasted 7 hours, were Gestalt in orientation and were facilitated by an experienced group leader. The hypothesis that the pregroup preparation strategy would enhance the encounter group experience was not upheld. Results indicated that the preparation did not improve the encounter group experience as measured by the Personality Orientation Inventory and the Attitude Questionnaire. However, the data does suggest that a brief, intensive group experience is a useful behavioral change mechanism. Several methodological limitations were noted in this study. These included the small number of subjects, lack of random assignment to groups and an observed practice effect on the Attitude Questionnaire. Suggestions for future research included a pooling of data from multiple groups, experimental manipulation of the pregroup preparation and utilization of more extensive psychological instruments.

A DIDACTIC METHOD OF PREPARATION FOR
ENCOUNTER GROUP PARTICIPANTS

By

Lawrence H. Bergmann

Submitted in Partial Fullfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
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Table of Contents

Chapter	Page
Introduction.....	1
Review of the Literature.....	2
Historical Considerations.....	2
Outcome Studies with Encounter Groups.....	3
Problems in Group Research.....	8
Criticisms of Encounter Groups.....	12
Literature in Therapeutic Preparations.....	16
Methods.....	23
Subjects.....	23
Instruments.....	23
Research Design.....	28
Procedure.....	29
Hypotheses.....	30
Analysis.....	31
Results.....	32
Discussion.....	42
Implications for Further Research.....	45
Conclusion.....	47
Appendix A.....	48
Appendix B.....	49
Appendix C.....	51
Appendix D.....	52
References.....	56

List of Tables

Tables	Page
Table 1.....	32
Table 2.....	34
Table 3.....	33
Table 4.....	37
Table 5.....	38
Table 6.....	39

List of Figures

Figure	Page
Figure 1.....	29 a
Figure 2.....	36
Figure 3.....	40
Figure 4.....	41

Introduction

The utilization of group procedures has mushroomed in the past ten years. While developing in part from group psychotherapy, "involvement in groups has become a movement in its own right, seen by many as one of the most significant social developments of the century" (Suinn and Weigel, 1975, p. 88). Encounters, T-groups, marathons or other intensive group experiences are no longer seen as a "second-best" treatment but as "useful techniques to be added to the armamentarium of the practitioner" (Suinn and Weigel, 1975, p. 88). However, the rapid development of these treatments have often exceeded a strong theoretical rationale and the negative consequences have become increasingly evident (Lieberman, Yalom & Miles, 1973). As a result, a clear understanding of their effects is extremely important. Some means of preventing negative consequences seem crucial if groups are to continue as behavioral change mechanisms. Preparation for individual therapies has been shown to be one method for improving outcomes and avoiding undesirable consequences (Guaron et al, 1975). However, there is a paucity of research utilizing a preparation for encounter groups. The purpose of this study is to formulate and test the effects of premarathon group preparations on encounter group participants.

Review of the Literature

Historical Considerations

This section will review the creation and evolution of the encounter group movement as well as its present status.

The concept of the encounter group in its present form may be traced to a summer conference at Bethel, Maine in 1946, the aim of which was to develop leadership capacities among those participants in government sponsored programs (Lakin, 1972). During this meeting, participants were asked to observe the staff group in operation and provide feedback concerning their specific interventions.

With this feedback, the training staff realized that a powerful means of learning had been inadvertently discovered. It was decided to use the here and now data of interpersonal interactions as an important source of information about leadership problems. This constituted the beginning of training. (Lakin, 1972, p. 8)

In the summer of 1947, a "basic skill training" lab was held in Bethel. Skills learned in these meetings helped to train individuals in group processes and to serve as "change agents" (Lakin, 1972). The role of the agent was to plan change, implement these plans and evaluate the results. It was also believed that this individual must understand the dynamics within the group.

Today's encounter groups differ in their orientation, objectives and techniques (Lakin, 1972). While some individuals are

more interested in learning skills, others demand a concentration on feelings and emotions. The here and now issues compete with out of group problems and some desire to deal with structural problems. Eventually, A-groups (action), which focus on skill acquisition were developed as opposed to T-groups (training), which deal exclusively with participants' feelings and interactions in the group. However, the A-groups became more similar to the T-groups and very soon, the later became the main emphasis of the group experience. The National Training Laboratory (NTL) for Group Development in Bethel, Maine conducts year around training and research programs. It also includes a network of fellows and associates who continue to research in the area. In addition, a vast number of those who are not connected with this organization are also involved in group leadership.

An historical sketch has been presented concerning the development of encounter or training groups. It has been shown that the encounter group movement has gained great popularity and that a complex organization has grown around the concept.

Outcome Studies with Encounter Groups

Research in the area of sensitivity training has been plentiful. The following section includes examples of research that show increased self-actualization, self-insight as well as the stability of change over time that resulted from encounter group experiences. In addition, some of the criticisms concerning

literature in the area are presented.

Cooper and Koichiro (1976) investigated changes in self-actualization in Japanese and English subjects after an intensive group experience. Eighteen Japanese and 18 English graduate students participated in a two and a half day residential sensitivity training group. The Personality Orientation Inventory (POI) was administered approximately one week before and one week after the experience. Pretesting indicated that the Japanese subjects were significantly more rigid in their adherence to their own feelings, less accepting of "self" in spite of deficiencies, less able to accept natural aggressiveness and develop intimate relationships, less individualistic and less self-supporting. The authors report that the Japanese subjects changed with respect to only one factor. They showed increased sensitivity to their own needs and feelings. There were also slight but non-significant changes in the area of sensitivity to different needs and feelings. In contrast, English participants showed significant changes in seven of twelve scales. These include increases in independence, self-support, flexibility of values, spontaneity, acceptance of aggression and a capacity for intimate contact with others. There are serious methodological problems in this study. No controls were used to compare changes among English and Japanese subjects. Even more importantly, different therapists were used in different groups which could account for different results. Finally, the POI was developed in a Western

culture but used with a Far Eastern cultural group.

Stanton (1975) measured insight after an encounter group experience utilizing the Gross Self-Insight Scale. Gross (1947) operationalized self-insight as...

the acceptance and admission of both the presence and absence of personality traits within oneself when this acceptance runs counter to a system of emotionally toned ideas or when the admission of the presence or absence of these traits clashes with one's feelings of self esteem.(Gross, 1947)

From a pool of 87 graduate students at a southern Australian university, 14 participants were selected for an encounter group experience. In addition, individuals were matched for pretest, self-insight scores and sex. Groups were "Rogerian" in orientation and were approximately 18 hours in length. Significant changes ($p < .05$) in self-insight were reported as well as validation of the Gross scale (reliability .92 and validity as correlated with self-perceptions .57). With respect to methodological weaknesses, the author infers that those individuals who score similarly on self-insight scales would also react similarly to an encounter group.

King et al (1973) compared the impact of prolonged and one time marathon experiences. Three prolonged groups who met three to four hours per week for 14 weeks were compared to three marathon groups who met for one 24 hour session. Controls were tested at approximately the same time as the experimental groups.

Instruments included the Lesser Self-Acceptance and the Smith Social Approval Scale. Results indicate that control subjects did not significantly change on the two measures. In addition, it was found that participants in the prolonged groups showed increased self-acceptance and social approval although these changes were statistically non-significant. In contrast, the participants in the marathon groups did show significant changes in the expected direction. Scores indicated increases in self-acceptance and social approval.

Reddy (1973) examined the stability of changes in self-actualization over time as a result of sensitivity training. Sixteen male participants were randomly assigned to three groups. Subjects were YMCA administrators. The sensitivity experience was residential, lasted ten days and was led by three different therapists. Groups were supplemented by lectures, nonverbal exercises and community sessions. The POI and Multiple Affect Adjective Check List (MAACL) were the instruments. The final questionnaire (POI) was mailed to all subjects one year later and there was a 100% return rate. Self-actualization was found to be maintained or tended to increase after the group experience.

