SOCIAL PERCEPTIONS AND VERBAL INTERACTIONS IN TAPE-DIRECTED AND COUNSELOR-DIRECTED ENCOUNTER GROUPS

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by
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We the undersigned do certify that we have read this dissertation and that in our opinions it is acceptable in both scope and quality as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

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ABSTRACT

SOCIAL PERCEPTIONS AND VERBAL INTERACTIONS
IN TAPE-DIRECTED AND COUNSELOR-DIRECTED
ENCOUNTER GROUPS

By

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The purpose of this study was to determine the relative effectiveness of tape-directed and counselor-directed encounter groups as well as the influence of videotaping on the group process. This study was replicated in two different subject populations. A total of 72 subjects were used in this study (30 males and 42 females). Subject population A was drawn from a predominantly black college population while subject population B was comprised of predominantly middle-class white college students.

Four encounter groups were run in each of the two subject populations: (1) Tape-directed encounter group which was video-taped, (2) tape-directed encounter group which was audio-taped, (3) counselor-directed encounter group which was video-taped, (4) counselor-directed encounter group which was audio-taped.

Each of the four encounter groups was audio-taped and later analyzed for degree and depth of participation. The number of subject responses was used as a measure of group participation and the number of "feeling" statements constituted a measure of depth of subject participation. A sociometric questionnaire was administered at the end of each encounter group and later scored for the number of mutual affiliation choices.

Analysis of variances and chi-square were performed to test for significant differences between treatment groups on the dependent variable measures for each of the two subject populations. In population A, subjects gave significantly more "feeling" statements in counselor-directed groups than in tape-directed encounter groups. No significant difference was found in subject population B. Videotaping was not found to be a significant variable in either population A or population B, although an interaction effect between videotaping and the use of tape-directed encounter groups was noted. No significant difference was found between treatment groups on the sociometric questionnaire.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Personal growth groups (i.e., T-groups, encounter groups, sensitivity groups) have become a significant force in the counseling field in recent years. The literature indicates a number of significant variables which influence the group process. The effectiveness of the group has been found to be significantly related to the training and personality of the leader (Egan, 1970, pp. 123-139), while more recently the value of a group leader or trainer has been questioned by a number of innovators in the field (Berzon and Reisel, 1968; Solomon, 1972). In the rapidly growing field of encounter groups, interest has been recently shown in the implementation of leaderless groups. Berzon and Reisel (1968) have published a series of audio-tapes called Encountertapes which are intended to direct leaderless encounter groups; however, little research has been done to date on this variation of the basic T-group. Available research centers on possible areas of application, but scant information is available on the relative effectiveness of these groups in comparison to more structured groups.

Where previous research has indicated that the personality and style of the group leader are positive factors in group effectiveness (Golemblewske and Blumberg, 1970, pp. 132-191; Bradford, et al, 1964, pp. 409-410), there has been scant research on the dynamics of leaderless groups. Back (1948) suggests that the leader serves as a model for the group members and thus is a beneficial factor in the group. The leaderless group lacks such models; but how this effects the group's dynamics has yet to be fully evaluated.

A second factor which as been overlooked in the literature involves the use of videotape in counseling. Shertzer and Stone (1968) observe that there is ample evidence that videotaping is an effective tool when employed in the counseling situation for supervision purposes or as a self-confrontation technique. Few researchers have studied the impact which videotaping has on group participants. It is possible that the presence of videotape equipment is an extraneous variable in the counseling setting which may act to dilute the potential for personal growth. Danet (1969) has found that the use of television equipment in a group session was a disruptive factor, while others have found that video-recording either made a difference in the group (Paredes, 1969) or increased group participation (Czajkorski, 1960).

Simon (1970) has found that recording procedures not only effects the counselee, but also modifies the counselor's behavior during a counseling session. With the increased use of videotaping in counseling, it is imperative to isolate and define the influence of electronic recording devices on the counseling process.

Subject composition is a third factor which has been overlooked. Most studies completed on leaderless encounter groups have used highly restricted subject populations. Brenner (1971) and Golden & Ross (1968) used elementary school teachers in a study of effectiveness of leaderless encounter groups, while Berzon and Solomon used a group of volunteers from a rehabilitation agency (1968). In Stock's (1964) review of the literature, it is observed that a majority of the available studies employ subjects from a middle class or upper middle class socioeconomic background. There are no studies cited which contrast performance within groups according to varying memberships in different socioeconomic classes. If encounter groups are to be used in a wider variety of situations, the question of group composition become quite important and yet remains still unanswered.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine whether mean differences in group effectiveness existed in encounter groups which are leader-directed and encounter groups which are self-directed with the assistance of audio-tapes.

A second purpose of this study seeks to determine the relative effects of videotaping on the group process. It is of particular research interest to determine if these effects are greatest when a counselor is present or in the leaderless encounter groups.

A third purpose of this study attempts to demonstrate the applicability of leaderless encounter groups in a subject population as yet unresearched (e.g., predominantly black student population) in T-group studies.

A fourth purpose of this investigation seeks to determine possible relationships between the use of the Encountertape program and counselor-directed encounter groups with different types of populations.

A fifth purpose for this dissertation is to determine if there are any extraneous effects present when videotaping is used and to determine in what direction these effects are operating on the group process.

The Importance of the Problem

The importance of the previously stated problem lies not only in the study of the group process, but extends to question the very nature of the counseling process itself. It has been traditionally maintained that the core of the counseling process was to be found in the interaction between the counselor and the client. It is asserted that it is within this interpersonal relationship that effective counseling takes place (Rogers, 1958; Arbuckle, 1956).

Pepinsky and Pepinsky (1954) state that counseling is:

> a process by which help is given . . . . Here the client and counselor interact in an interview or series of interviews . . . . And the function of the interaction is to help the client change his behavior so that he can obtain a satisfactory resolution of his need (p. 3).

This view of counseling as an interpersonal relationship between counselor and client has been challenged in the last decade. The role of counselor as the primary catalyst in the counseling relationship is no longer sacrosanct. The advent of telephone crisis centers and rap centers has suggested that the counseling process does not necessarily include a personal contact between a counselor and a client. Dilley (1971) questions the importance of face-to-face contact in the counseling process.

Using both trained and untrained professionals, Dilley studied the effectiveness of three different types of counseling services: face-to-face; in a confessional-type arrangement; and by telephone. No significant differences were found on empathy reports of counselees between the face-to-face counseling and the less traditional forms of counseling. The authors conclude the face-to-face contact is not an essential component of the counseling process.

These findings are supported by other researchers. Schmitz and Mickelson (1972) studied the effectiveness of drug counseling in a crisis center which employed a telephone hot-line. Results indicated that the counseling which occurred over the telephone was effective. Such studies point to the need to redefine the essentials of counseling in terms other than an interpersonal relationship between a counselor and client.

While studies by Dilley (1971) and Schmitz & Mickelson (1972) found that face-to-face contact was not essential in the counseling process, other studies have found that counseling can occur outside <u>any</u> personal contact, face-to-face or otherwise. Denholtz (1970) discusses the use of a tape recorder as a means of continuing the counseling process between interviews. Recordings are made in the counseling

session and are later used at home by the client. The author recommends this procedure for instructing clients in techniques of relaxation training, systematic desensitization, covert sensitization, and high intensity stimulation. The author cites three specific case histories in which he found this audio-tape counseling to be helpful. Suin (1970) finds similar results in an empirical study using audio-tapes and videotapes rather than a therapist for desensitization training. Studies by these authors strongly encourage the counseling professional clarify the nature of the counseling process.

The increasing use of paraprofessionals in the counseling field has generated additional questions regarding the importance of professionals in helping-relationships. A number of research studies have found that trained paraprofessionals can be as effective as their professional counterparts (McArthur, 1970; Traux, et al, 1970). Mitchell, et al, (1970) found that counselor aides in a rehabilitation center performed successfully. His conclusions are based upon the ratings of field supervisors. Dilley (1970) reports the use of paraprofessionals in telephone drug counseling centers and finds the nonprofessional effective in establishing and maintaining helping-relationships. Traux and Lister (1970) had the case management of 381 clients evaluated

by supervisors. Results of the field supervisors' rating indicated effective case management by paraprofessional workers. Toepfer, et al (1972) describe a training program in which twenty-four mothers were instructed in the use of social reinforcement techniques. Authors report that the mothers were successful as "modifiers" of children's behavior. Similar findings (Cowen, et al, 1972) are reported in the use of mothers as nonprofessional mental health workers in a school setting.

