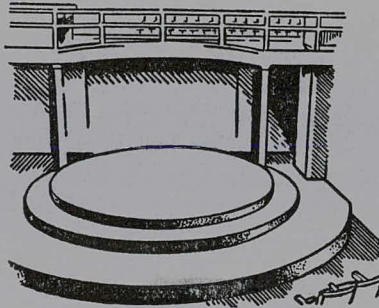


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INTRODUCTION

The time has come to bring to the attention of the general reader a number of historical facts.

1. The first quantitative analysis and sociograms of *primary work groups* were published in "Who Shall Survive?", first edition, 1934, page 108-133, and not as it is frequently assumed in R  thlisberger and Dickson, "Management and the Worker" (1938).

2. The systematic study of "unstructured" groups and the interaction of their members from scratch has been first proposed and undertaken in "Who Shall Survive?", first edition, 1934, and not as it is frequently claimed in Kurt Lewin's writings. A characteristic passage from "Who Shall Survive?", page 170, reads as follows: "*We study individuals who never met before and who from their first meeting on have to live together and to be participants in the same group; we are face to face with the first act, the original situation. We see them when they enter spontaneously into interrelationships which lead to the forming of groups, sub species momenti. We study their spontaneous reactions in the initial stage of group formation and the activities developing in the course of such organization. We are present when the relationship is born, at the earliest possible stage in the social relation of the individuals who meet and we can develop, if necessary, the treatment forward instead of backward.*"

3. Sociometrists (Roger Barker and others, Sociometry, Volume V, 1942) have shown that unstructured groups in the liberal sense do not exist. The unstructured group is a convenient conceptual myth. Actually even a group of strangers show from the first moment of their meeting a minimal structure. What is actually meant with unstructured groups is the working from scratch with groups of strangers without bias and without preconceived notions.

4. All functional groups are "co-structured" groups and not unstructured ones. But if from the first meeting on a structure exists can we afford to start with "training" its members without facing the existing structure of the group?

J. L. MORENO

FOREWORD

Here they are, a number of papers from practitioners about their experiences with group- and action methods in industrial settings. Many of them provide vivid accounts of success experiences with knotty problems in interpersonal relations.

It is now more than 38 years that I have been actively identified with industry and manufacturing—way back to 1920 when I worked in the factory of my father in Lawrence, Massachusetts. There were plenty of problems in those days with stumbling attempts to develop more effective, more productive and more profitable management-labor relations. There was little or no industrial knowledge and understanding in the 20's and 30's of Dr. Moreno's pioneering work in psychodrama which he started in Vienna about 1909. Even when he brought his ideas to the United States in 1925, started a "therapeutic (Impromptu) theatre" and later developed sociometric analysis to various groupings in situ, there was no visible industrial perception of what Dr. Moreno's work implied for industry until 1933, when Macy's department store in New York became interested in role playing and sociometry.

It was in 1948 that I first became acquainted with Dr. Moreno's work and soon this led to meeting with him personally in a workshop at Beacon, New York. I was so impressed that I insisted on changing the thesis requirement for my graduate program at the Illinois Institute of Technology. In 1950, I received one of the first degrees, Master of Science in Industrial Engineering. The thesis subject, finally accepted by the examining committee after much misgiving and trepidation, was "A New Orientation to the Solution of Industrial Engineering Problems" which gave a complete exposition of the application of psychodramatic principles to major plant layout changes.

Over the years, legislation has provided some kind of economic floor or base upon which the building of a more enlightened management-labor relationship could start. But has it really started? Can observers agree that management and labor are functioning like mature adults? The evidence is confused and, in some areas, in considerable conflict. For example, see the rise in recent years of a whole new breed of professionals, the labor-relations experts and lawyers.

This is not to disparage the ethical practitioners in this field. But much of their work consists of role clarification and definition of management and labor to each other. It does seem strange, in 1958, that management and

labor should be so impoverished of skills to deal more maturely with each other in a face to face setting.

And it is precisely at this point that Group Therapy enters with exciting possibilities for growth—basic help toward fulfillment for management as well as for labor. But, do we, as practitioners, have any consensus about the role of Group Therapy in industry? This is one of two central ideas that I would like to consider here.

The first notion is that Group Therapy practitioners in industry have a need, now, for an evaluation. I am suggesting this is the time to have a rigorous, formal assessment of what's taking place in the field. Of course this would include exploration of the criteria to be used in the evaluation. This activity alone, would make a rich addition to our understanding.

The second notion follows logically after the first. It is that the practitioners should make some considered attempt to spell out their goal—their objective. It may be possible to develop statements of short-term, intermediate and long-range objectives. Where do we want to go? Who do we yearn to be?

Are we to function only as resource people for *crisis*-oriented clients, always being ready and available to extricate them from some immediate dilemma? Or should we aspire to more initiative and try to carve out a more directive role in our industrial society, aimed at providing *concept*-oriented leadership for management and labor?

It is to be hoped this issue will provide the stimulation for beginning steps in seeking out the answers to these questions.