While some participants showed gains in self-actualization at the close of the laboratory, others made major gains apparently after they had returned to their back home setting. This suggests that participants learn and exhibit change at different rates and at different times, not unlike a "sleeper effect." (Reddy, 1973, p. 412)

Methodological problems cited by the author concern the lack of a control group. Increased self-actualization could be due to multiple test administrations. In addition, one group showed a more significant "sleeper effect" and this may be due to therapist differences.

Cooper (1971) also studied the impact of self-actualization in encounter groups as measured by the POI. Subjects were 16 senior-level industrial managers divided into two groups. All were males and ranged in age from 40 to 55 years. Training was residential in nature and lasted seven days. The experience was "process-oriented," rather than "control-oriented," stressing levels of communication, focusing on the here and now, using small groups that were basically unstructured. Subjects were tested two weeks before the experience and on the last day of the groups. Results indicated significant change in the direction of becoming more independent and self-supporting, more flexible, more sensitive to their own needs and feelings, more spontaneous and accepting of aggression. Methodological weaknesses include the use of multiple therapists, the lack of controls and no followup testing.

In a more methodologically sound study, Foulds and Hannigan (1976) researched the immediate and long term effects of a Gestalt marathon workshop on self-actualization. Subjects were 72 college students who volunteered to participate in a 24 hour marathon Gestalt workshop. The POI was the instrument of measure. Control

groups were utilized and tested at the same time as the experimental group. The agenda was Gestalt in orientation as the "leaders fostered increased self-awareness and self-directed change by helping the participants learn to use the tools of Gestalt therapy" (Foulds and Hannigan, 1976, p.62). Significant pre to posttest changes were found to persist and in some cases gains were observed in the self-actualization measures. Unfortunately, control groups were later given the marathon experience and did not participate in the followup testing.

Problems in Group Research

Measurement of outcomes and learning processes have always presented problems in methodological designs (Harrison, 1967). This is especially true in studies where desired changes are broadly defined as in encounter groups. This section helps to clarify weaknesses in the literature of the area and serve as a guide for the current research.

Harrison (1976) noted the potential problem areas in research concerning encounter groups. "The problem of adequate control groups for research on training is one of the most persistent problems in the area" (Harrison, 1967, p.464). There is often other than random selection and participants usually volunteer in some way. Specific suggestions are made concerning research. These include training that differentiates between experience and didactic learning, person or group oriented T-groups and control

for occupational groups. In addition, the author cites variability in the training experience as a research problem.

To begin with, there exists a kind of cult of originality among laboratory trainers in which dominant value is the invention and proliferation of new variations in training design. It thus becomes practically impossible to standardize training design even to permit us to classify literature according to design. (Harrison, 1967, p.479)

While some studies concentrate on didactic presentation, others propose unstructured experiences. Problems occur in the timing of data collection. Pretesting that occurs on the day training begins may measure pregroup anxieties. Finally, experimenter-participant relationships are significant and should be considered. While an extremely high value is placed on openness and honesty in training situations, actual or suspected manipulation may detract from results. While complete methodologies are important, research should not be discouraged by a lack of perfect methodologies.

Dinges and Weigel (1971) reviewed literature pertaining to research in the area of encounter groups. They maintain that there are some built-in advantages for research in the area, including a lack of history, maturation, instrument decay and differential mortality. Other methodological criticisms are presented in the order of increasing experimental rigor. Anecdotal evidence is regarded as the most unreliable of data.

Not only are they ideographic and anec-

dotal, but they are also confounded both by the observers being participant observers and by selective reporting. Moreover, as has been noted, both responses to group pressure and a need to avoid a state of cognitive dissonance may be further confounding factors. (Dinges and Weigel, 1971, p.147)

While observations are valuable, if employed as primary sources of data any conclusions concerning the usefulness of encounter groups will be highly questionable. Single group studies have been used to assess group experiences. While actuarial tests eliminate invalidity, the lack of control groups make an accurate assessment of group effectiveness impossible. Specifically, three important questions are unanswerable.

- 1) Were the effects observed different from those which might have occurred without treatment as a result of extraneous factors?
- 2) Could the effects observed be a function of the giving of attention to group members, regardless of the nature of treatment?
- 3) How do the effects observed compare to effects derived from other treatments? (Dinges and Weigel, 1967, p. 148)

The authors suggest that this methodology is primarily useful for refining experimental procedures and general hypotheses. The control and contrast group study is the only methodology which can accurately assess marathon group treatment. These studies employ empirical measurements as well as a variety of contrast and control groups. However, even these designs have their idiosyncratic design problems. Sample size is usually small and as a result

only weak statistical tests are available. Since it is unlikely that samples could be practically increased, the authors suggest pooling data to increase reliability. The most serious problem with this design is in the area of experimental control. Control group members may have had "therapeutic experiences" and it is suggested that control groups be exposed to positive expectancies or attention shown group members. The most powerful design includes treatment, control and contrast groups "to examine the efficacy of different treatments in comparison with control subjects drawn from the same subject pool" (Dinges and Weigel, 1967, p.149). Finally, the problem of research criterion is addressed by Dinges and Weigel. Measures that "reflect global intrapsychic function" and "home grown" measures are to be used with caution as are those tests with a very high face validity. A "shot-gun" approach (using multiple measures) is recommended as the first step in the development of meaningful instruments. The experimenter increases the likelihood of measuring important aspects of the group experience.

Thus, several measures based on different conceptual frameworks of positive mental health and adaptive psychological functioning are indicated, with the stipulation that sufficient time be allowed to pass after the marathon for changes to occur before the measures are administered. In this manner relatively enduring effects may be assessed. (Dinges and Weigel, 1967, p.151).

In the future, the authors suggest a multivariate approach which

includes consideration of leadership style, session length, techniques, group composition, member characteristics, fatigue/sleep loss, expectation as well as others (Dinges and Weigel, 1967).

The preceding section has illustrated examples of research in the area of encounter groups. These have shown groups to be effective in increasing self-insight, self-awareness and to remain over specific periods of time. Some methodological considerations have also been addressed as well as guidelines for future research in the area.

Criticisms of Encounter Groups

There have been a number of criticisms with respect to encounter groups. This section will present some of the controversial aspects of the encounter group experience.

Argyris (1969) argues that the basic assumptions associated with group experiences are not valid. These basic assumptions include: 1) it is good to free a person to experience his world more fully; 2) human events that are experienced primarily in a cognitive manner are incomplete; and 3) the unconscious plays a crucial role in learning and that childhood experiences are able to cause emotional problems such as blocks and distortions that curtail openness. These assumptions are refuted by the authors through the following questions. First, is complete openness necessary for self-awareness and self-acceptance? The literature has shown that a method for emotional balance is to intelligently

limit stimuli admitted to the consciousness level. Argyris also desires evidence that suggests that cognitive-rational experiences can inhibit development or leave man incomplete. Finally, while the author agrees that emotional dimensions in many have been suppressed, he questions whether all must be emotionally reactive to such a significant degree and wonders what type of feelings are appropriately strong enough. While Argyris feels like there are some beneficial reasons for the continued conduct of this experience, he also feels that there is a strong need for research and theoretical considerations.

Lakin (1972) is also a serious critic of the encounter group and its uses. He states that many individuals are now seeking this experience and that leaders are not trained to deal with a wide range of pathologies. The author also states that even National Training Laboratory accredited trainers are not "prepared to deal with the pathologies and expectations exhibited by the wide range of participants" (Lakin, 1973, p.225). Lakin also criticizes the lack of screening procedures and the inability of leaders to offer realistic expectations to the participants. He states that complete preparation is not possible if an effective experience is to be presented but that it is important to give some consideration to those images and beliefs concerning the experience. Lakin is also concerned about the claims of effectiveness given to this experience. These may lead to unrealistic

expectations.