The importance of the counselor in the counseling process is also challenged by recent developments in the encounter group field. A number of studies from Western Behavioral Sciences Institute have demonstrated that encounter groups could be effectively run without employing the use of a professional as a group facilator. Work by Berzon and Reisel (1968, 1970) has resulted in the development of a series of audio-tapes which are intended to be used to direct an encounter group without a leader. These tapes are based upon an earlier work by Schultz (1967). Recently, these Encountertapes have had wide advertisement in professional journals, although there has been little empirical research to support the claims of the authors. A careful review of the literature reveals few specific studies exploring the effectiveness of instrumented

encounter groups. Studies which have been completed are not consistent in their findings to warrant complete support of audio-tape procedures in group counseling. For example, in a doctoral dissertation by Becker (1970) no significant difference was found between a control group and an instrumented encounter group directed by audio-tape. Becker did not use a comparison group led by a counselor. Farson (1972) found the self-directed encounter groups could be effectively applied in community mental health programs. He concludes that:

> the self-directed group is indeed an important new resource for community mental health, bridging the emotional distance between people . . . for helping people experience the humaneness of others (p. 232).

The previously cited literature does not seem to support the contention that counseling must occur within the framework of an interpersonal relationship between a professionally trained counselor and a client. Other research has found that the trained professional is more capable of establishing a helping relationship by nature of his training (Berry, 1970; Toban, 1970).

This study will focus on the problem of defining the counseling process within the context of encounter groups. It is necessary to study the relative effectiveness of groups which are directed by trained professionals as opposed to those groups which are directed through the use of audio-tapes.

Theoretical Background

A considerable amount of the theoretical background for this study, as well as for the Encountertapes developed by Berzon and Reisel (1968), is to be found in the work of Schultz (1958, 1967) and his three-dimensional theory of interpersonal behavior. This theory maintains that interpersonal relationships are central in the development of personality. According to Schultz, interpersonal needs can be placed in one of three categories; inclusion, control and affection. It is remarked by Schultz that these three categories of interpersonal needs "constitute a sufficient set of areas of interpersonal behavior for the prediction and explanation of interpersonal phenomena" (Schultz, 1958, p. 13).

Inclusion, as a basic interpersonal need, refers to "the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with people with respect to interaction and association" (Schultz, 1958, p. 18). Inclusion implies a dynamic balance between the need to be with people as well as the occasional need to be alone (Schultz, 1967). When inclusiveness is not in balance, one is apt to find the introvert or the social butterfly; neither has learned how to adequately meet the need for inclusion.

On the level of human feelings, inclusion includes the interest which a person entertains for social relationships and the degree of interest which other individuals have in meeting that particular individual. The need for inclusion also relates to the individuals' ability to feel that he is a worthwhile person and capable of initiating an interpersonal relationship (Schultz, 1958, p. 18).

Control, the second interpersonal need, is directed at the manipulation of the environment for the purpose of attaining some future good. According to Schultz, "the interpersonal need for control is defined behaviorally as the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with people with respect to control and power" (1958, p. 18).

In an attempt to satisfy the need for control, a person must learn enough discipline to be relatively self-directed and yet still be able to relinquish independence sufficiently to learn from others. There are two typical personality types who have not adequately learned to manage the need for control. The "autocrat" is a person who seeks power at the expense of others, while the "abducrat" is a person who uses submissiveness and dependency

as a characteristic life style. The "abducrat" avoids self-direction and responsibility in the area of his interpersonal relationships (Schultz, 1967, p. 154).

> With regard to feelings, the need for control is defined as the need to establish and maintain a feeling of mutual respect for the competence and responsibleness of others. This feeling includes (1) being able to respect others to a satisfactory degree, and (2) having others respect the self to a satisfactory degree (Schultz, 1958, pp. 19-20).

Affection, the third and last of Schultz's interpersonal needs, focuses on the individual's efforts to maintain or avoid emotional attachments (Schultz, 1967). The fully adjusted individual is capable of deep interpersonal relationships, as well as, less intense emotional involvements. The need for affection is related primarily to dyadic (two-person) relationships. Affection is concerned with relationships which are already formed, while the need for inclusion relates to behaviors which are instrumental in developing interpersonal relationships.

Schultz contends that satisfactory adult adjustment is contingent upon the maintenance of dynamic balance among the three interpersonal needs. Harmony is promoted when there is a "flexible balance" between these need systems. "We achieve interpersonal joy when we find a satisfying flexible balance in each of these areas between ourselves and other people" (Schultz, 1967, p. 18).

Berzon and Reisel (1968) have translated Schultz's three dimensional theory of interpersonal behavior into a programmed series of encounter groups. These groups are directed by audio-tapes and are consequently called Encountertapes with a majority of the material for this program having been adapted from Schultz's work Joy (1967). The goals for this program and the exercises utilized are consistent with Schultz's theoretical orientation.

The Encountertape program, as other personal growth group experiences, is not intended to be a substitute for psychotherapy. Encounter groups are intended to promote a climate in which individuals, who are already what would be termed "adjusted", can explore the effect which their behavior has on others. In the group, each individual learns about his own feelings, motives, and behavior styles in personal relationships. Through the reactions which a group participant receives from others, obstacles to more effective interpersonal relationships are identified. In the context of the group, individuals are encouraged to try new and more effective responses to replace the older, less effective, behaviors. Because encounter groups are intended to be a laboratory in which one can try new behaviors, it has been popular among researchers to refer

to such group experiences as training laboratories or T-groups. The leader of such T-groups is often called a trainer in the literature.

Bradford, et al, (1964) describes the T (training) group as follows:

> 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 the 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 stimulate and support one another's learning within the society (Bradford, et at, 1964, p. 1).

In the literature which discusses the concept of personal growth laboratories, one finds less emphasis on the role of the group leader or trainer. It is maintained that the successful group, if it is to be an effective change agent, must grow independent of any authoritarian leadership. Democratic choice-making is encouraged for the entire group; the trainer is being increasingly utilized in T-groups as a resource person. The trainer seeks to maintain a non-directive approach to the group in which he neither defines goals nor selects procedures. Schein and Bennis (1965) describe the role of the leader in the group as follows:

> The goals are unclear, the training staff provides minimun cues. . . . The general absence of expectations creates an unstructured, i.e., ambiguous situation (p. 44).

Personal growth groups are also characterized by a climate of mutual trust which is intended to promote appropriate self-disclosure. According to some writers (Egan, 1970; Jourard, 1964, 1968), effective personality change occurs when an individual feels sufficiently secure within a group to discuss significant feelings and behaviors. Jourard (1964, p. 15) contends that self-disclosure bears a curvilinear relationship to mental health, too little or too much disclosure is not consistent with effective behavior. Jourard (1964) defines neurotic individual as a person who is incapable of disclosing what is significant and important to others.

The depth and direction of self-disclosure vary in different personal growth groups. T-groups, the oldest of personal growth laboratories, is intended to focus on the individual and how he functions as part of a larger group. Emphasis is on developing an increased awareness of one's role as a group member and how one affects the group at large. Self-disclosure is limited to feelings which are significant to the group as a whole and the over-all goals of the group. Encounter or sensitivity

groups emphasize increased self-disclosure of more personal feelings in a here-and-now context, while promoting more effective interpersonal relationships (Golemblowski and Blumberg, 1970).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A critical review of the literature indicates a scarcity of research concerning the effectiveness of tape-directed T-groups as compared to leader-directed groups. It appears that the research available on tape-directed groups concentrates on possible areas of application rather than the exploration of its relative merits. A number of studies have affirmed the importance of the leader or trainer in a group and have focused on characteristics of the effective group leader.

In a previous chapter, it was stated that videotape has had increased utilization in group work. A majority of the research which has been done concentrates on the use of videotape in self-confrontation techniques, group evaluation, and as a training tool. There is a paucity of research on videotape as an extraneous factor in the group process: the few critical studies which have been done in this area indicate that the use of videotape equipment does not impede group effectiveness.

A review of the literature will look at the above stated trends in T-group research and its relevance to the problem currently being studied.

The Effect of the Leader on Encounter Groups

It is generally recognized that group leaders may vary considerably in the personality characteristics they possess as individuals, the focus chosen for a group, and techniques adapted for group use. In recent years the role of the leader has become increasingly important as a research question. The advent of leaderless encounter groups has posed a new question regarding the leader's relevance in the group process. There is little research in this important area (Stock, 1964).

An early, yet still important, clinical study was conducted by the National Training Laboratories in 1947 (Deutsch, Pepitone, and Zander, 1948) in which the personality of a single group leader (trainer) was studied in depth through the use of psychometric devices and interview techniques. These personality ratings were later compared to the group performance and direction. It was concluded that the significant leadership variables influencing group process included personality factors and

values of the leader. It also appeared that the needs and values of the leader are crucial in determining the overall group style.

These conclusions received support in the findings of a later unpublished doctoral dissertation in which the author found that the value systems of professional church workers were influential in shaping the individual's concept of group leadership (Foster, 1958).