T. W. FRANKS
Issue Editor

TWO DISRUPTIONS OF THE COMMUNICATION ZONE: A DISCUSSION OF ACTION AND ROLE PLAYING TECHNIQUES

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An organization is a place where, by definition, a hierarchical structure (1, 2) is implicit, whether it be intended to produce a product (e.g., in industry), information (e.g., scientific group), or to help regulate human intercourse (e.g., government or law) (3). The leaderless organization is either a misnomer or an expedient delusion. Occasionally, an organization can appear to be leaderless if the leader is other than the individual officially designated, or duly elected, or if the leadership function is a transient one and rapidly rotates among several or all of the participants. Thus, the role of leader at a particular moment may be identical with the speaker at that moment. It is also possible that no one chooses to speak as leader from time to time.

A great deal has been written about the hypercathected leadership situation such as appears in the authoritarian or totalitarian circumstance. Such a system has often been said to possess a certain kind of ruthless "efficiency" in comparison to groups in which the responsibility for the leadership function has tended to be more widely shared, rotated or delegated. The present paper will deal, by contrast, with the *hypocathected* leadership situation.

One characteristic of an hierarchical organization is the existence of relatively clearly defined stages or levels of organizational decision- or action-taking (4). Within each level as well as among them, the necessity for enclosed or limited communication is imperative; such an enclosure may be called a "communication zone" (5). These levels may be shared or may be primarily the responsibility of one person. The mode of communication among levels in an organization is three-fold, (1) *formal* channelling (e.g., memos, letters, business appointments, etc.), (2) *informal* channelling (e.g., hallway contact, lunches, or social contact, etc.—often this originally informal channel is subverted to formal purposes) and (3) *accidental* channelling (e.g., overheard conversation, chance remark, etc.).

The formal method is relatively linear and restricted in its content. On a vis-a-vis basis it may begin by simulating a social situation (ice-

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breaking) and include remarks concerning mutual health, golf scores, family activities which rapidly give way to a discussion of the business at hand. The formal approach is an intentional, purposeful, narrowly goal-directed situation. The formality of this type of communicative channel requires that a prescribed set of rules confine the interchanges (6). Thus, intimacy ordinarily has no place in such a situation, and often subtlety and cliché all but obscure the message expressed. Business thus transacted takes on a rarified quality with many tacit implications and inferences.

Employment of the *informal* modalities tends toward less precious a series of events. Much that is communicated is less guarded, and at times even *incidental* to the more prominent social effort. During the course of such interchanges, the rules of "achieved" and "attributed" status may be in at least partial abeyance. So much of the more covert intentions of the participants may be revealed that there has developed a sort of formalization of this channel in the luncheon or dinner business meeting or cocktail party, etc. Actually, this attempt to alter the rules of formal channelling has resulted more in extending control and guardedness into the cocktail hour (compare the Cocktail Party as one extreme of this) (7).

The third, or *accidental*, avenue appears in many conversational areas and is perhaps more conspicuous in the young, the anxious and those who have not thoroughly assimilated the rules of limiting communication. "Accidents," in the nature of ploys may also be intentional to achieve an effect, simulate lack of control, or seek sympathy.

The nature of organizational living, however, has led to two orientational aberrations in the communicative process about which I wish to speak. They might be called (1) *communicatio retardata* (to paraphrase a psychiatric term) and (2) *communicatio multiplex*.¹

Communicatio retardata. The first type of communicative variation does not necessarily lead to a breakdown of communication in the ordinary sense, although if too persistent may result in a gradual enervating of meaningful communication and a petering out of the organizational structure. It does, however, have the occasional value of "keeping the line open" for future utilization. Essentially a conference exhibiting the *retarda* configuration would not appear to be directed at conducting any business nor even to developing the ground work for future business. Quite the contrary, it seems to fulfill the form of the communication and perhaps even the "social

¹ These, of course, do not exhaust the kinds of aberrations in conference behavior, but do represent outstanding and inhibiting classes of behavior.

contract" but lacks true goal-intendedness, in so far as anyone can judge. The agenda in these circumstances seems to be primarily devoted to avoiding an agenda or perhaps to seeking one. It is quite characteristic of the business organization or even scientific which is complying with the urge, need, or agreement to get something accomplished, but which acts more in the capacity of time-serving. No one wants to "stick his neck out," and as a matter of fact, anyone who does usually has reason to regret it. It is as though a certain basic rhythm had been established, and anyone who attempts to superimpose a melody on the beat is essentially out of contact, or at least out of phase or order. Illustrations follow:

Case I. A group of highly skilled and representative scientists had been meeting to establish an experimental design for approximately a year, on a population of subjects in which the intent of the experiment, the questions to be asked, hypotheses to be formed had never been determined or forwarded. The nominal leader of the group seemed to the members to be tyrannical. However, the basis for this was unclear since he had insisted upon no given direction nor assignment of roles. The members of the group ate lunch together weekly, and often jested about the indigestible nature of the bill of fare. Suggestion after suggestion had been put forward (at least the proposers felt this to be the case), but no decision or action capped their efforts. Occasionally one or another member would threaten to resign or would actually do so. Occasionally one or another member would insist on action, request clarification or a status report. Simultaneously, the subjects were observed and recorded in a very modern way (tapes, notes, extensive field trips and interviews), but the lack of any clear direction to all of this was keenly felt. Remarks about the "miles of tape" were frequently followed by the question but what are we going to do with all this "data".² After eight months of similar procedure, it was finally decided that either the committee was unnecessary or non functional and it was abandoned. The tapes, etc., continued to pile up in unabated fashion, but one year after the dissolution of the committee, no one was yet clear on just what was being sought.