A legitimate case can perhaps be made that training at least temporarily alleviates the loneliness so widespread in contemporary urban and industrial life, but the training experience as a palliative is neither learning about group processes nor is it profound personal change. (Lakin, 1972, p.227)

In the past, trainers have been relatively unaware of their great influence over participants and Lakin suggests that it is in the public's, as well as professional's, interest that leaders be aware of client needs and act ethically toward them. Evaluations have not been stressed nor studied and untrained leaders rarely evaluate their participants group behavior. Finally, the author is concerned about posttraining, confidentiality and refusal of participation among the general public. In conclusion,

Sensitivity training is one of the most compelling and significant psychological experiences and vehicle for learning as well as a promising laboratory for the study of personal and social change, even for the amelioration or resolution of social conflict. However, it may be abused or subverted into an instrument of unwarranted influence and ill-considered, even harmful practices. The immediate attention of the profession is necessary to maintain its positive potential and corresponding respectability and standards for practice. (Lakin, 1972, p.132)

In "The Trouble with Sensitivity Training," (Golembieski, 1971) criticisms are brought out surrounding the use of training groups in the business world. First, not a single piece of research has conclusively shown reported change that has been overtly measured

back at the job. Golembieski claims there is some question as to whether this experience is "training" at all. In good training, the desired terminal behavior is identified before the training begins. The author argues that sensitivity training does not typically identify specific target behaviors. Good training utilizes small logical steps. In sensitivity training, the participants and many times the trainers are not aware of the method of change. Finally, learning is under control in a training experience and this is not the case in sensitivity groups. Four suggestions are offered before business utilizes this technique.

- 1) A clearer distinction between group dynamics and group psychotherapy be made.
- 2) Trainers should be licensed by law.
- 3) More of the group material should be centered around business management.
- 4) There should be an attempt to rout out the quick money maker.

In a comprehensive compilation of criticisms of the group movement, Howard (1971) notes the following claims of the critics:

- 1) Cause stirring, wonderful things to happen but the effects of these are not valid because they do not last.
- 2) Use ridiculous jargon
- 3) Are pointless
- 4) Invade privacy
- 5) Are anti-intellectual

- 6) Cheapen real emotion
- 7) Are guilty of phoniness
- 8) Lead to emotional eliteness
- 9) May get to be a cult
- 10) Hypnotize their members
- 11) Can be run by charlatans who are corrupt or mediocre.
- 12) Foster sexual promiscuity
- 13) Encourage physical violence
- 14) Do psychological damage
- 15) Are a hotbed of junkies and dope addicts
- 16) Can be fatal

While the author does not agree with many of these criticisms, she indicates that each may contain a "kernal of truth."

This section has presented some of the criticisms of the encounter group movement and some suggestions for the future use of the experience.

Literature in the Area of Therapeutic Preparations

There have been a number of attempts to improve therapeutic experiences in a variety of settings. These include individual and group therapy. In addition, there has been one attempt at a premarathon treatment (Zarle and Willis, 1975). The following is a discussion of research in the area and the associated design problems.

Hoehn-Saric et al (1964) utilized a role induction interview to

systematically prepare psychotherapy clients. The sample consisted of 40 neurotic individuals between the ages of 18 and 55 applying to an outpatient clinic. There were 17 males and 23 females: 35 whites and 5 blacks. The role-induction interview covered four areas: 1) a general exposition of psychotherapy; 2) a description and explanation of the expected behavior of a patient and therapist; 3) a preparation for certain typical phenomena in the course of therapy; and 4) the induction of a realistic expectation for improvement within four months of treatment (Hoehn-Saric, 1964). In addition, patients were actively encouraged to participate. The presentation was modified accordingly. Initial testing included ratings as perceived by a research psychiatrist, the Kirtner Cartwright In-therapy Behavior Scale, and the Discomfort Scale. Attendance records were kept and taped interviews were rated "with respect to certain behaviors of patients and therapist" (Hoehn-Saric et al, 1964, p.271). The Therapy Behavior Scale was also utilized in rating tapes. Sixteen desirable and 15 undesirable behaviors were rated on a three point scale to determine therapy session usefulness. Finally, the Social Ineffectiveness Scale was utilized to evaluate patients four months after the beginning of the therapy. Results indicated that the induction interview was successful in the predicted direction in 10 of the 15 measurements. Significant changes in the direction of the role induction interview occurred in

attendance, Therapy Behavior Scale score after the third session, therapist rating of difficulty in establishing and maintaining the therapeutic relationship, therapist rating of improvement of target symptoms and a rating of social ineffectiveness at the conclusion of treatment. This study relied heavily on therapist and client perceptions which may be influenced by halo effects or other factors. No objective measures were administered for objectivity. In addition, the specific mechanisms within the interview were not varied and so there is no way of knowing which aspect improves therapeutic experiences.

In a replication and extension of the preceding study, Sloane, Cristol, Pepernik and Staples (1970) sought to differentiate between role preparation and expectation of improvement. Thirty-six neurotic patients were randomly assigned to one of four groups.

- 1) The first group was assigned to a psychotherapist without further explanation.
- 2) Those in the second group were told firmly that they should feel and function better after four months of psychotherapy.
- 3) The third group had the process of psychotherapy explained to them by means of Orne's anticipatory socialization interview.
- 4) The fourth group had the process of psychotherapy explained and in addition were told firmly that they should expect to feel and function better in four months of psychotherapy. (Sloan et al, 1970, p.18)

Therapists were nine residents who were unaware of the procedure and goals of the research. The therapist evaluated the patients

and there was also assessment by an independent psychiatrist after four months. Additionally, all patients were given verbal fluency tests (SRA Primary Mental Abilities Battery). In this study, anticipatory socialization was not enhanced by injecting expectation of improvement within four months. The socialization itself was shown to improve outcomes somewhat. The authors suggest that future studies include a direct measure of changes resulting from the induction interview as attitudes may be more effectively altered through other means.

Imber et al (1970) investigated one of the possible components of the role induction interview, the "hope for improvement" (p.27). Fourteen neurotic individuals who did not appear to hold expectations of improvement that were time-fixed were the subjects. All were administered a series of mock physiological tests and half were informed that they would experience improvement by the fourth week of psychotherapy and that the remainder of improvement would be gradual. All subjects received a role induction interview and were assigned to a therapist who saw them weekly. Outcome measures included a Relief Expectancy questionnaire, Global improvement scale and the Hildreth Feeling and Attitude Scale. An analysis of the results indicated no differences between the experimental and control groups at the four week or termination dates and questionnaires failed to produce attitude shifts even at the time of the procedure. Thus, it was concluded by the author that

patients who have very specific expectations for improvement are not easily manipulated. It was also felt that "four week expectancy we sought to induce may be too abbreviated even for clinically naive patients" (p.27).

Yalom, Houts, Newell and Rand (1967) examined preparation of patients for group psychotherapy. Sixty patients were randomly divided into two groups. The experimental group were presented a 25 minute preparatory lecture. Control subjects were seen in group psychotherapy for an equal time. Patients were then divided into three control and three experimental therapy groups and studied for a period of twelve meetings. The sample was largely middle class, 72% had some college education and the mean age was 28. Therapists were never aware of the nature of the study. Instruments included cohesiveness and faith-in-group questionnaires and attendance records were kept. Those individuals who received the preparatory lecture had greater but insignificant feeling of faith concerning group therapy and participated in significantly more here and now interactions. However, contrary to stated hypotheses, greater cohesiveness among experimental subjects was not supported. No attendance differences were noted. In summary:

A preparation interview clarifying group processes and role expectations can enhance the efficacy of interactional group therapy by hastening the appearance of effective levels of group communication. (Yalom et al, 1967. p.426)

Finally, it was suggested that excessive initial anxiety, frustration and other pregroup factors that may inhibit successful group psychotherapy may be eliminated through group preparation.