Several other early studies have touched on the role of the group leader indirectly. Back (1948) suggests that the group leader or trainer may serve as a model from which the group members will shape their individual behavior within the group. The author finds that the emotional level of the group is significantly related to the behavior demonstrated by the trainer. A study by Whyte (1953) looked at the problems of decision-making when the role of the leader is ambiguous or the leader shifts from an active role to a more passive role. Whyte concludes that the less leadership evidenced by the trainer, the more likely individual members will accept responsibility for the overall group. When leadership was at a minimum, individual members were found to be more task orientated and functioned in a more constructive manner than groups in which leadership was more evident.

Other studies have supported the importance of the trainer or group leader. Peters (1966) hypothesized that identification by the group members with the leader was a significant factor influencing the learning process which leads to personal change. Members strive to imitate the trainer's behavior because of the identification process which is operative within the T-group experience. Six T-groups and a control group were studied by the author. Subjects' self concept as measured by a semantic differential scale was found to significantly correlate with their concept of the trainer's self concept and the trainer's self concept as actually measured. The study also found that the degree of correlation between the subjects' self concept and the trainer's self concept was positively related to the amount of perceived learning and change within the T-group. It was also found that the more objective similarity between the trainer and subjects, the stronger the relationship between self concept similarity and change. The author cites an earlier study by Burke and Bennis (1961) which found similar changes on the part of group participants using a Group Semantic Differential Scale. This study did not employ a control group nor study the degree of similarity between the trainer and individual group members.

While the above cited studies found participants self perceptions related to trainer characteristics, a study by Powers (1965) found that participants' perceptions of the leader related to the leader's orientation. Forty-nine group members and five trainers were studied in two situations--groups with common orientations and groups composed of individuals with different orientations. Groups were considered to be of similar orientation if the individuals within a given group shared common task goals for the group. Leaders were matched to particular homogeneous groups or were randomly selected for heterogeneous groups. Findings indicated that groups composed of homogeneous interests and a leader of similar orientation tended to report greater behavioral changes. This finding is consistent with Peters' (1966) findings in which greater behavioral change was noted among group participants whose self concept was similar to that of the trainer.

A critical study by Bolman (1971) studied the effects of trainers on T-group behavior, members' reaction to the trainer, group climate, and participant learning. Bolman selected six specific behavior variables of the trainer for study: affection, conditionality, empathy, openness, persuasion, and security. Three types of member reaction

(discomfort, identification, and liking) and two types of group climate (tension and withdrawal) were also studied through the use of self reports and tape recordings of the group. Subjects in the study included 118 participants and twenty trainers in a two week residential Human Relations Training Laboratory. The participants were divided into ten groups with two trainers for each group. Data collection included a questionnaire of twenty-eight items which were administered to the trainees prior to the program and three times during the laboratory. Data was later factor-analyzed for each of the items. The author concludes in this discussion of the results that a number of the previously stated behavioral variables did not appear to be significant dimensions in trainer's performance as it was perceived by the group's members. It was, however, found that the degree of security possessed by the trainer was a significant dimension. In the discussion of results, the author states that:

> A possible interpretation is that a change agent is likely to be effective to the extent that the following conditions hold: (a) he is personally secure and non-defensive in the change situation; (b) he is in touch with the concerns and feelings of his clients; (c) he is congruent in the sense that what he says in consistent with what he is actually thinking and feeling; and, (d) he possesses a "cognitive map"--a theory, a set of concepts, a set of effective heuristics, as it were, which make reasonable sense of the change situation (Bolman, 1971, p. 324).

The findings of Bolman are consitent with the Rogerian concept of authenticity. Rogers (1951), and Truax and Carkhuff (1965) have found that therapist authenticity as described in Bolman's study is one of the most important characteristics of a successful counseling relationship.

While Bolman's study described the group climate on two scales (tension and withdrawal) other researchers have looked at the climate of trust-mistrust as it is influenced by the trainer. Culbert (1968) operationally defined trust as an atmosphere in which self-disclosing behavior was apt to occur. Culbert hypothesized that participant self-disclosure demonstrated by the group leader. Subjects for the study were seniors and graduate students who were placed into two T-groups. No control group is reported. One treatment group included a trainer who demonstrated high self-disclosure behavior, while the other group was led by a trainer who was a "low" self-discloser. Data collection included sociometric questionnaires which were administered after the group sessions. Data analysis indicated that the members of groups with a high disclosing trainer tended to perceive more helpful relationships within the group than the group led by a less self-disclosing trainer. This difference was not found in

sessions, however, between the two groups. The author concludes "that the trainer might optimally begin his participation with high rates of self-disclosure and become more selective with time" (Culbert, 1968). Gibbs (1964) maintains that trust is a critical dimension of the sensitivity group. He states that, "in order to participate consciously in his own growth, a person must learn to create for himself, in his own dyadic and group relationships, defensive-reductive (trust) climates that will continue to reduce his own fears and distrusts" (p. 279). If the previously cited research by Back (1948) is correct, one may assume that the trainer is a model for self-disclosing behavior which the members imitate and thus create a climate of trust.

It is concluded in Stock's 1964 review of T-group research that little research has been done on trainer variables and the effects of the leader on the group learning process. This statement also describes the available research as of 1973. This research problem becomes, however, increasingly more important since Stock's 1964 review with the advent of leaderless encounter groups. If leaders do affect the groups process in a positive direction as suggested by previously cited research, it is

reasonable to ask if leaderless groups can accomplish "more with less." Available research on leaderless encounter groups will be discussed in the following section.

Leaderless Groups

A review of the literature indicates that T-groups are reported to have been run without leaders in a variety of situations. Gibbs (1950) reports that over 1,144 students and adult members were involved in some variety of leaderless groups between 1949 and 1956. Since the development of these groups, a number of researchers have looked at the effectiveness of these groups in different areas of application. In 1964, Gibbs, in surveying the then available research on trainerless T-groups, stated:

> Our many years of experience with "leaderless" groups in various settings lead us to feel that maximum participative behavior is attained more readily in training groups without trainers than with trainers . . . . Trainerless groups are optimally effective when significant norm inducing activities occur in the total training community that produces a participative and supportive climate for provisional learning. As the educational literature indicates, trainerless groups in other educational climates are often unsuccessful. (Gibbs, 1964, p. 299).

Gibbs supports the above statement from the results of data collected from sixty-six groups in which trainers were not present in the group. These early studies by

Gibbs employed observational techniques for data collection with no control groups for comparison purposes. T-groups were studied by collecting data from questionnaires, reaction sheets, and observation forms which were administered to participants before, during, and after group sessions. Results from these early studies, according to Gibbs (1964), encouraged National Training Laboratory staff members to reduce structure in T-groups. It was found subsequently that the greater freedom was conductive to the overall learning climate of the group. It is observed that the greater autonomy given to group members in such leaderless groups facilitates an atmosphere of basic trust and encourages individual responsibility in the group (Bradford, et al, 1964). Gibbs concludes from the early studies of NTL that "groups can initiate highly adequate data processing procedures without the help of skilled social scientists as trainers and that they can also learn effective use of technical help from professionals" (Gibbs, 1964).

Other studies have stated equivocal findings in more recent years. Berzon (1968a, 1968b) and Solomon (1968) cite successful application of trainerless groups in rehabilitation groups. Berzon and Reisel (1968) have developed a series of audio-tapes which are intended for

use in trainerless encounter groups. While no supportive empirical data is cited, the authors feel confident in reporting successful application in a number of areas. (Berzon and Solomon, 1968).

Berzon and Reisel (1968) describe the intent and purpose of the audio-tapes as follows:

> Each of these audio-tape programs for small groups has a special learning emphasis. For instance, the aim of this program is to encourage personal growth of the individual . . . . While the various Encountertape programs are different in content they are alike in that emphasis is on learning through direct experiencing rather than through concepts alone. Furthermore, because the Encountertapes provide guidelines for each session, it is not necessary for a professional trainer or leader to be present. Consequently this kind of personal growth learning experience can be extended to large numbers of people who do not have access to professional group leaders (p. 1).

The few research studies which have been done on trainerless groups support Berzon and Reisel in their enthusiastic recommendation of the leaderless Encountertape program. Brenner (1971) reports the use of self-directed T-groups with elementary school teachers as an impetus for professional innovation. This program, as described by the author, encouraged teachers to discuss their professional practices during six weekly sessions. These meetings were directed by a series of mimeographed guide sheets designed by the author and intended to: (a) develop feelings of affiliation

among group members; (b) increase awareness of new professional developments; (c) encourage a climate for innovative thinking; and (d) promote implementation of new insights in the classroom. 196 teachers participated in these discussion groups in six different sessions. Subjects were divided into either experimental groups or control group which were directed to discuss professional practices. An evaluation sheet was administered at the end of each session which contained estimates on (a) amount of new material learned, (b) feelings of affiliation toward group members, (c) optimism regarding future sessions, (d) personal involvement, and (e) openness. Results, according to the author, indicate that teachers became cognizant of new innovations within the first five weeks, felt closer to members during the first four sessions, and tried to implement new ideas. Comparison of treatment groups and control groups indicated more ideas into professional practice than the control group ($F = 3.22$, $p < .05$). The overall results of the evaluation sheet supported the use of trainerless groups as an effective human behavior laboratory. A second evaluation sheet which was administered two months later did not indicate that the changes cited during the program were long-term. It was found that teacher scored on this second post-session evaluation sheet at or below

their pre-test level on all items. The author concludes "that once the teachers were no longer in frequent contact for the purpose of exchanging professional experiences, gains in knowledge of other teacher's innovations and gains in willingness to try new ideas disappeared" (Brenner, 1971).