Case II. An executive committee of middle echelon operating unit heads met regularly for two years. Problems were developed requiring action at the level of the members, other problems developed concerning decisions

² The use of the word "data" is an interesting one in these circumstances. Perhaps a more descriptive term would be "facta" or even "massa," since data refers to "that given" and in this instance, it is "that made" (perhaps like pump-priming) or that "amassed" or "piled up."

of policy beyond the group. Meeting after meeting opened convivially, broached items of greater or lesser importance, and almost invariably ended without any decision having been made. The group, although constituted for decision making, within its jurisdiction, tended only to move among a circle of chairs and to "come out by that same door as in they went." The group in effect represented a kind of "sitting company," but only actually functioned to transmit material *from* a higher source over which it had no control or apparent influence. Its function, although negligible action wise, may have been nonetheless information-transmitting in the situation, but the members frequently expressed the opinion privately that its chartered purpose was irritatingly unfulfilled. This was never openly introduced into the discussion.

Comment: The disgruntlement evident in both of these situations might have been avoided or minimized if a real clarification of the *retarda* function of the meeting had been defined. It might well have cleared the air if the participants could have openly acknowledged the essential impotence of the situation. An important edifying opportunity was missed in that in neither of these cases was a role-playing situation introduced which might have reconstituted communication on a meaningful basis and resolved much earlier the essential communicative impasse in these committees (8, 9, 10). In both of these, organizational integrity was maintained at the expense of action and, in a sense, personal integrity, with the result that the level of operative function was also reduced.

Communicatio multiplex. The second problem in the communicative process tending to disrupt or break down effective organizational function is that of *communicatio multiplex*. This term includes two types of organizational error,³ (a) the *static* or *cross-talk* error and (b) the *bypass* which may be multiple or single.

Essentially, *communicatio multiplex* infers that either too much information is being fed into the system simultaneously or too many undifferentiated, unorganized or competing channels are receiving communications simultaneously or serially. The *static* or *cross-talk* situation is that circumstance in which a number of individuals or units violate "rules of precedence," usually established, or rules of fruitful communication. In this instance, there seems to be a vying for hegemony or control. Often, in a sense, this aberration develops in the functional vacation of the leadership

³ One might call these aberrations "inborn errors of organizational metabolism," after the model of a genetic process, such as phenylpyruvic oligophrenia. They can certainly be just as debilitating, chronic, and, until recognized, probably irreversible.

position and ordered interaction. It may develop simultaneously with the bypass situation to be described below. In some ways, it may appear to be the attempt to equilibrate a system in which $a + b + c = 0$, but in which a d term has been added beyond the requirements of the situation, or in other words five men are trying to sit on a four-man bench. A logistic problem is superimposed upon others. Example follows:

Case I. An industrial firm had a small plant vacant for about a year, shortly after completion. One of the subsidiaries, in the process of developing a new product, requested this facility in lieu of the construction of a new unit. Initially, the request, after proper consideration, was granted. Almost on the instant that the agreements were signed and recorded, several other subsidiaries also laid claim to the property. The result was a contest which resulted in limitation on the use of the property by anyone for another year and a half. Obviously all of the claimants would not fulfill their claims no matter how exceptional their proposals, and the rules of priority were put in abeyance at the same time that effective leadership was virtually vacated. A definitive situation at the outset would have spared the contestants much stress, interpersonal and organizational.

The *bypass situation* is that which perhaps underlies many other types of organizational error. However, it is not bypass from "below up" which forms the greater problem, although this is one also, but from "above down". That organizational structure which appoints nominal heads at different levels, then ignores them or sets up duplicate fealties or communicative channels, unless it is extremely cautious to define the differing relationships, is building in difficulties.

Case I. A hospital unit existed in which the jurisdiction of the various therapeutic agencies was quite unclear. This was particularly true in terms of the relative roles of nurses, residents and staff regarding patients. Perhaps the patients suffered most in this circumstance; their response was to play one level off against another (11). One individual ran a group therapy session, in which material was developed that was kept by patient and therapist from simultaneous individual therapist. Nurses alternately became involved or angry at one patient or another. Each level communicated different material to the others involved and to the patients. The result was chaos; elopement, disturbances among patients and staff, within and among the groups.

Case II. The president of an industrial organization had brought in a young assistant who showed considerable promise. The youngster had done exceptional work in allied areas for his years without special quali-

fications or background. He had seemed to be in the right place at the right time and produced work of merit beyond what might have been ordinarily expected. However, he was particularly unqualified to judge the efforts of a very complicated team of able people. Almost from the first, he spoke up in the meetings of the group, perhaps violating the rule of "newcomer silence," whereby an individual, no matter how competent, only courts the antagonism of his peers if he speaks, much less pontificates too soon.⁴ The result of this was that the stage was set for disaster. When the president of the organization tended to turn to the youngster for his opinion, in lieu of that of the others, the "crown prince's" fate was sealed as far as the group was concerned, and it was only a matter of time before he was placed in a situation in the course of which he had to leave the organization.