In a non-empirical study, Gauron and Rawlings (1975) offer a new procedure for orienting members for group psychotherapy. This procedure is conducted by means of a packet of handouts. The handout "Orientation and Guidelines to Problem-Solving in Group Psychotherapy" is a reformulation of guidelines originally used for lay helpers. It presents an orientation for the patient and promotes patient responsibility. "Ground Rules for Therapy Group Sessions" sets out "the most frequently occurring norms in therapy groups" (Gauron and Rawlings, 1975, p. 296). Guidelines for giving and taking feedback are also included. Lastly, each new member views a videotaped segment of the group to be joined. This allows the observation of some of the principals reviewed in the handouts and a visual acquaintance with faces of the other members. Background information of group members may also be gained through the use of the videotapes. The authors present their approach as a guideline for pretraining processes and encourage other therapists to train in their own style.

In the only study specifically designed to test a premarathon group preparation, Zarle and Willis (1975) utilized an induced affect technique. Twenty-six subjects were assigned to three treatment groups; the induced affect training only, the induced

affect training plus the encounter group and encounter group only. The induced affect training technique consisted of four, 50 minute sessions during the two weeks prior to the encounter group.

The training technique was conducted by using an audio-taped procedure which presented instructions on the alternating stages of deep muscle relaxation and affective arousal. The periods of affective arousal were initiated by instructing the subjects to recall and focus any strong affective reactions they had previously experienced or anticipated having. (Zarle and Willis, 1975, p. 50)

The following hypotheses were supported: 1) Group participants who did not receive the induced affect pregroup training would demonstrate significant increases on the Neuroticism scale of the Eysenck Personality Inventory, and 2) Group members who did not receive such training would not manifest such increases. The use of a pretraining strategy is considered a completely different manner of reducing possible negative consequences of encounter groups.

Typically, a response to reports of detrimental encounter group experiences has been to increase emphasis on participant screening procedures. The development and use of pregroup training experiences could be added to this response and might reduce the pressure to overexclude prospective group participants. (Zarle and Willis, 1975, p. 49)

The beneficial aspects of the encounter group experience would be made more available and safer to a wider population.

This section has presented the research relating to the

preparation of individuals for a variety of therapeutic experiences. This body of literature has generally shown the effectiveness of such procedures. However, research that has included the expectation of improvement as a factor in a pregroup training technique has generally not been effective in therapeutic improvement.

Methods

Subjects

The sample for this study consisted of 16 participants in two sensitivity training groups. In addition, 16 individuals served as controls and participated in the testing procedures. All subjects were undergraduate student volunteers. The stated criteria was that participants had no previous group experience. Subjects were solicited through newspaper advertising, posters in various buildings around campus as well as personal visits to a number of introductory classes (see Appendix A). Each volunteer was subsequently called and meeting times arranged for testing preparation and groups. Due to the limited response for volunteers, a second solicitation was initiated for additional subjects. The control subjects were offered the opportunity to participate in a similar group experience at a later date.

Instruments

The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) (Shostrom, 1966) and the Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) questionnaire of attitudes and anticipations toward encounter groups (AQ) were

selected as the dependent measures for this study.

The POI, an inventory for the measurement of self-actualization, was chosen because it empirically measures those aspects of personality thought to be most affected by an encounter group experience and because it has been most utilized in this area of scientific research. This instrument is based on Maslow's concept of the self-actualizing person, an individual who is seen as capable of developing and utilizing all of his unique capabilities. A self-administered test, the POI consists of 150 two choice comparative value and behavior judgements. The items are scored twice, first for the two basic scales of personal orientation, other/inner directed support (127 items) and time competence (23 items) and second for ten subscales each of which measures conceptually important elements of self-actualization.

According to Shostrum (1966), the time and other/inner support ratio cover two important areas in personal development and interpersonal interaction. The support scale was designed to measure whether an individual's mode of reaction is characteristically "self" or "other" oriented. Inner or self-directed individuals are said to be primarily guided by internalized principles or motivation while other-directed persons are, to a great extent, influenced by the peer groups or external forces. The time scale is said to measure the degree to which the individual lives in the present as contrasted with the past or future. The time competent

person lives primarily in the present with full awareness, contact and full feeling, while the time incompetent person lives primarily in the past with guilts, regrets and resentments and or in the future, with idealized goals, plans, expectations, predictions and fears. Scores on each of ten subscales are designed to reflect a facet important in the development of the self-actualizing person. The subscales measure the following:

SAV-Self-Actualizing Value (#5): Measures affirmation of primary values of self-actualizing person.

Ex-Existentiality (#6): Measures ability to situationally or existentially react without rigid adherence to principles.

Fr-Feeling Reactivity (#7): Measures sensitivity of responsiveness to one's own needs and feelings.

S-Spontaneity (#8): Measures freedom to react spontaneously or to be oneself.

Sr-Self-Regard (#9): Measures self-affirmation because of worth or strength.

Sa-Self-Acceptance (#10): Measures affirmation or acceptance or self in spite of weaknesses or deficiencies.

Nc-Nature of Man (#11): Measures degree of the constructive view of nature of man, masculinity, femininity.

Sy-Synergy (#12): Measures ability to be synergistic, to transcend dichotomies.

A-Acceptance of Aggression (#13): Measures ability to accept one's natural aggressiveness as opposed to defensiveness, denial and repression of aggression.

C-Capacity for Intimate Contact (#14): Measures ability to develop contactful intimate relationships with others, unencumbered by expectations and obligations.

Nominated group, concurrent validity as well as correlations with other scales have been studied with respect to the POI. One of the most useful tests of validity is the POI's ability to discriminate between individuals who have been observed to have attained a relatively high degree of self-actualization and those who are not so judged. Shostrom (1964) administered the POI to two groups, one of relatively "self-actualizing" and the other of relatively "non-self-actualizing" adults. Individuals for each group were selected by practicing certified clinical psychologists. Results indicate that the inventory significantly discriminated between clinically judged self-actualizing and non-self-actualizing groups on 11 of the 12 scales. In addition, the measures for the self-actualizing group are above the normal adult group means on 11 of 12 scales. Thus, the results indicate that the POI effectively discriminates between self-actualizing and non-self-actualizing individuals.

In another study to test the sensitivity of the POI in clinical settings, Shostrom and Knapp (1966) administered the POI to 37 patients entering therapy and 39 patients who had experienced 11-64 months of therapy. Results indicate that all 12 scales differentiated between the no therapy and therapy groups; that is individuals who had experienced therapy scored significantly higher than those who had no therapy. Administration of the MMPI showed significantly lower scores by the experienced therapy group on the

Psychopathic Deviant, Schizophrenia, Hysteria and Paranoia scales.

Zaccaria and Weir (1966) studied 70 alcoholics and their spouses participating in an alcoholic treatment program. All mean POI scores were lower than the original validating, clinical nominated, self-actualizing sample. In addition, all scales but one showed the experimental treatment sample to be significantly lower than the normal sample in the original validation study sample. The one scale, Time Competance, was lower than the normal sample and the authors conclude that it is apparent that alcoholics are particularly apt to dwell on past or future events.

Another form of validity is the determination of correlations with other measures that measure similar traits. Since no other instruments are specifically designed to measure the concept of self-actualization, other standard personality inventories have been utilized. A correlational study utilizing the MMPI was based on two samples, a beginning and advanced therapy group. The most significant relationships occurred with the MMPI Social Introversion/Extroversion Scale (Si) than any other MMPI scale. In addition, a large number of significant POI correlations (11 of 24 ratios over .40) were obtained on the Depression (D) Scale. The authors suggest that the POI scales were tapping the area of "emotional morale." The Self-Regard and Inner-Direction scales of the POI each correlated over .40 with the D scale.

Test-retest reliability coefficients have been obtained. The

POI was administered twice, a week apart. Coefficients for the major scales of Time Competance and Inner Direction are .71 and .77 respectively and for the subscales from .52 to .87.

Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles (1973) have developed a series of questionnaires for encounter group research. For this study, two parts were utilized concerning attitudes and anticipations toward encounter groups. The Attitude Questionnaire (AQ) is the only measure of participants' perception of the encounter group experience. The authors suggest that the importance and "meaningfulness of encounter experience may also be reflected in a re-ordering or reorientation of perceptions of what is personally important" (Lieberman, Yalom and Miles, 1973, p.15). Part One of the AQ consists of 15 items and a ten point scale that elicits perceptions of behaviors associated with encounter group participation. Part two consists of ten items on a seven point scale that surveys those aspects of the encounter group experience that are personally important to participants. Validity and reliability research has not been conducted. However, the control groups in this study will provide a limited reliability rating. With respect to validity, the attitudes included in the AQ are considered to be crucial for this study.

Research Design

The four group experimental design for this study is a modification of the Soloman (1949) design (See Figure 1). The utiliza-

tion of a posttest only group as well as a pre to posttest group serves to consider external validity factors. Therefore, analysis was possible to determine the main effects of testing and any practice effects from the experimental instruments. Two experimental groups included a group participating in the pregroup socialization and one which did not participate in such an experience.

Procedure

Subjects were solicited according to the specifications outlined in a previous section. Group 2, that group which was not to receive the preencounter group socialization, was randomly selected to be the first encounter group offered. Two days before the encounter group experience, participants were administered the criterion measures. The examiner gave no explanation concerning instructions for the instruments. Participants were asked only to indicate their sex and social security number to insure confidentiality. Group 1, the second encounter group offered, required another subject solicitation because the first produced an inadequate number of subjects. Two days before this group, the participants met for the preparation. The testing took place first in accordance with those specifications of the previous group. The preparation itself lasted approximately 50 minutes and included the material presented in Appendix A. The discussion following the preparation was limited to specific points presented in pre-

Figure 1

A Schematic Presentation of the Experimental Design

Group	Pretest	Preparation	Encounter	Posttest
Group 1 (Experimental 1)	X	X	X	X
Group 2 (Experimental 2)	X		X	X
Group 3 (Control 1)	X			X
Group 4 (Control 2)				X

paration strategy. Five individuals in the group were present at the first discussion while two others received a similar preparation the morning before the encounter group. Both were similar but allowed for participant involvement. Groups lasted six to seven hours and were Gestalt in orientation. The facilitator was a trained psychologist who has led many such groups previously. The activities of the group are summarized in Appendix B. Posttesting took place six to eight days after the encounter group experience. This time span was chosen to eliminate the possibility of a "halo" effect. Testing for the control group subjects was identical to the experimental groups. After posttest, these individuals were offered an encounter group at a later date.

Hypothesis

One research hypothesis was formulated which was divided into two operational hypotheses that could be statistically tested.

The research hypothesis states:

A group receiving an encounter group preparation strategy prior to an encounter group experience will show significantly greater increases in self-actualization than a group who has not participated in a pregroup preparation.

The operational hypotheses related to this assertion state:

- 1) A group receiving an encounter group preparation strategy prior to an encounter group experience will show greater increases on the 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) than a group who has not participated in a pregroup preparation.

- 2) A group receiving an encounter group preparation strategy prior to an encounter experience will show significantly greater increases on Part One and Part Two of the Attitude Questionnaire (AQ) than a group who has not participated in a pre-group preparation.

Analysis

A two part analysis was utilized for this study. First, a T-test of the mean differences was calculated for each group participating in the pretest measures. This allowed determination of significant differences in groups before treatment. Second, a T-test ratio of the mean differences as well as a one-way analysis of variance was utilized to determine the degree of significance of posttest differences in appropriate groups.

Results

In order to determine whether differences between the experimental and control groups existed on the pretest measures, a T-test of differences between the means was calculated. Comparisons were made on the Time Competance and Inner-Directedness scales, the two major scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI). Parts One and Two of the Attitude Questionnaire were also included in the calculations. Table 1 presents the T-ratios for the pretest comparisons. No significant differences occurred in

Table 1

T-ratios for the Pretest Group Comparisons

Comparison	POI		AQ	
	Tc	I	Part 1	Part 2
Group 1 & Group 2	-.20566	1.2175	.49217	-.99295
Group 1 & Group 3	.68346	1.4846	1.2484	1.3593
Group 2 & Group 3	.42717	.56736	1.5316	.62158

the pretest comparisons and therefore, these groups are assumed to be congruent as measured by the POI and AQ.

The first operational hypothesis stated that individuals who

received the encounter group preparation prior to an encounter group experience would score significantly higher on the POI. To determine whether significant differences occurred on the posttest measures a T-test as well as a one-way analysis of variance was calculated. Table 2 presents the means and analysis of variance for Groups 1 and 2 on the POI. No scales on this measure were found to contain significant differences. Table 3 presents the T-ratios for the POI. The one comparison between groups that was

Table 3

T-test Ratios for Posttest Comparisons
on the Personality Orientation Inventory

Comparison	Tc	POI	I
Group 1 & 2	-.88530		-.93546
Group 1 & 3	-.23420		-.61550
Group 1 & 4	-.53203		-1.1547
Group 2 & 3	.50179		.65454
Group 2 & 4	1.81529		3.18351*
Group 3 & 4	-.75592		-1.4248

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 2
Means and a One-Way Analysis of Variance
for Group 1 and Group 2

Group	Tc	I	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Group 1 x =	18.14	92.71	21.71	23.85	17.57	14.14	13.14	17.42	13.28	8.14	17.28	20.70
Group 2 x =	19.13	99.50	22.12	26.30	18.50	15.50	13.63	18.38	12.75	7.75	18.63	22.60
Analysis of Variance	.7838 NS	4.386 NS	.4381 NS	1.670 NS	.9573 NS	1.475 NS	.1743 NS	.7681 NS	.4231 NS	.7232 NS	.6631 NS	1.536 NS

NS = Non-significant

found to be statistically significant was that between Group 2 and 4 on the Inner-Directedness Scale ($F= 3.1835$). This indicates a significant difference between the encounter group, no preparation strategy group and the posttest only control group. Thus, operational hypothesis one was not upheld. However, the effects of the encounter group itself as a behavior change mechanism is suggested. Figure 2 presents a comparison of means on the scales of the POI for Groups 1,2, and 3. All but two scales of the POI (scale C, Group 1 and SY, Group 2) changed in the expected direction. The control group shows no such relationship.

The second operational hypothesis stated that individuals who received the encounter group preparation strategy prior to an encounter group experience would score significantly higher on Part One and Two of the AQ than those who did not. To determine whether significant differences occurred on the posttest measures, a T-test and a one-way analysis of variance was computed. Table 4 presents the T-test ratios and Table 5 the one-way analysis of variance for the AQ. A statistically significant T-ratio and one-way analysis of variance occurred in the comparison of Groups 3 and 4, the pre and posttest control and the posttest only control on Part Two of the Questionnaire ($t= -2.8896$ and $F= 8.3502$). This indicates a statistically significant difference in the posttest of the two groups, referred to as a "practice effect." Therefore, the statistically significant relationships that occur on Part Two