Brenner's second finding is not congruent with other research findings on T-group effectiveness. A number of researchers (Miles, 1968; Schultz & Allen, 1966) have reported long-term behavior changes. Brenner states that this finding could be a result of the post-test's timing towards the end of the school year when motivation for innovation is generally lower.

Golden and Ross (1968) describe a similar study in which elementary and junior high school teachers were engaged in a T-group with the expressed purpose of developing an effective sex education program. The authors did not report any data collection other than the teacher's own self observations of the program. The teachers' general concensus of the leaderless group expressed awareness of increased communication abilities regarding the topic of sex. Some teachers reported antagonism regarding the group, although the authors do not report how prevalent this attitude was among the participants.

The studies by Brenner (1971) and Golden & Ross (1968) were concerned with the application of trainerless groups in a school setting. In a second critical study by Solomon, Berzon, and Davis (1970), trainerless groups are used with volunteers from a vocational rehabilitation center. According to the authors, the purpose of these groups were "to enhance the individual's ability to make fuller use of his social and vocational potential through better understanding and a broadened experiencing of himself in relation to other people" (p. 428). To accomplish these rather broad purposes, the authors established five specific goals for the participant which included understanding:

1. His own feelings (OF);
2. How his feelings affect his own behavior (OF⟶AB);
3. How his own behavior affects another's feelings (AB⟶AF);
4. How another's feelings affect his behavior (AF⟶AB);
5. How another's behavior affects his own feelings (AB⟶OF).

From these goals, the authors developed a detailed eighteen session program on audio-tape. This program was later expanded and published as Encountertapes by the authors (Berzon and Reisel, 1968).

Twenty-four subjects for the experimental group and twenty-three subjects for the control group were selected from the San Diego office of the California Department of Rehabilitation. The experimental group was self-directed and used the audio-tapes developed by the authors, while the control group was not given any specific group experience.

Seven instruments were used to collect data, and included: a day-by-day rating of participant and peer interaction; session-by-session process ratings from tape recordings of sessions; a Self-Concept rating scale by Aiken (1965); and a Self-Disclosure Index. An analysis of the session-by-session measures indicated some significant differences on the different dependent variable measures between the experimental and control groups. A discrepancy score was computed from the ratings on "the way I felt inside" in contrast to "the way I seemed to others." An F-test of this data revealed significant differences ($p < .05$) between sessions. No significant difference was found, however, between the control group and the experimental group.

Audio-tape recordings of the group sessions were scored on an instrument called the Evaluation of the Therapeutic Climate. Results indicate that the therapeutic climate is a significant variable in the second to fourth

sessions. These findings are congruent with Culbert (1968) results in which it was found that the group climate was crucial in the early sessions. The authors do not discuss the relative importance of the therapeutic climate in the second session and its decline in the fifth session.

The authors conclude that "the mix of findings from the present study tends to support the use of program materials in self-directed groups as a significant means of enhancing personal growth." In an earlier study with a similar population, the authors concluded with equal certainty that tape-directed groups were equally as effective as trainer directed groups (Solomon, et al, 1968). Similar results have been found with YMCA groups and with university students (Berzon, et al, 1972).

A third critical study (Becker, 1970) explored the effectiveness of the Encountertape program and possible relationships between the extroversion-introversion dimension with group performance. The author hypothesized that the introverts would benefit more from the encounter group than those subjects who scored higher on the extroversion dimension. It was also hypothesized that both extroverted and introverted subjects would report greater self-esteem than would the control group following the encounter group.

Two subject populations were used for the study: forty-two volunteer subjects from vocational rehabilitation and forty institutionalized female narcotic addicts. Scores on the Eysenck Personality Inventory Scale were used to assign subjects into either introvert groups or extrovert groups. Scores from The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and a measure of individual distance (the physical distance at which a person interacted with a confederate) were obtained for each participant in a pre-test, post-test, and a four week follow-up sessions. Analysis of variance and covariance were used to analyze the data. Results did not support the hypothesis concerning differential personality factors as influential in the encounter group performance; nor, were significant differences between treatment and control groups found in the population of rehabilitation subjects. The second population did show a significant difference in self-esteem scores on session-by-session testings. The author attributes this finding to the method in which the treatment program was administered to the narcotic addict population. This group used the Encountertape program over a ten week period of time, while the rehabilitation group was exposed to the same program over a weekend.

This conclusion by Becker is not supported by other research findings. Solomon et al (1968) found greater changes in more concentrated time periods.

While previously cited studies have measured the effects of leaderless encounter groups with some personality measure of self-reports, a study by Lieberman, et al, (1972) looked at the casualties within various types of personal growth groups with different types of leadership style including the leaderless groups. Results indicated that Encountertape programs had the lowest rate of casualties among group members.

Videotaping as an Extraneous Variable

The study of the effectiveness of leader-directed and leaderless encounter groups has been futher complicated by the increased use of videotaping recording devices. It is predicted that the use of videotape equipment will increase in encounter groups. Berger (1971) estimates that by 1975 twenty percent of the private practitioners engaged in group work will use videotaping. A review of the literature indicates increased usage of electronic recording devices in the counseling setting (Maclennan, et al, 1970).

Videotaping has been used in a variety of ways which include the supervision of therapists and counselors (Gladfelter, 1970); as a catalyst for psychodrama (Goldfield, et al, 1968); as a self confrontation technique with groups (Geertsma, et al, 1969); for vicarious counseling techniques (Woody and Schauble, 1969); and, as a potential research tool (Wilmer, 1968).

While much of the available research centers on the pragmatic application of videotaping in therapy or counseling settings, there have been relatively few studies which have questioned the impact videotaping has on the counselor or the counselee. According to Gill (1969), it is necessary to futher study existing methods of research in videotape recording "in order to improve the data record and to facilitate the separation of therapeutic from true research activities." The author observes that it is necessary to ascertain if one can successfully record counseling sessions without effecting the process itself as an outside influence. If this is not possible, this finding itself is valuable for future research.

There is a paucity of research on the effects of videotaping in counseling or therapy sessions. The research which is available indicates conflicting findings.

Czajkorski (1970) studied the hypothesis that a videotape group is clinically effective and operationally feasible. The author reported observing improved group cohesion and a greater depth of emotional expression. The author concluded that the presence of videotape equipment motivates positive and effective group performance. It is also observed that the groups which were videotaped also evidenced improved posture, greater poise, and greater clarity in speech. These secondary findings are not discussed by the author as especially significant, but one may ask if this implies an artificiality within those groups which were videotaped.

Berger, et al, (1970) cites similar findings in the use of videotape self-image confrontage groups with psychiatric patients. The authors observe that videotaping is a positive factor in otherwise difficult therapeutic situations and conclude that "videotape usage may cut through the 'analyses interminable' by increasing patients' motivation and helping them develop skills and motivation" (p. 504).

Videotaping was also found to be a positive influence in a study by Robinson and Jacobs (1971) in which the authors compared a group which used videotape feedback with a control group which was led by a therapist.

The experimental group evidenced more adaptive behaviors as rated by external judges than the control group. Some researchers have suggested that adaptive behavior changes can be attributed to verbal changes. Bailey (1971) finds that there is more verbal behavior in groups which are videotaped, while Ostwald (1967) theorizes that videotape self-confrontation techniques encourage the client to develop "inner-speech" which assists in more adaptive behavior outside the group. It should be noted that these findings might be incidentally related to Czajkorski observations (1970) of improved speech in groups using videotape.

Not all research studying the effects of videotaping have reported positive results. Paredes, et al, (1969) used three groups of psychiatric women patients who were placed in three different experimental conditions: (1) videotaped recordings of group sessions, (2) audio-visual recordings of another person, (3) no recordings. There was no significant difference between the three groups in the degree of behavioral change, although ratings by psychiatrists indicated more participation in videotaped groups.

Danet (1970) administered a questionnaire of socio-metric ratings to a group of seven undergraduates in a

group which received videotape feedback and to seven students in a control group. An analysis of the sociometric questionnaire, as well as the seating arrangements and a frequency count of participation indicated that videotape playback had a "disruptive" influence on the group. Similar findings were found by Seitz in a factorial study using videotape exposure and discussion groups as one independent variable. Thirty male psychiatric patients diagnosed as neurotic depressive were assigned to the two treatment groups. Patients ratings and psychiatrist's pretest and post-test evaluations were used to judge therapeutic effectiveness. Results indicated that videotape self-confrontation had minimal therapeutic impact on the patients' self-descriptions. Geertsma and Reivich (1969) found that videotape procedures had less impact on groups than audio-recording concluding that "the auditory channel was contextually richer, more effective in eliciting cognitive and affective changes in subjects and more consonantly apprehended than information channeled visually" (p. 223).