Comment: The static and bypass conditions predispose an organizational system to multiple mistrust and recurrent dispute. In each of these instances, some effort to confront the participants with the elements which are disruptive in a situation might have been an important step to avoid difficulties. Secondly, maintenance of organizational communicative structure was also vital to diminish or avoid difficulty and develop decisive action where necessary. Role-playing certainly has proved useful in these circumstances since it enforces the reconstruction of a communicative zone, to supplant the pathological "zone of silence" or the recurrent periods of explosion.

The "communication zone" thus must be kept open and ordered. In the absence of this, the possibility of disruptive non-communication or sterile pseudo-communication tends to leave nothing solved and all in flux, with the result that a desperate situation occurs whose outcome favors no one. Undoubtedly, many other types of organizational error exist. Communicatio retarda and communicatio multiplex are only two which should be avoided in functional communication and in a smoothly organized organizational structure.

Summary: Two types of organizational aberration, communicatio retarda and communicatio multiplex, have been described. They represent modes of either in the one case sterilizing or stultifying communication, and in the other of disrupting the organizational form itself. Both should be avoided by maintaining a functional communication zone. One therapeutic and utilitarian method of achieving this is to employ the technique of role-playing at least to clarify the situation, and hopefully to lead to meaningful decision-taking.

⁴ This is, of course, quite otherwise, if the newcomer is to be the new head of the operation. Even then, he would do well not to speak too soon.

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"WORK CULTURE MANAGEMENT" IN INDUSTRY: A ROLE FOR THE SOCIAL SCIENCE CONSULTANT

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Are there special conditions of a formally organized work environment which require that the objectives and operations of social science consultants within an industrial setting must differ from those working outside the industrial framework? If so, what are these conditions? How do they serve to shape these objectives and operations?

SPECIAL CONDITIONS

1. Formal work organizations tend to establish levels of minimum individual performance effectiveness as prerequisites for individual participation in the work process. If a worker is "well" enough to report for work, the requirements of industrial discipline seem to necessitate relative uniformity of consideration. If he is *not* "well" enough—he should *not* report for work—and be helped by someone outside the industrial scene.

"Effectiveness," however, has several dimensions. In the first place it implies the physical capacity to provide energy necessary for doing work. Secondly, "effectiveness" implies sufficient knowledge of the cultural milieu to insure satisfactory communication. The employee must be socialized to the extent that he can speak the local industrial language well enough to receive and transmit instructions. Furthermore, he must possess appropriate motor skills and understand the operations required of him as a participant in the industrial process.

Moreover, "effectiveness" implies that the employee is adequately motivated to perform organization tasks. This by no means implies that he must necessarily identify himself with these organization objectives. He must, however, know how to translate his own private needs into organizationally acceptable operations and accept organizational rewards as ego gratifications.

2. These levels of minimum individual performance effectiveness vary widely with respect to different individuals, with respect to the same indi-

viduals under differing conditions of organizational stress, and with respect to any given individual in terms of the composition of his work group.

3. If industrial tasks are to be performed on a regular, continuing basis, the industrial organization must somehow learn to adjust to the presence of individual employees who, for a variety of reasons, do *not* meet minimum "effectiveness" levels at any given moment of time. The absent employee for whom a replacement cannot be obtained, the worker who suffers from a temporary physical disability while on the job, the temporarily disinterested or unmotivated employee, the worker whose individual productivity assumes more or less violent cyclical patterns, the relatively "untrained" employee—can all be considered as falling into this category.

4. From the point of view of strict economic rationality, occasional individual "sickness" may appear to be positively related to the attainment of organizational objectives. The mildly paranoid, aggressive "empire builder" may apparently provide desirable new directions for organizational endeavor, and for his work mate a withdrawn, submissive, immature personality type may appear to be precisely what the industrial doctor, as well as he, should order. Personnel selection procedures which determine not only "technical competence" but appropriateness of "personality" type for a given job classification; organizational rewards for manifestations of what from an individual point of view would be regarded as psychopathological behavior (e.g., job promotions for the neurotically aggressive supervisor, etc.) "incentive" job rating plans designed to evoke neurotically heroic dedications of effort, may all, in one sense be viewed as organizational attempts to increase efficiency and productivity *without* regard to the mental health interests of individual workers. Industrial managers are paid to serve the economic interests of industrial organizations rather than the mental health interests of employees—obviously. The authors of this paper find it difficult to believe that even the most profiteering of industrialists would deliberately attempt to exploit the mental illness of their employees. It is the thesis of this paper, however, that not only is such exploitation immoral; it is uneconomical.