Figure 2

Means on the Scales of the POI
for Groups 1, 2 and 3

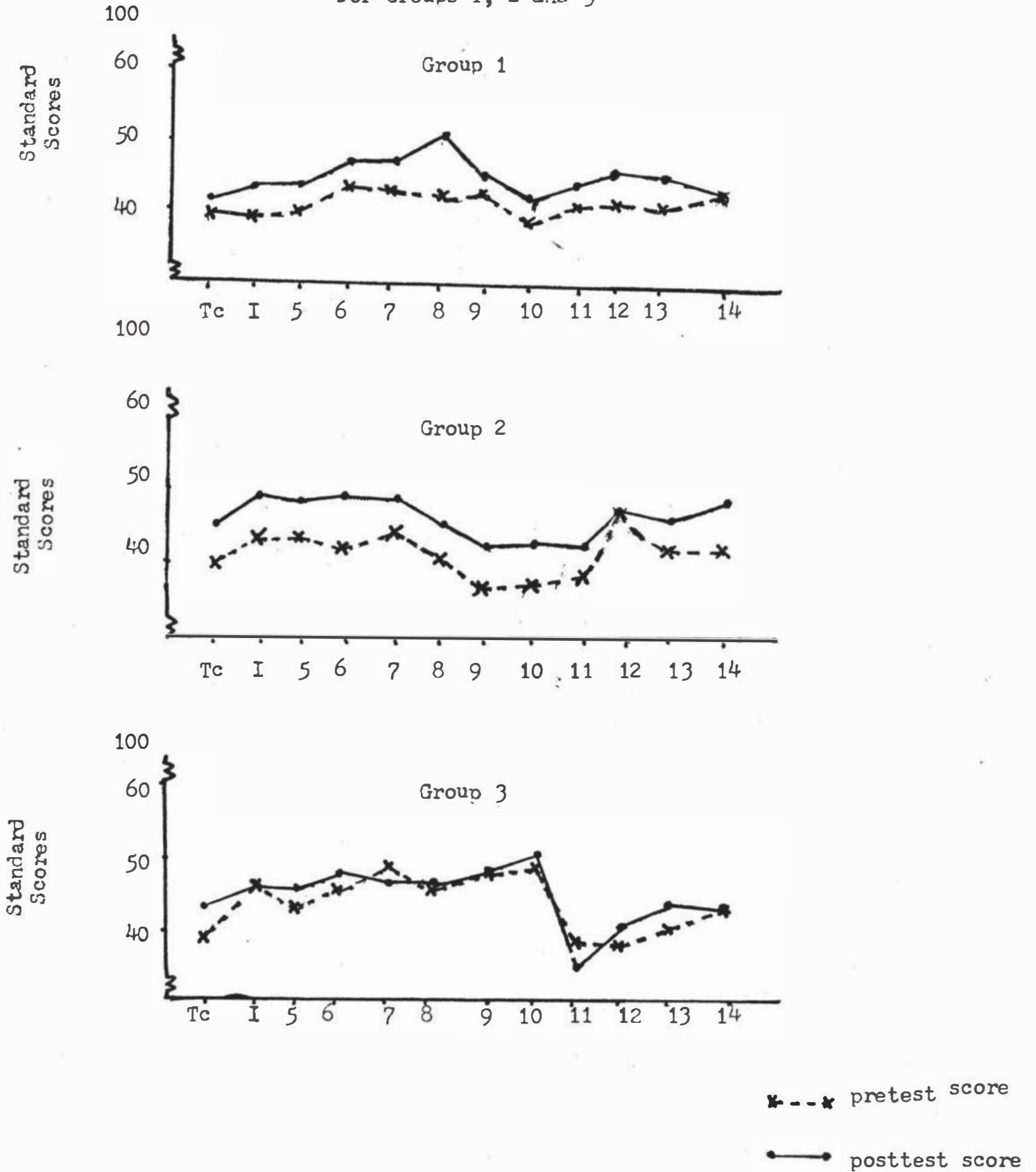


Table 4
 T-test Ratios for Posttest Comparisons
 on the Attitude Questionnaire

Comparison	AQ	
	Part One	Part Two
Group 1 & 2	1.87393*	-2.21079*
Group 1 & 3	1.9526*	-3.5040**
Group 1 & 4	4.1997**	-3.5549**
Group 2 & 3	-.34188	-1.6953
Group 2 & 4	1.06877	-1.7327
Group 3 & 4	.61209	-2.8896**

* significant at $p < .05$

** significant at $p < .01$

of the AQ for the T-test ratio and one-way analysis of variance must be viewed cautiously. The relationships are possibly due to the practice-effect that occurred on Part Two of the AQ. Therefore, operational hypothesis two is not upheld.

Evidence from the AQ seems to suggest the usefulness of the encounter group experience as a behavioral change mechanism.

Table 5

A One-way Analysis of Variance for All Groups
on the Attitude Questionnaire

Comparison	AQ	
	Part One	Part Two
Group 1 & 2	3.5116	2.1348
Group 1 & 3	3.9144	10.8771*
Group 1 & 4	17.6380**	6.6648*
Group 2 & 3	.11846	2.8740
Group 2 & 4	1.4228	3.0025
Group 3 & 4	3.7886	8.3502*

* significant at p .05

** significant at p .01

Table 6 presents the T-test ratios for pre and posttest comparisons on the AQ. Group 1 showed a significant ($p < .01$) increase in Part Two of the AQ. With respect to the other groups, no such significant differences occurred. Figures 3 and 4 present the pre and post-test means on Parts One and Two of the AQ. On Part One, the figure suggests that those individuals who experience an encounter group

Table 6

T-test Ratios for the Pre and Posttest
Comparison on the Attitude Questionnaire

Group	AQ	
	Part One	Part Two
Group 1	-1.2151	5.9178**
Group 2	-1.5316	.93238
Group 3	-.61209	-.42994

** significant at the p .01

indicate a greater behavioral change. Part Two shows similar indications. While those individuals in Group 3 indicated an increase in their self-rating (toward the less important end of the scale), those who participated in the encounter group showed decreases suggesting an increase in importance of certain behaviors.