In summary, research is not consistent in the study of video-taping and its effects on group process. While it is apparent from the research cited that videotape does act as an extraneous variable in the group process, there is no congruence of conclusions which suggest what direction

this effect develops. As pointed out by Gill, more research is needed to separate therapeutic effects from research effects when videotaping is used. Evidence does not seem to support the contention of Wilmer (1968) who places the videotape recorder in the role of an objective observer. It is apparent that the presence of videotape equipment does influence groups.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The Sample

Nine subjects for each treatment group were randomly selected from a potential volunteer population of approximately three hundred students from two colleges. A total of seventy-two subjects were used for the study: 30 males and 42 females. Volunteers for the study were requested from current psychology and education classes at Norfolk State College and Old Dominion University. The researcher did not recruit subjects from his own class, but did request the assistance of students from other classes in the college. As Norfolk State College is a predominantly black institution, the selection of subjects was racially homogeneous. A second population was used in the study and was drawn from a predominantly white university in the Tidewater area.

Berzon and Reisel (1968) suggest limiting leaderless groups to twelve. Most authorities seem to argue with this number of participants for group counseling. A previous

study by the author indicated that nine was the maximum effective number.

Materials and Equipment

To keep the counseling input for each treatment group constant, a modified series of tapes (Berzon and Reisel, 1968) designed for encounter groups was used. This tape series is approximately two hours long and consists of two parts. The first part was an introduction to encounter groups by Carl Rogers which is intended to structure the participants' anticipation of what is expected in encounter groups. The second part of the tape series contains directions which the subjects are to follow. These directions are intended to promote intra-group activities which facilitate group encounter process. A typescript of the second part of the tape series is included in Appendix A.

All group sessions were recorded on tape for later data analysis. A Roberts 800-X tape recorder was used for the tape recording. This equipment is sufficiently sensitive to record a group of nine subjects. In addition to the use of tape recording equipment, one group was videotaped with a Sony TV-tapecorder. The use of videotape equipment constitutes a second variable under consideration by the researcher. The videotape equipment was placed in a corner of the counseling setting. No extraordinary effort was

used to conceal its presence. The treatment group in which audio-taping equipment was used alone is designated the Audio-only group (AO), while the treatment group with the videotaping equipment is termed the Video-effects group (VE).

Procedure

Subjects were randomly assigned to four treatment groups. The four treatment groups consisted of tape-directed and counselor-directed encounter groups, as well as the presence or absence of videotape equipment. As each subject volunteered for the study, he was given a slip of paper which designated the group he was in and when he was to report to the counseling center.

All groups met in available counseling rooms on the dates given to subjects. When subjects arrived for the group session, they were asked to be seated where they felt most confortable. After all the subjects were seated, the experimenter read to all groups the following instructions:

> This group is meeting today to learn new ways to communicate. To do this, we will use a series of group experiences which have proven in the past to be successful with groups such as this. I believe from my experience in other groups that you will find this a rewarding personal experience. Are there any questions?

Any questions which the subjects had were answered. The following instructions were given to the tape-directed groups:

> I will not be in this group experience with you. Instructions for the group are recorded on tape. Please listen carefully to these instructions. Please feel free to express yourself as you may wish. No information regarding this group will be given out, although I will record what is said in this group for my own study.

The counselor-directed encounter groups used the same format as is found in Appendix A. After each group session, the experimenter, or group leader, asked each subject to fill out a one-page sociometric questionnaire (Appendix B). When all the subjects had completed the questionnaire, the researcher answered any questions the subjects had about the group experience in which they had just participated. The group participants were also given a means by which they could contact the experimenter should they have any further questions. Three weeks later, the experimenter returned to the group and answered questions relevant to the group experience.

Data Analysis

The sociometric questionnaire and the tape recordings of each group session provided data for the dependent variable measures. The tape recordings were analyzed for the depth and degree of group participation. Depth of

group interaction was measured on a modified version of the IPR Counselor Response Rating Scale developed by Kagan (Shertzer and Stone, 1968). The number of feeling or affective statements constituted a measure of depth of group experience. According to Kagan, affective or feeling statements can be defined as:

> Affective responses generally make reference to emotions, feelings, fears, etc. The judge's rating is solely by the content and/or intent of the response.

The time in seconds of each subject's verbal interactions constituted a measure of depth of group experience. Thus, the total number of statements made by each subject, and the total elapsed time (in seconds) constituted a measure of the degree of group participation within each treatment group. Ratings of group interaction were done by the experimenter and two other qualified individuals with the average score of the three raters used as the raw score data for later statistical analysis. Reliability coefficients were obtained for the raters (r_{ab} = .73; r_{ac} = .67).

The sociometric questionnaire was scored according to the number of mutual choices each subject received. For example, a subject who choose a total of two participants who recipricated his choice would receive a score of two. A measure of group cohesiveness for each treatment group was

made. Kerlinger (1964) gives a measure of group cohesiveness as:

$$Co = \frac{Sm}{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}}$$

Group cohesiveness is represented by Co and Sm stands for the sum of mutual choices within a given treatment group. Mean differences between treatment groups on group cohesiveness scores were tested for significance on a t-test. A 2 x 2 analysis of variance design was used to test for treatment differences on the number and duration of feeling statements elicited by the subject of the dependent variable measure. This design incorporated two active variables:

(1) groups which were tape-directed (TD) or leader-directed (LD); and

(2) groups which were video-taped (VE) and those groups which were audio-taped (AO)

A total of eight 2 x 2 analysis of variance tests were performed to test for treatment differences and interaction effects between:

1. TD-LD x AO-VE (First Five minutes)
2. TD-LD x AO-VE (Last Five minutes)
3. TD-LD x AO-VE
4. TD-LD x AO-VE
5. First Population and Second Population x AO-VE
6. First Subject Population and Second Subject Population x AO-VE (Tape-directed)
7. First Five minutes and Last Five minutes x AO-VE (Tape-directed)
8. First Five minutes and Last Five minutes x AO-VE (Leader-directed)

HYPOTHESES

Null Hypothesis I:

There will be no significant difference between encounter groups which are videotaped and control groups on measures of depth and degree of group process.

Null Hypothesis II:

There will be no significant difference between tape-directed and counselor-directed encounter groups on measures of depth and degree of group process.

Null Hypothesis III:

There will be no significant difference between encounter groups which are videotaped and control groups on group cohesiveness scores from sociometric questionnaire.

Null Hypothesis IV:

There will be no significant difference between tape-directed and counselor-directed encounter groups on group cohesiveness scores from sociometric questionnaires.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The contents of this chapter involve the testing of hypotheses previously stated. Data was analyzed to make comparisons between videotaped groups and encounter group which were leader or tape-directed. Comparisons for treatment groups are also presented for two different subject populations: subjects drawn from a predominantly black college which constitute population A and a subject population drawn from a predominantly white college which is termed population B.

Mean Differences Between TV-AD Groups and LD-TD Groups

Analyses were made to test the null hypotheses that:

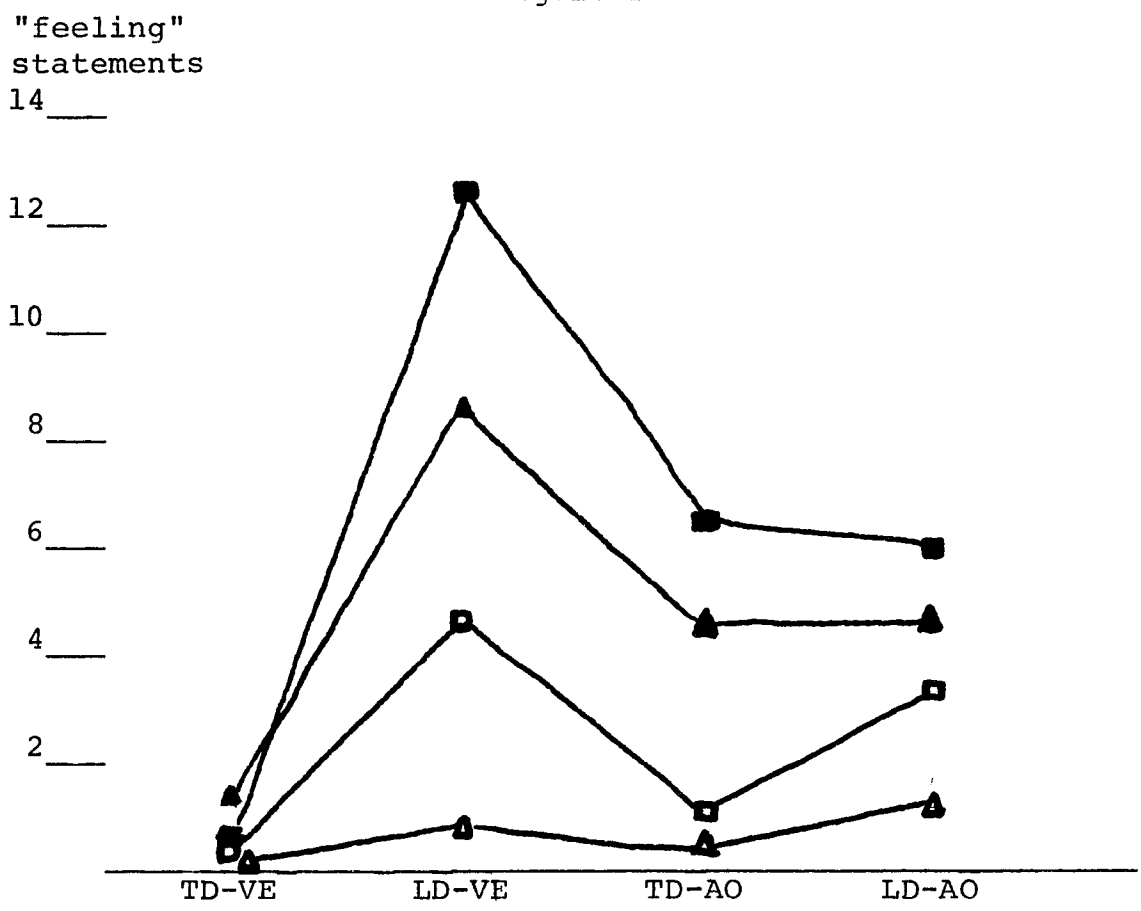
H_1: There will be no significant difference between encounter groups which are videotaped and control groups on measures of degree and depth of group process.

H_2: There will be no significant difference between tape directed and leader-directed encounter groups on measures of degree and depth of group process.

Tables one through ten show statistical data and tests for these hypotheses. The means for each of the four treatment groups (i.e., videotaped, audiotaped, leader-directed, and tape-directed) for the two subject populations (i.e. a predominantly black college and a predominantly white college) are shown in table 1 and are summarized in a graph (figure 1).

A 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance was performed to test the above hypotheses. The results are presented in table two. A significant difference was found in the duration of "feeling" responses during the first five minutes between groups which were leader directed and tape-directed. Subjects in tape-directed groups tended to elicite fewer "feeling" responses during the first five minutes of the encounter group than those subjects in the leader-directed group ($F = 5.73$; $df = 1,35$, $p < 2.5$). No significant difference was found between encounter groups which were videotaped and audio-taped.

Figure 1



First Five minutes - Subject Population A

Second Five minutes - Subject Population A

First Five minutes - Subject Population B

Second Five minutes - Subject Population B

Means of Treatment Groups on Affect Statements

Table 1

Summary of Treatment Group Means of "feeling" Statements

I Subject Population A

	TD-VT	LD-VT	TD-AO	LD-AT
First Five Minutes	.55	4.44	.88	3.50
Last Five Minutes	.77	12.66	6.40	6.22

II Subject Population B

	TD-VT	LD-VT	TD-AO	LD-AT
First Five Minutes	.33	.77	.55	1.44
Last Five Minutes	1.33	8.80	4.77	5.00

Table 2

F ratios for "feeling" responses
elicited during First Five minutes

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Tape-Leader	96.69	1	96.69	5.73*
TV-Audio	0.69	1	.69	0.04
Interaction	3.36	1	3.36	0.19
Error	539.55	32	16.86	
	640.30	35		

*p < .05

Table three presents the results of a 2 x 2 analysis of variance (VE-AO x LD-TD) for the duration of feeling statements elicited by subjects during the last five minutes of the encounter group. The leader-directed gave significantly more "feeling" responses than group directed by tape ($F = 5.7$; $df = 1,35$; $p < 2.5$). While no significant difference was found between the encounter groups which were videotaped and their control groups, the encounter group which was audiotaped and counselor-directed gave more feeling statements than the tape directed group. ($F = 5.36$; $df = 32,35$; $p < .05$)

Table 3

F ratios for "feeling" responses elicited during Last Five minutes

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Tape-Leader A	330.02	1	330.02	*5.70
TV-Audio B	1.36	1	1.36	.02
Interaction AB	306.25	1	306.25	*5.36
Error	1825.33	32	57.04	
	2462.97	35		

*$p < .05$

The above findings were only partially replicated in second subject population which was selected from a predominantly white college. No significant difference was found between tape-directed and counselor-directed groups in the duration of "feeling" statements elicited during both the first five minutes and the last five minutes ($F = .01$; $df = 1,35$; n.s.). Results are reported in Tables four and five.

Table 4

F ratios for "feeling" statement elicited during First Five minutes

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Tape-Leader	4.00	1	4.00	1.06
TV-Audio	1.77	1	1.77	.47
Interaction	0.44	1	0.44	.11
Error	120.00	32	3.73	
	126.22	35		

Table 5

F ratios for "feeling" statements elicited during Last Five minutes

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Tape-Leader	136.11	1	136.00	1.79
TV-Audio	0.44	1	.44	.01
Interaction	121.00	1	121.0	1.59
Error	2426.44	32	75.82	
	2684.00	35		

Tables 6 and 7 present chi-square contingency tables which test significant differences between tape-directed and counselor directed encounter groups as well as the differences between videotaped and audio-taped encounter groups on the degree of subject participation (high or low). Low participation was defined as two or less responses by a subject, while high participation was defined as three or more responses. No significant difference was found between tape-directed and counselor-directed groups on the degree of participation; nor was any significant difference found between videotaped and audio-taped encounter groups.

Table 6

Degree of participation for Tape-directed and Counselor Directed Encounter Groups

	Tape-Directed	Counselor Directed
Low Participation	$f_o = 17$	$f_o = 16$
	$f_e = 16.49$	$f_e = 16.49$
High Participation	$f_o = 19$	$f_o = 20$
	$f_e = 19.50$	$f_e = 19.50$

$$X^2 = \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e} = .04$$

Based upon previously stated results null hypothesis I and II are rejected.

Table 7

Degree of participation for Videotaped and Audiotaped Encounter Groups

	Videotaped	Audiotaped
Low Participation	$f_o = 16$	$f_o = 19$
	$f_e = 17.28$	$f_e = 17.28$
High Participation	$f_o = 20$	$f_o = 17$
	$f_e = 18.50$	$f_e = 18.50$

$$X^2 = \frac{(fo - fe)^2}{f_e} = .63$$

Mean Differences Between Treatment Groups on Sociometric Scores

Analyses were made to test the following hypotheses:

H_3: There will be no significant difference between encounter groups which are videotaped and control groups on group cohesiveness scores from sociometric questionnaire.

H_4: There will be no significant difference between encounter groups which are videotaped and control groups on group cohesiveness scores from sociometric questionnaire.

Table 8 presents means and standard deviations and t-tests for the two treatment groups. No significant difference was found between the number of mutual choices in groups videotaped and audiotaped, nor was there any significant difference between tape-directed and counselor-directed encounter groups. Based upon above stated results null hypothesis III and IV are accepted.

Table 8

Mean Differences Between Treatment Groups on Sociometric Choices

I.			
	Tape-directed		Leader-directed
	M = 2.81		M = 2.08
	Std = 1.19		Std = .82
		t = .43	
II.			
	Videotaped		Audiotaped
	M = 2.11		M = 2.83
	Std = 1.19		Std = 1.79
		t = .56	
III.			
	Subject Population A		Subject Population B
	M = 1.39		M = 3.55
	Std = .85		Std = 1.27
		t = 1.49	

Mean Differences Between First Five Minutes and Last Five Minutes

To test the effectiveness of the tape-directed and counselor-directed treatment groups a 2 x 2 analysis of variance was performed between the number of "feeling" statements elicited during the first and last five minutes of the encounter groups. Means for the last five minutes of the encounter group were higher than means for the first five minutes. A significant difference was found between the two time periods.

Table 9

Feeling Statements elicited during First and Last Five Minutes CT

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Time	277.77	1	277.77	4.71*
TV-Audio	113.77	1	113.77	1.9
Interaction	64.0	1	64	1.08
Error	1886.0	32	58.95	
	2342.22	35		

*$p < .05$

Table 10 presents an analysis of variance to test the difference between the number of feeling statements elicited during the first five minutes and the last five minutes in tape-directed encounter groups. A significant increase in the number of "feeling" statements elicited by subjects during the first five minutes and the last five minutes ($F = 5.09$; $df = 1,32$; $p < .05$). There was also an interaction effect noted between the increase of feeling statements and the presence of videotape equipment which tended to decrease the number of affective responses ($F = 3.85$; $df = 1,32$, $p < .10$).