OBJECTIVES

The task of the industrial social science consultant seems to involve some basic contradictions. If he is undeviating in his adherence to the economic interests of management, he may appear at some points to be in a position of doing so by sacrificing the mental health interests of employees and vice versa. William Gomberg in presenting a "trade union point of view" poses the question in the following form:

"The psychologists can no longer sell a bromide without a question; that happy workers are necessarily productive workers. The question that now has to be answered is in what sort of society do we want to live. To what extent do we sacrifice our human values for economic objectives." (1)

Let us begin by considering work as a potential conflict situation. Work, in a formally organized work environment, requires a disciplined adaptiveness which may provide few if any immediate ego satisfactions to the individual worker. It makes a sacrifice of the more self-indulgent, narcissistic tendencies associated with the typical American dream of success—to "inherit, marry or win a million bucks." It seems clear that, whatever satisfactions a person may obtain from work as a meaningful activity with its own intrinsic rewards, we may hypothesize the existence of a fairly deep-seated resentment to compulsory or disciplined work, the specifications of which are fixed by others.

A Psychoanalytic View

Indeed, the industrial work group has been frequently compared to the family group. The father substitute is the employer or boss. He is the person with the power to assign tasks, to dole out privileges and regulate comfort or convenience. He has broad degrees of freedom to criticize and can go so far as to deprive a worker of his well being and security by having him dismissed. This "father figure" can be both an individual, i.e.,—the worker's immediate supervisor, or a composite of all the supervisors and managers in the firm.

The organization itself, as distinct from its officials, occupies the maternal role. The buildings help provide a framework for a home during his work hours and the company may even look after him when he is sick or too old to work. This "mother," however, has the unfortunate characteristic of preferring older siblings. She gives executives and senior workers more money and privileges than others. The younger sibling—the unskilled, poorly paid worker is forced to find another—a better mother—which turns out to be the labor union.

Thus, in this psychoanalytic view, workers are seen, essentially as children who rival with one another, utilizing bosses, institutions, and unions to pressure each to surrender extra privileges. It would seem that in practice, if not in theoretical nicety, this is in fact the way in which many "hard-headed" industrial managers see themselves and their employees despite the fact they would reject the notion of using the family as a symbol for the industrial group.

Work Culture Management

We suggest that the social science consultant can proceed more effectively and circumvent executive and union resistance by seeing workers as adults rather than as children—and business and union leaders as industrial managers rather than as good or bad parents.

A fundamental objective in work culture management is to help provide peer group solutions to conflicts associated with the work situation. This means that the person who suffers the conflict and the agent who resolves it properly belong to the same social and communication sub-systems.

Resistance to the utilization of the social science consultant in industry is often due to a fear that the social science consultants (and others) might view the industrial group as one to be treated "for the sake of the individual members" rather than as a "team" whose objectives are economic objectives. The fact is, of course, that even the most enthusiastic of social scientists are far too realistic to suggest that the economic objectives of industry be abandoned and that industrial groups be converted into therapy groups. This straw man reflects the resistance against any social scientific approach. It is a special instance of the cultural resistance to social science or psychiatric participation in public affairs. But how can effective integration of these apparently conflicting values be achieved?

In the first place, it is clear that, for the purpose of maximizing economic objectives, industrial managers need not be concerned with the productivity of *individuals* except as this is related to the productivity of the work group. Indeed, effectiveness of the individual worker cannot be assessed except in terms of his contribution to the group effort. Only those things done by an individual which result in increased group productivity can legitimately be regarded as productive.

Another basic objective of the industrial social science consultant then, must be to help establish and maintain work cultures in which individuals can be creatively productive in the sense of making effective contributions to a group effort. He must endeavor to help work group members find the kind of group process which best facilitates individual progress within their own groups. This must be based upon a recognition of the fact that the notion of establishing minimum levels of individual performance effectiveness is highly unrealistic if these levels do not specifically recognize that all individuals will at times make errors, feel "sick," "lazy," or "indifferent." The task of management under these conditions is not to engage in futile recriminations or in the promiscuous distribution of "demerits" for those who are trapped as they momentarily fall from the grace of minimum effectiveness.

Rather must the objective be to devise methods of achieving a sufficient degree of adaptive group or organizational behavior so that temporary inadequacies in individual performance can be absorbed by other members of the group or organization with no overall decline in output. This is the task of work culture management.

The task begins with an explicit recognition of the reality of individual differences. *It does not* attempt to force individual conformity to the straightjacket of narrowly defined job specifications. It is addressed to the here and now of both situation and personnel and raises the question: What type of group process would best facilitate individual progress toward organizationally satisfactory and individually satisfying ends?

It proceeds with the assumption that the "best" solution to an industrial problem is one which encompasses the here and now capacities of work group members within the framework of organizational requirements. It makes no assumptions regarding "happy" workers and productivity. It respects an individual's right to be compulsive, eccentric, jovial, morose, or hostile—while not *insisting* that he be any of these. It finds no reason to reward or reinforce "sick" behavior of any description. Its object is the establishment of a work environment in which people who are actually present in a given work situation can find the solutions to work problems which are "best" for them—if not for anyone else.

OPERATIONS

What implications does this have for the role of the social science consultant in industry?