Figure 3

Pre and Posttest Means for Part One
of the Attitude Questionnaire

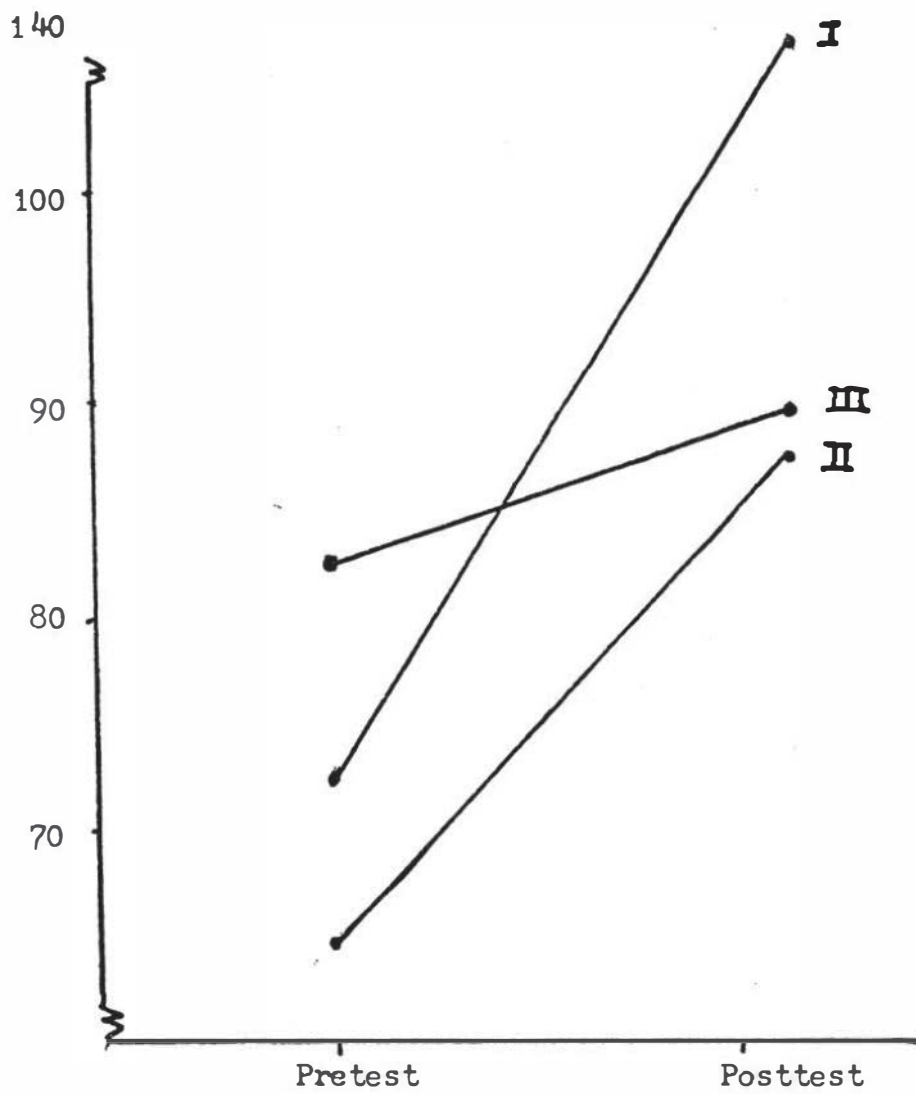
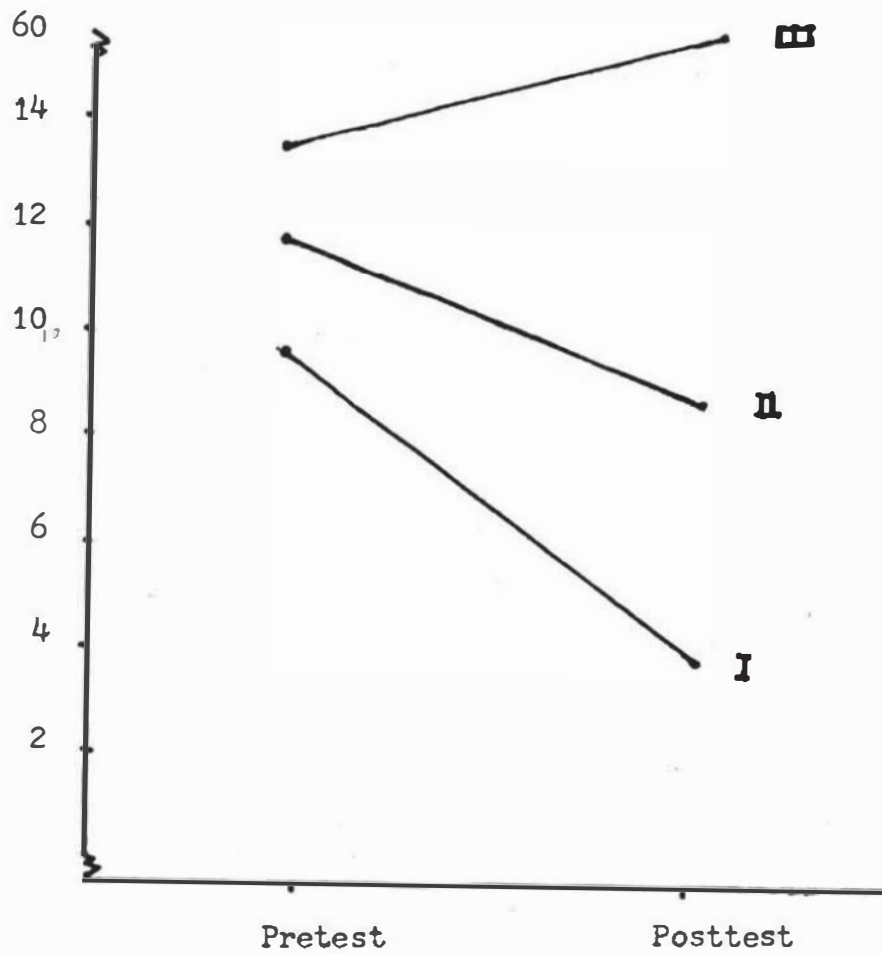


Figure 4

Pre and Posttest Means for Part Two
of the Attitude Questionnaire



Discussion

The purpose of this study was to formulate and evaluate a preparation strategy for encounter group participants. Specifically, the Personality Orientation Inventory (POI) and the Attitude Questionnaire (AQ) were the criterion instruments. Within the research hypothesis, two operational hypotheses were formulated and statistically tested. No changes in posttest measures were evident on the scales of the POI or AQ and the operational hypotheses were not upheld.

The POI is an objective measure of self-actualization based on the work of Maslow. Operational hypothesis one stated that individuals who receive the preencounter group strategy would score significantly higher on all scales of the POI. No significant differences were observed on any scales of the POI in the experimental group. Therefore, it is concluded that a preencounter group preparation strategy does not enhance the usefulness of an encounter group strategy as measured by this instrument.

The AQ is a measure of self-perceptions toward interpersonal and intrapersonal behavior as a result of an encounter group experience. Part One measures differences in the participants' self-ranking on various aspects of social behavior, since it was administered before and after the encounter group. Part Two measures the changes in participant perception of inter and intrapersonal relations after an encounter group experience. Changes in

Part One did not reach a statistically significant level, however, a comparison of T-test ratios suggest that those individuals who participated in a preencounter group strategy had a greater increase in their self-ranking than those who had not participated in such an experience. On Part Two, statistically significant differences were observed in comparisons with the two control groups. This may be the result of two factors. First, a practice effect could have occurred. This means that individuals administered Part Two on two separate occasions increased their self-ratings without an experimental treatment. Secondly, this finding may be accounted for by differences in the two control groups. In this case, the utilization of a non-random assignment to groups 3 and 4 may be the cause. While statistical tests seem to suggest that the preparation is helpful in enhancing an encounter group experience on Part Two, the interaction observed between Groups 3 and 4 makes such a conclusion impossible.

The utility of the encounter group as a behavior change mechanism is suggested in this study. Participants in Group 2 scored significantly higher on POI Scale I, (Inner-Directedness), than those individuals in the pre to posttest control group. In both experimental groups, participants scored higher on posttest measures on all but one scale, although the differences were statistically non-significant. Such a difference did not occur in the pre and posttest control group. With respect to Parts One and Two of the

AQ, significant differences at the .01 level can be seen in a comparison of Group 1 and the posttest control group. This means that as measured by the AQ there is a difference between those individuals who participated in an encounter group and those that did not. Furthermore, individuals in both experimental groups (One and Two) increased their perception of social behavior in the direction of openness and honesty. This was not the case in the pre and posttest control group. Therefore, the importance and usefulness of the brief encounter group is suggested in this study.

The findings of this study are severely limited in several ways and may have significantly altered the reported results. First, a major limitation of this study was the lack of volunteers available. The encounter groups were run during the summer session when the number of students on campus dramatically decreases. Thus, the number of individuals who might volunteer for participation in a group experience is limited accordingly. Another methodological problem in this study is closely related to the first problem discussed. As a result of the small number of volunteers, it was impossible to assign subjects randomly to the various experimental groups. Instead, groups were randomly chosen and participants assigned as they volunteered. Those individuals who volunteered first may have been different than those who volunteer later. The practice effect that occurred in Part Two of the AQ may also be a result of non-random group assignment. Finally, the utilization of a small N is a problem in this study. Any variance in encounter

groups would have altered the results. It was the encounter group facilitators impression that Group 2 was more intensive than the other group. The utilization of multiple groups and pooling of data would allow more valid results.

The results of this study have been discussed. The research hypothesis stating that a pregroup preparation strategy would improve this experience was not upheld. Data suggesting the usefulness of the encounter group experience as well as the limitations of the current research were also presented.

Implications for Further Research

The current study has not substantiated the hypothesis that a pregroup preparation strategy significantly enhances an encounter group experience. However, major methodological limitations associated with this study indicate the need for future research in the area. For a final decision to be made concerning this technique, research in the future should include some of the following suggestions.

First, the length of the encounter group itself should be significantly increased. A longer group would optimize the groups' experiencing more involvement and thus increase the probability of significant behavioral change that was the result of training. Group members could have the opportunity to experience and process significantly more during a longer time period. The preparation could serve a more important function in a group that is significantly

longer by shortening the introduction and lengthening the "working phase,"

The second important consideration for future research should be the experimental manipulation of the pregroup preparation strategy. This study utilized a more didactic approach. However, the effects of experiential preparations are not known. A combination of these two type approaches may be the most effective. Placebo group preparations should also be tested.

Research in the area should also provide for expanded use of criterion instruments. While this study found differences in self-ratings, objective personality measures did not significantly change. The use of other criterion measures would allow a differentiation of perception and objective measures.