Table 10

Mean Differences Between First Five Minutes and Last Five Minutes of Session: Tape-directed Groups

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Time	53.77	1	53.77	4.66**
TV-Audio	58.77	1	58.77	5.09**
Interaction	44.44	1	44.44	3.85*
Error	368.88	32	11.52	
	525.88	35		

* $p < .10$
** $p < .05$

Subject Population Differences

Treatment effects were duplicated in two different subject populations, a predominantly black college population and a predominantly white university population. Two analyses of variance was used to test differences between two subject population on the number of "feeling" statements elicited. Results are presented in Tables 11 and 12.

Table 11

2 x 2 Analysis of Variance:
Subject Population x Videotaping

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Population A & B	200.69	1	200.69	2.13
AO x VE	46.69	1	46.69	0.49
Interaction	20.25	1	20.25	0.21
Error	3013.11	32	94.15	
	3280.75	35		

Table 12

2 x 2 Analysis of Variance:
Subject Population x Videotaping

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Population A & B	177.77	1	177.77	4.69*
AO x VE	1.77	1	1.77	0.04
Interaction	9.00	1	9.00	0.23
Error	1210.00	32	37.83	
	1399.22	35		

*$p < .05$

No significant difference was found between the number of "feeling" statements elicited during the first five minutes between the two different subject populations ($F = 2.1$; $df = 1,32$, n.s.). Results are presented in Table 11. A significant difference was found between the two different subject populations in the last five minutes of the encounter group ($F = 4.6$, $df = .1,32, p < .05$). These results are shown in Table twelve.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study was designed to study the relative effectiveness of counselor-directed and tape-directed encounter groups, as well as, the effect of videotaping on the group process. Results which were reported in Chapter IV will be discussed in this section.

Counselor-Directed and Tape-Directed Encounter Groups

Tape-directed and counselor-directed encounter groups were not found to be significantly different on the number of "feeling" responses elicited by the subjects from both population groups. Tape-directed and counselor-directed groups tended to be equally as effective in promoting a counseling environment in which the participants felt sufficiently secure that they might initiate some degree of self-disclosure in the form of "feeling" responses.

Subjects were found to participate to a similiar degree in groups which were counselor-directed and tape-directed. No significant difference was found between treatment

groups on the number of responses elicited by subjects. Results would suggest that the use of tape-directed encounter groups does not adversely discourage the number of participating group members.

Results of the sociometric questionnaire supports the effectiveness of tape-directed encounter groups. There was no significant difference on the mean number of mutual choices which were obtained from tape-directed and leader-directed groups. These nonsignificant means suggest that group members tended to perceive an equal number of helpful mutual relationships within the context of their particular group experience.

Before the implications of these findings can be discussed in reference to the stated hypotheses, several questions must first be raised and then answered. First, it is necessary to ask if these significant findings are really the product of an effective research design in which a treatment effect was actually in evidence. The answer to this question is relatively simple. Results cited in Chapter IV indicate that there was a significant difference between the number of feeling responses elicited at the beginning of the session and the number of responses at the end of the group. Subjects tended to give significantly more "feeling" responses at the end of

the encounter group session than at the beginning. This finding indicated that the two encounter group modalities (tape-directed and counselor-directed) were successful in encouraging group members to participate at a meaningful "affect" level. From these results, it can be said with guarded optimism that both encounter groups accomplished their intended purpose (i.e. the promotion of an effective interpersonal climate).

Next it must be asked if there are an differential treatment effects. Did leader-directed and tape-directed encounter groups vary on the degree of to which "feeling" responses varied between the first five minutes and the last five minutes? This question is not as easily answered. The leader-directed encounter groups had a higher mean of "feeling" statements for both the first five minutes and the last five minutes (Illustration 1) as compared to the tape-directed group. There was no significant difference between the first five minutes and the last five minutes in the number of responses elicited in groups which were leader-directed. Conversely, a significant difference was found between first five minutes and the last five minutes in groups which were tape-directed ($F = 5.09$).

With these questions answered, it is possible to proceed to discuss the implications of the previously cited findings. The significant differences between tape-directed and counselor-directed encounter groups does not support the null hypotheses II and IV. No significant difference, however, was found between tape-directed and leader-directed encounter groups on measures of depth and degree of group process. Nor were any significant differences found between the groups on the sociometric measures. These results support the research of several other investigators previously cited in Chapter II. Brenner (1971) found that leaderless groups were effective group change agents as measured by "feelings" of affiliation towards other group members, while Berzon and Reisel (1968) found that audio-tape groups promoted interpersonal insights among its members. This study supports the use of audio-tapes as an effective means of directing encounter groups. The use of the Encountertape program tended to be as effective as the more conventional leader-directed groups in eliciting "feeling" statements and affiliation choices among its members as measured by the sociometric instrument. Other researchers have also found nonsignificant differences between tape-directed and counselor-directed groups (Solomon, et al, 1968; Berzon,

et al, 1972) and thus support the conclusion that audio-tape encounter groups are an effective means to promote personal growth within a group experience.

It is interesting to note that there is a significant difference on the number of feeling statements elicited during the first five minute period and the last five minute period in tape-directed groups, while this same difference was not found in leader-directed groups. This finding suggests that leaderless groups are more effective in promoting personal growth when viewed within the context of a single session. This finding is supported by other researchers who find that the more democratic the leadership in a group the more likely group members are to risk themselves (Brenner, 1971). This same degree of change in the verbal responses of the subjects was not found in the corresponding group which was leader-directed and videotaped. No interaction effects were noted in groups which were tape-directed ($F = 1.09$).

It was also found that there was no significant difference between the number of subjects who actively participated in the encounter groups in either videotaped or audio-taped groups. This would indicate that the presence of videotape equipment does not depress the group's responsiveness, nor does it discourage participation due to increased factors of self-awareness or embarrassment.

The relative effectiveness of both counselor-directed and tape-directed groups is not supported in both subject populations. This lack of replication of findings in the two subject populations of different composition leads the experimenter to accept the null hypothesis II and IV. Both counselor-directed and tape-directed groups were effective in promoting a group atmosphere of basic trust and encouraged individual responsibility. This lack of replication could be the result of different population characteristics interacting with the treatment of effects.

The results of this study parallel a number of earlier research findings which studied the leadership role in encounter groups. Whyte (1953) found that the shift of a group leader from that of an active participant to a more passive role tended to promote more group responsibility among the members. These findings would suggest that the crucial factor in promoting an effective personal growth climate is the role which the leader chooses.

Gibbs (1964) maintains that the leadership of the group is a critical factor in the development of trust among the subjects. Self-disclosing behaviors (e.g. feeling responses) are more likely to occur within an atmosphere of trust (Bolman, 1971). Consequently, the significant factor in encounter groups is the environment which is created by

the leader. This environment may or may not be conducive to inter-personal growth, depending upon the degree to which the group leader promotes trust among the group members and self-disclosure behaviors. It would also logically follow that similar environments should have relatively the same effects on the encounter group process, regardless of how these environments were constructed. The nonsignificant differences between leader-directed and tape-directed encounter groups could be explained tentatively on the basis of similar environments of trust in which participants felt the same degree of trust, the critical factor of any effective group experience.

This explanation is supported by other researchers such as Back (1948) who define the leader as a critical variable in the encounter group process. The leader is the model for self-disclosing behaviors which the members will imitate. If, however, Back's assumptions regarding the leader's importance were correct, one would expect significant differences between groups which are leader-directed and those groups which are leaderless. This study supports Back's implied hypothesis in subject population A. The role of the leader appears to be a primary variable in determining a group's relative effectiveness.

EFFECTS OF VIDEOTAPING

Videotaping was not found to be a significant variable in this study in subject population A, nor in subject population B. No significant difference was found between the number of "feeling" statements which were elicited between videotaped groups and audio-taped groups during either the first or last five minutes. An interesting interaction effect ($F = 5.36$, $df = 1.32$, $p < .05$) was found in the last five minutes between groups which were leader-directed and videotaped. The LD-VE group showed significantly fewer "feeling" statements than the corresponding group in subject population A which was leader-directed and audio-taped. The leader-directed groups tended to be less effective when videotaped than when audio-taped. This same effect was not found in tape-directed groups.

This interaction between leader-directed and videotaped groups was also found between "feeling" statements generated by the group in the first and last five minutes. In subject population B, it was found that groups which were audio-taped and leader-directed tended to show a significant increase in the number of feeling statements between the beginning and the end of the group ($F = 3.35$).

These findings do not support the previous research of Danet (1970) who found that the use of videotape in groups tended to decrease the amount of participation in a group. This present study found that the amount of participation in both videotaped and audio-taped groups was the same. These results, rather than supporting Danet (1970), parallel research by Wilmer (1968) who places the videotape recorder in the role of an objective observer. In this role the videotape equipment does not influence groups.