In general we may now define this role in terms of installing procedures which will facilitate the process of adult problem solving and train the organization in the maintenance of its problem solving set. With respect to organizational friction, this role calls for a participative mode of conflict resolution which must be applied not only on the sub-group level but on the more inclusive organization level as well. Difficulties arising between the sales and production staffs, the financial and engineering staffs, etc., are notorious examples of typical organization trouble areas. The social science consultant must recognize that a group has its individual culture patterns which, while different from those of other groups, may, in fact, promote productivity within its own boundaries—although not for another group. The task may ultimately involve helping a group defend its own pattern against trends toward compulsive conformity initiated by insensitive "common sense."

Let us examine a specific problem area for the purpose of illustrating

some dimensions of the work culture management role—the area of personnel selection.

This is not the place to review the voluminous literature on personnel selection techniques. However, it seems fair to say that characteristically, contemporary practice in this area is devoted to the task of making recommendations regarding the "best" of available candidates for a given job. The administration of "personality" or "aptitude" tests assumes an importance which increases almost in direct proportion to the number of available candidates.

But selection of *personnel* implies the existence of criterion *situations*—specific situations in which the applicant will be expected to perform. To the extent that industrial work situations are completely definable with specified sets of parameters, and completely predictable—it should be possible to select candidates most likely to succeed within such situations.

SITUATIONS

As we have noted above, however, industrial work situations may not remain constant in all relevant aspects. Absent employees, temporary physical or motivational disabilities, equipment failures, communication failures, personnel turnover, and many other factors serve to make actual industrial situations constantly different from stereotyped images of "typical" situations.

Under these circumstances, personnel selection techniques cannot appropriately be defined to the initial phase of hiring or assignment. Personnel selection ultimately involves the assurance that the talents of human beings will be available to deal with any situation which may arise.

It is not realistic to assume that even the most versatile and energetic of social scientists can constantly be aware of the specific requirements of any given situation as it arises and can be ready to insert an appropriately selected job applicant into the breach.

In the last analysis, the most effective agency of personnel selection should be the industrial work group itself. Participants in the work process can directly perceive the parameters of a given work situation. They are most intimately aware of the state of their own strengths, weaknesses, motivations and the strengths, weaknesses and motivations of their workmates. They can select from their own repertoire of roles, or elsewhere if necessary, a specific response which will adequately deal with the situation with which they are confronted.

And the crucial task of work group management in this area is that of

training industrial groups to act with increased degrees of spontaneity or adaptability to the requirements of any situation in which they may find themselves.

The skills which the work group manager can most effectively use in attempting to provide such training are modifications of those associated with "role-playing" and "group discussion" methods. Thus, through the use of role-playing techniques it is possible to create realistic training environments within which work group members attempt to deal with problem tasks. Subsequently, they can be given an opportunity to discuss the implications of their previous behavior, understand its inadequacies, and the reasons for these inadequacies. The training goal under these circumstances is adaptability or spontaneity rather than the learning or prefabricated responses to "canned" situations.

This is *not* equivalent to utilization of unqualified "democratic" leadership within the industrial structure. It does *not* imply that there exists or should exist an equivalence of skills and ability within the industrial work group. It is entirely consistent with "authoritarian" types of decision making. It does not, however, insist that, e.g., the foreman *must* be the one to give the order to turn off the power in an emergency situation. It permits him to accept the judgment and emergency actions of the experienced subordinate without sacrificing the prerogatives of his own status. It may permit the subordinate to be "authoritarian" in appropriate situations just as the foreman is given the freedom to be authoritarian in others.

Recognition of the unconscious dynamics of the work situation can scarcely, in itself, lead to constructive change. Psychoanalyzed workers may find it economically necessary to work even though they no longer make fathers and mothers of anyone or act like children themselves. Setting up formally organized training sessions for workers in an endeavor to promote effective work cultures can help even the most analyzed of workers to be more productive within his own specific work setting. The mentally healthy productive person does not maintain this happy state autonomously but requires an appropriately stimulating work culture to keep him going (2).

PERSONNEL

If we *could* specify restricted work situations which for all practical purposes were completely defined by a given set of parameters, it would still be true that in the world of industrial reality the number of completely qualified candidates for a given position is limited, for various reasons (e.g., limited local labor supply, considerations of seniority, nepotism, etc.). Under

these conditions, the attempt to fit personnel pegs of specified dimensions to situational holes—is clearly an unrealistic aspiration. Here it would seem to be more feasible to select *work cultures* rather than personnel by redefining job specifications and requirements in terms which are consistent with the abilities of the persons who are actually available and who would be stimulated and reinforced by this culture to do the work he can do best. Work culture management has as its objective training work group members to modify work procedures and techniques sufficiently to allow for the differential abilities which are actually present in the here and now. In the most static of all worlds, for example, it may well be true that a supervisor ought to engage in "supervisory" activities rather than in "work" activities. In a specific work group, however, he may be required on occasion to redefine his work situation for the purpose of embracing activities "officially" required to be performed by a subordinate. Similarly, subordinates on occasion may find it necessary to define their work situation to include some varieties of "supervisory" tasks. Again, the use of role-playing and group discussion techniques can be used in connection with training work group members for this situation selection process.