Conclusion

The utilization of encounter groups is widespread and becoming a very common tool of the psychotherapist. However, there has been some concern about the effectiveness and safety of this behavioral change mechanism. The purpose of this study was to test an encounter group preparation strategy designed to enhance the encounter group experience. The hypothesis that the strategy would enhance the encounter group experience was not upheld. Statistically significant changes in the Personality Orientation Inventory and the Attitude Questionnaire were not found in the experimental group. Evidence was also presented to suggest that the encounter group experience is a useful behavioral change mechanism. Suggestions for further research include a larger sample size, lengthening the encounter group experience and enhancing the preparation with experiential activities. Further research in the area is indicated.

Appendix A

Text for Subject Solicitation

The following is the text of advertisements utilized in subject solicitation.

BRIEF ENCOUNTER GROUP

Led by _____

An experienced group leader.

Groups will last approximately seven hours
and times can be easily arranged.

Participants will be asked to complete a short
series of questionnaires.

Participants should not have been in such a
group before

Call _____

Appendix B

Outline of Preencounter Group Preparation Strategy

The following is an outline of the encounter group preparation strategy. Specific information was collected from two primary sources: Carl Rogers' On Encounter Groups and O'Bannon and O'Connell's' The Shared Journey: An Introduction to Encounter.

I. Introduction to Group

- A) Introduction of leaders
- B) What really is an encounter group?
- C) What is it?
 - 1) Meeting people intimately.
 - 2) Being real.
 - 3) Honesty.
 - 4) Very special relationships.

II. Historical Sketch

- A) Kurt Lewin's contribution.
- B) Training in human relations needed.
- C) First group.
- D) National Training Laboratory.
- E) An overview of the human potential movement.
- F) Current uses.
 - a) Communities.
 - b) Therapy.
 - c) Educational purposes.
 - d) Business utilization.

III. Purpose of an Encounter Group

- A) Dulled perception in everyday life.
- B) Periodic opportunities to re-evaluate.
- C) Interpersonal growth.
- D) Intrapersonal growth.
- E) Intimacy.

IV. For Whom are the Groups?

- A) Does not infer psychological trouble.
- B) Middle classes.
- C) Cautions.

V. Process of Encounter Group.

- A) Introduction to process.
 - 1) May or not be aware of steps in process.
 - 2) May skip and come back to certain steps.
 - 3) May never progress to certain steps.
 - 4) All dependent on the individuals' group.
- B) Preparatory Stage.
 - 1) Struggle to determine dynamics.
 - 2) Feel out each other.
 - 3) Enter with some much varied information.
 - 4) Expectations.
- C) Transition Stage.
 - 1) More getting to know each other.
 - 2) More extensive risk-taking.
 - 3) Purpose for each individual more evident.
- D) Working Stage.
 - 1) The "meaty stage."
 - 2) Disclosures made.
 - 3) Specific issues.
 - 4) Each individual makes own personal decision.
- E) End or Termination Stage.
 - 1) Tapering off.
 - 2) Development of closure.

VI. Results of Research in Encounter Groups.

- A) Social skill enhancement.
- B) Unequal benefits to participants.
- C) Significant changes.
- D) Casualties.

VII. Discussion and Processing.

Note: Discussion included only those areas pertaining to preparation.

Total Elapsed Time: 50 minutes.

Appendix C

- 1) Introduction:
Introduction of the facilitators and expectations for the groups.
- 2) Introductory exercise:
Get to know someone you do not know. Introduce that person to the group as if you are that person.
- 3) Process and discuss the exercise
- 4) Relaxation and "food for thought":
Thoughts presented by facilitator.
- 5) Expectations of the group
- 6) Non-verbal communications:
Get to know one another by touch.
- 7) Process this
- 8) Break for lunch
- 9) Fantasy into childhood:
Re-experience your childhood.
- 10) Brother and sister:
Get to know someone of the opposite sex.
- 11) Play time with brother and sister
- 12) Individual issues of group members:
Depending on who wishes to disclose.
- 13) Feedback- negative and positive:
Each individual gives feedback to each other person.
- 14) Saying goodbye:
Dealing with the closeness of the group and coming to the realization that it is over.

Appendix D

Text of Attitude Questionnaire

Personal Anticipations¹

Participation in an encounter or T-group is a very personal thing. In many ways it is a human laboratory in which each person can meet a variety of needs, carry away a range of learnings, and find many different kinds of experiences. We are interested in knowing, from your perspective at this time, some of the ways you anticipate how, if you were to participate, an encounter group might be meaningful to you.

The following seven items refer to some of the ways previous participants have used such group experiences.

First, read through the entire seven items and show by putting an X on the line---how you would describe yourself as you are now,

After you've completed the seven items, read through them again and show--by putting a circle on the line--where you think you would be at the end of an encounter group experience.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Seldom express my true feelings to others. | Usually express to others what I feel inside. |
| 2. Difficult to know how others feel and think about me. | Usually know how others feel about me. |
| 3. Would like to change some of the ways I relate to people. | Pretty satisfied about the way I relate to people. |
| 4. Hard for me to get close to others. | Easy for me to get close to others. |
| 5. Frequently don't understand my inner feelings. | Usually understand my inner feelings. |

- | | |
|---|--|
| 6. Often am not sensitive to how others feel. | Usually am sensitive to how others feel. |
| 7. Difficult for me to be spontaneous. | Easy for me to be spontaneous. |

Reminder: Now read through the seven items again and indicate with a circle where you think you'll be at the end of the encounter group experience.

The following eight items represent how some people have viewed their experiences in encounter groups.

First read through the entire eight items and show--by putting an X on the line--to what extent in your own life as it is now you have an opportunity for such experiences.

After you've completed the eight items, read through them again and show--by putting a circle on the line--the extent to which you think an encounter group would give you such an opportunity.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 8. Rarely have a chance to get information from others about my behavior. | Have as many opportunities as I need to get feedback about my behavior. |
| 9. I do not have enough opportunities to know others deeply. | I have enough situations where I can know others deeply. |
| 10. Rarely have an opportunity to have an open and honest encounter with my peers. | I have as many open and honest encounters with my peers as I want. |
| 11. Not enough opportunity to share with peers. | Many opportunities to share with peers. |
| 12. Rarely get the chance to have novel experiences. | Have a number of opportunities to have novel experiences. |

13. Rarely have a chance to put others straight. Have many opportunities for putting others straight.
14. Seldom in situations where I can trust other people. Often in situations where I can trust other people.
15. Seldom in a situation where I can get out all the anger I feel. Often in a situation where I can get out all the anger I feel.

Reminder: Now read through the eight items again and indicate by a circle the extent to which you expect the encounter group will provide such an opportunity.

You have just completed a list of items in which you described where you are now and some of your anticipations about group experiences. We would like to know which of these possibilities offered in the encounter group experience are personally important to you. Please read the following statements and indicate their importance to you by marking the line at the place that best reflects your feelings.

- | | Extremely
Important | Unimportant |
|---|------------------------|-------------|
| 16. Being able to express my feelings. | _____ | |
| 17. Being able to tell it like it is. | _____ | |
| 18. Learning about how others view me. | _____ | |
| 19. Being sensitive to others' feelings. | _____ | |
| 20. Having new experiences. | _____ | |
| 21. Being flexible and letting things happen. | _____ | |
| 22. Expressing anger directly to people. | _____ | |
| 23. Changing some of the ways I relate to people. | _____ | |

24. Becoming closer to others. _____

25. Understanding my inner self. _____

26. Sharing with peers. _____

Other ways this experience may be
important to you. _____

1. Items 1-15, ten-point scales; items 17-26, seven-point scales. The questionnaires were given to the participants at the end of the encounter group and then again at the long-post follow-up. The original questionnaires covering items 1-15 with the participants rating were readministered. Thus each participant had before them how they had filled it out prior to entering the groups. The questionnaire covering items 16-26 (values) were administered without benefit of the original scores.

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