Some researchers have found that the presence of videotape equipment tended to increase the amount of participation in groups. (Bailey, 1971; Paredes, 1969). This positive influence could not be detected in this study. It seems reasonable to assume that the use of videotaping in the counseling setting does not depress or encourage group participation to any measurable degree.

The interaction influence which was noted in the group which was both videotaped and tape-directed suggests a possible subject sensitivity to an excessive use of electronic equipment. The imposing presence of a videotape camera in a group which is directed by a tape recorder could be an accumulative influence which is disruptive to the overall atmosphere of the encounter group. This accumulative influence of electronic equipment might be termed a technological overflow. It is

possible that groups which are overburdened with technology lose the human element which is essential to the interpersonal process. To date there has been no research which has detected this interaction which occurs in the presence of multiple electronic devices. One might ask if the climate of mutual trust, which some authors feel is the essence of the encounter group, is not challenged by the indiscriminate use of recording and taping devices in tape-directed groups.

Population Differences

The results of this study indicated that there was no significant difference between subject populations A and B, the number of "feeling" Statements, degree of participation, or affiliation choices. The treatment effects for each subject population did, however, vary. Population A showed significant differences between tape-directed and counselor-directed encounter groups, while corresponding groups in population B had nonsignificant differences. This lack of replication of the treatment effects in tape-directed and leader-directed groups might be due to the different composition of subject population A and subject population B. Different subject populations may respond in varying ways to the use of tape-directed encounter groups. It should be pointed out that the early studies cited by Gibbs (1950),

which found tape-directed and other leaderless groups to be equally as effective as the more traditional groups, used subject populations which were similar to subject population B in this study. Gibbs used groups for his research which consisted of business executives, YMCA directors, and, at a later time, advanced undergraduate students. This subject pool would presumably have access to individuals who have already learned how to successfully deal with a democratic environment such as that of the tape-directed group. The second subject population of this study duplicated Gibb's findings.

Population A in this study which responded more favorably to the leader-directed encounter group is quite unlike the subject pool used by Gibbs.

Studies by Berzon and Reisel (1972) used a subject population which was similar to population A used in this study. Their research drew upon subjects from a rehabilitation office in California. Since no control group was used, it is difficult to contrast the findings in this study with the previous study. Lieberman's study would partially support the findings of this present research.

Implications and Conclusions

Results of this study indicate that tape-directed groups can be an effective catalyst in promoting an interpersonal growth experience. The advantages of these leaderless groups from an economical standpoint is not to be overlooked. The savings in time which tape-directed groups afford the busy counseling office will need to be a definite consideration.

The use of these leaderless groups should be restricted to subject populations which are sophisticated enough to appreciate the democratic atmosphere created by leaderless groups. It would not be suggested that such groups be implemented in schools which work with students from a disadvantaged background. Such students, this study would suggest, benefit from the presence of a leader who can act as a model and from whom the students can model appropriate behaviors which are desired in the group.

Videotaping does not seem to act as an extraneous variable in the counseling setting. This study defines the role of the videotape recorder as that of an objective observer which does not intrude into the on-going process. This finding is significant in itself. With the increased use of videotaping for research purposes, it is essential to determine if the videotape recorder effects the subject's

behavior in a group. This study would suggest that such recording devices do not appear to effect the behavior of group participants to any significant degree. This finding was replicated in two different subject populations.

This study and its findings would suggest that a counselor should be careful in loading encounter groups with too much technology. Such a conglomeration of electronic equipment may act to reduce the overall effectiveness of the group experience. Further study by other researchers would be beneficial in isolating interaction between various technological modalities and their effect on the group's performance. Does excessive use of electronic equipment threaten the particular nature of the encounter group which makes it such an effective opportunity for growth? This question remains to be answered. Replication of interaction effects between videotaped and tape-directed groups which were indicated in this study, would be a worthwhile project for another researcher.

Other research implications have been generated by this study. Additional research into tape-directed groups is needed which employs control groups. Replication of the findings in this study with different types of subject populations would help clarify the area of applicability for this counseling tool. For example, there is little available literature on minority populations and the effects of counseling.

The author would suggest that this study be duplicated in the future to ascertain its replicability under different circumstances. It would also be suggested that a study similar to the present study be initiated in which an analysis of covariance design by employed for statistical analysis. Subjects should be scored on an index of verbal fluency.

In conclusion, this study has assisted in clarifying the role of tape-directed groups in the growing field of encounter groups. The author suggests leaderless groups such as the Encountertape program be used with discretion. The subject population seems to be a significant variable in determining the effectiveness of such groups. The results of this dissertation confirm other researchers who have found that videotape equipment can be used without being an extraneous influence in the group. Most importantly, this study re-affirms the importance of the leader in encounter groups.

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APPENDIX A

First Encounter Microlab

I am Dr. Jerry Riezle, one of the people who designed this program, and it is my voice you will be hearing on these tapes in each session, suggesting ways which you might get the most out of each group.

Incidentally, it is very important that you listen carefully while I am talking so that you will have all the information to conduct your session. I might add that it feels a little strange to me talking to you without seeing you. And I expect that you will feel strange following directions from someone you never see. I hope that you don't mind that too much. I guess that I just want you to know that I am concerned with what happens in this program.

Right now you are probably wondering how is all this going to help me? What's in it for me? Well, the purpose of this group is to help you learn to build on your strengths so you can become more the person that you want to be. In order to do this you have to know yourself and what goes on between you and other people.

I am here to help you to do this by setting up opportunities to tune yourself better . . . to see how you come

across as a person to other people. In short, you will begin to move in ways to begin to be the person you want to be in the world. Now, I am going to set up the opportunities. It will be up to you to use them. All of the things I am going to suggest that you do here have been done in groups like this and they usually work pretty well. Now some of them might seem strange, even silly; but, if you take them in a practical way, you will find them helpful shortcuts to what you need to know about yourself and how you are with other people.

Okay, let's get started. In this session we are going to have a series of short meetings in which you will be asked to do things which in the past helped groups off to a fast start. I will suggest what you might do in each meeting and I will also keep time for you.

Incidentally, it is important for the success of this session that you stop when I call time. I might interrupt you, perhaps, in the midst of a sentence. I am sorry when this becomes an annoyance, but the timing itself is necessary to make this session work.

You are probably sitting in a circle. Will you make the circle smaller till you are sitting next to each other. I will give you a few seconds while you do this.

Now, to try yourselves out, let's have a five-minute meeting. You might during this time, if you don't know each

other, give first names and then ask yourselves "How do I feel right now?" Tell the rest of the group about it. I'll let you know when five minutes is up.

5 Minutes

Please stop. If you are like most groups doing this for the first time, you might have found it hard to do so. Maybe you weren't sure about what it means to talk about how you feel. Well, first of all, it means you tune into what is happening inside you right now. Now you talk about it. Are you scared, excited, or curious about being here? What's going to happen next? Like right now I feel a little self-conscious wondering how my voice is coming across to you. Whatever it is inside you, tune into it. Then tell the rest of the group about it as best you can. Now try it again. I'll tell you when the five minutes are up. Go ahead.

5 Minutes

Now please stop. Now I am going to suggest something a little different this time. So far you have concentrated about

how you feel about being here and about what was happening to you. Now this time will you tune into the feeling that you have about the other people who are here. What is your impression about each person? You know impressions - first impressions - that you have about other people, if told to the other person, can give them valuable information about themselves. It can let them change the impressions that they make or it can let them know that they make this impression. So in this meeting you will be dealing with impressions.

Now this is what I suggest. Now please listen to what I say before you begin. Everyone please stand in a circle. Then, one at a time, each person will move from one group member to another around the circle. Stop in front of each person. Look them in the eye. Touch them in whatever way you may want to make contact. Be as honest as you can about your impressions about them. When you have gone completely around the group, it is the next person's turn, and so on, until each group member has had a turn. Remember, look each person in the eye; touch him. Try to maintain that contact all the time you are talking to him. Give him your honest impressions. This should take about five minutes. I will tell you when the time is up. Go

ahead now. Stand and form a circle and someone volunteer to begin. Remember you are to have fifteen minutes.

15 Minutes

Please stop and take your seats. Now will you have a ten-minute meeting and talk about what you did. For instance, you may want to talk about what you felt giving your first impressions or how you felt touching someone. Sometimes, people find this difficult to do. They feel awkward or embarrassed about it. If that is true for you, talk about it. Or perhaps you find it difficult to look someone in the eye. Then talk about it. I'll come back to tell you when the time is up. Go ahead.

APPENDIX B

Sociometric Questionnaire

NAME_____

(1) Please list members of group that you would like to encounter again in a similar group. List as many as you wish.

(2) Please list members of group to which you felt least responsive.

(3) Please list members of group to which you felt most responsive.