All this requires something of an alteration in the role-conception of industrial supervision. Traditionally, supervision tends to maintain its focal position in an organization on the basis of fulfilling the initially creative task of defining the industrial roles to be played by subordinates. These roles are defined in terms of the most "efficient" way to divide a complex production task into parts which can be performed by individuals who have well defined individual skills, health and communication characteristics.

Work culture management attempts to provide existing work groups with facilities through which they can continually and creatively correct the role-conceptions of work group members by redefining them in terms of actually existing abilities, and variables of interpersonal harmony or tension related to group productivity. The problem of exact role definition then, becomes one for work group members rather than for managers occupying positions *external* to the group.

In this respect the concern is with many of the same problems which characteristically confront group psychotherapists in both private and institutional practice. Although one may establish intricate criteria for the purpose of defining the "best" type of individuals to be assembled for a given therapy group, the "ideal" components are seldom, if ever, available exactly according to specifications. The interventions of the successful group therapist must lie in the direction of establishing a therapeutic culture which can

make the best of whatever personnel are referred to the group for therapeutic work. The realistic and symbolic roles which individual group members play and occupy for each other must change with therapeutic progress, the addition of new members, the departure of old members, and the change of therapist, etc. Participants must feel free to modify their behavior and perceptions of the behavior of others in order for the sessions to be maximally productive.

The group psychotherapist may be compared to the executive within an industrial culture. Both are more effective when they include group members in preparing definitions of appropriate goals, roles and activities for the group.

Resistances can be anticipated in connection with this approach. This is true in therapy groups as well as in industrial groups. People everywhere prefer the myth of brilliant responsibility-assuming leadership to participation in responsibility taking. Thus, in the industrial situation, the fear may be expressed that giving to work group members this degree of "power" would result in definition of work group roles on a "goldbricking" basis. It is our observation that quite the contrary is true—i.e., goldbricking *increases* if the locus of power for role definitions is *outside* the group.

No complex work organization could possibly survive in the face of complete and undisciplined spontaneity on the part of all its employees. There are limits to the range of industrial role redefinition. This range is fixed by the essentially realistic character of the organizational structure. This structure fixes the boundaries of freedom within the industrial society and represents the "reality" to which individuals must adjust. Deviations, whether they be "creative" or "sick" must be equally constrained.

In this connection it should be observed that the industrial "group" increasingly must become defined to include the automaton as an interacting member, and, since our value structure does not include excessive concern for sick machines—perhaps the most serious challenge to the social science consultant in industry is that of relegating the more debilitating features of industrial life to automatons and to experiment with forms of work cultures which can effectively contribute to productive creativity on the part of human members of the industrial group.

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PRACTICAL GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY AND ROLE PLAYING FOR THE INDUSTRIAL SUPERVISOR¹

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Those who are interested in the improvement of current industrial management practices are vitally concerned with the role of the first-line supervisor and how he affects employee morale, company loyalties and productivity. This interest is a direct result of many attempts to discover how to motivate workers so that they will be eager to perform in a manner approaching their potential capacities. Many of the methods which have been developed to improve employee motivation have recognized this critical importance of the first-line supervisor. In fact, one of the main stumbling blocks or limiting factors in the success of these methods has been the negative influences of many industrial supervisors. It is the effect of these negative attitudes which have prevented the successful attainment of some of the most farsighted employee-centered plans and, indeed, have sometimes produced entirely unexpected and detrimental results. These negative attitudes are an apparently unchangeable aspect of what must seem to be pathologic manifestations of the supervisor's personality. It is a fundamental problem, therefore, to determine how to change the basic negative attitudes of industrial supervisors.

There are probably many industrial supervisors who are actually in dire need of some psychotherapeutic help. With better personal adjustment, they undoubtedly would prove more efficient in their work and could establish more wholesome relationships with their subordinates. But, the costs involved in any program of intensive psychotherapy would prevent any industry from underwriting such a plan for their employees. Industry can afford to be humanitarian only so far as it directly or indirectly increases profits.

¹ This is the first of two articles which describe how supervisor-employee relationships may be improved. This first article introduces some of the theoretical assumptions underlying a new approach to this important problem in modern industrial management. The second article will outline the specific procedure and methods by which this new technique may be implemented.

Now, if there were some less expensive and less time-consuming manner of improving the character of interpersonal relationships which exist among workers, it might herald a bold new approach to the pressing problems of the "human factor" in industry.

That the human factor is an extremely important consideration in industrial planning is attested by the following facts. There are reports indicating that comparable organizations producing the same product sometimes show differences in productivity such that one plant may have an output three times greater than another.² Even in product development and research there is a very great premium placed upon group collaboration and cooperative work effort toward common work goals. The effectiveness of any work group is dependent upon the work habits and attitudes of the individual workers which, in turn, seem primarily dependent upon the informal social controls which exist within the management structure. These social controls in the informal social organization of industry are largely a product of the impingement of supervisor on the primary work unit. Thus, the nature of the interpersonal relationships which exist within an industrial concern have a very direct relationship to productivity and profits.

If some method of improving interpersonal relationships by a less costly, more practical type of psychotherapy could be developed and implemented, the results would indeed be fruitful. The very mention of psychotherapy usually brings to mind the practices of Freud and the stereotyped couch of the psychoanalyst. But this approach is not readily adaptable to the needs of industry because it involves dealing with individual patients in a private clinical setting. In recent years, however, there has been a virtual revolution in the field of psychotherapy due to the advent of "group psychotherapy" and "psychodrama." Although many of the specific techniques of this method are still being developed and evaluated, it is obvious that such group procedures now make certain industrial applications feasible. In fact, there is now an economical and specific remedy for improving the interpersonal relationships which exist in industrial concerns.

One technique which is utilized in the conduct of group psychotherapy seems particularly well-adapted to the problems involved in changing the basic attitudes of industrial supervisors. It is what might be called an Intensive Industrial Role Playing Technique. In general, it involves the creation of situations involving practical work conflicts and then allowing

² Brown, J. A. C. *The Social Psychology of Industry*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books Ltd., 1954, pg. 88.

an individual to extemporaneously "live through" the experiences of a particular character. By playing first one role and then another, the individual gains an understanding of the feelings and reactions of all of the various personalities involved in a conflict situation. By carefully controlling the manner of group interaction and quality of emotional clashing with other participants, by the stimulus of constant evaluation of the nature of group reactions and forced adjustment to a varied and changing social reality, the individual gradually learns to operate in harmony with the needs of the group while promoting goal-directed behavior. In the process, there is constant growth of individual self-esteem, self-confidence, and general level of functioning in relation to social industrial situations.

While this procedure effectively changes attitudes as manifested in specific industrial situations, it does not significantly alter the basic personality make-up of an individual nor does it effectively generate insight into the genetics or dynamics of an individual's personal problems. In the manner in which this technique is used, it is a special method specifically oriented toward the amelioration of costly industrial problems. Only a limited amount of insight can be expected from such a short-term, intensive, and specific approach. But what it lacks in coverage and depth, it makes up in efficiency of application and low financial investment by industry.

At all times, this technique is oriented toward constructive changes in the attitudes of the participating group members. Specifically, it provides for the growth of both intellectual awareness and emotional capacity to respond to maximum advantage in a group situation. During the Intensive Industrial Role Playing Technique process, considerable attention is given to the correction of inadequate, ineffective, and unpleasantly provocative behavior. This type of behavior in a relatively intact ego is essentially a manifestation of the inappropriate aspects of certain personality defenses associated with manifest anxiety. Any reduction in the threatening nature of the conflict situation or demands of the role will reduce the anxiety and render the immediate satisfactions of the defensive system less essential to the emotional integrity of the individual. Thus, mere familiarity with a new role, and experience in handling routine problems associated with new roles, lessens the threatening qualities of such new social adaptations. This may permit recognition of certain disrupting trends and impulses and allows some voluntary selection or experimentation with new approaches that might be more in harmony with the group needs and goals. By personal role substitution and subsequent analysis of the feelings of the various personalities, an individual is given new perspective and aid in facing the realities of social

interaction in an industrial situation. Sometimes, the distorted personal expectations of others become forcibly modified in such a socializing experience as personal substitution into the "shoes of the other fellow." Certainly, this tends to increase the individual's understanding of the reactions of others, serves to promote a deeper respect for the functions of others, and reveals the potential helpfulness of associates in working toward group goals.

One practical factor which may be overlooked is the selection of group participants who have approximately the same level of intellectual functioning, similar educational and cultural backgrounds, and with currently similar work experiences. Exceptions to this may be made when the current or anticipated demands of an individual's work requires the experiences of dealing with a more heterogeneous sampling of people. However, the homogeneous grouping provides for certain efficiencies in the therapeutic process.

The unique benefits of such an intensive specialized technique are somewhat offset by the special requirements for the therapist or *Group Leader*. This is because this technique is something different than a training lecture on effective human relations, a discussion group organized with therapeutic intent, or even a socializing experience where individuals can compare their problems with those of others. It is rather a dynamic life-like activity wherein every group member is an active participant and the group leader constantly exerts a modifying influence. The group must organize and function in relation to a group leader who must adequately understand the personality dynamics of each of the several group participants while encouraging meaningful group interaction in relation to prescribed therapeutic objectives.

The group leader must initially discover the reasons why each participant may have been prevented from using his abilities to the maximum, then, in a favorable emotional climate, provide the active manipulation which will stimulate reconstructive learning. He must be able to recognize and resolve the group resistances, hostilities and tendencies toward social deterioration. Whether a psychologist, physician or social worker, the skill or art of the group leader must rest upon adequate understanding of personality structure, dynamics, pathologic manifestations, treatment methods and clinical experience. But his effectiveness in an industrial situation also requires familiarity with current industrial management practices and a knowledge of the social psychology of industry.

SUMMARY

High productivity and good industrial relations are, to a great extent, dependent upon such factors as employee morale, motivation, attitudes and loyalties. These are actually manifestations of the interpersonal relationships which exist in the primary work unit; in particular, the relationship between employee and supervisor. Since one of the main problems in current industrial management practices is to change or improve the negative attitudes of first-line industrial supervisors, some economical and specific technique is desired which will serve this purpose.

During the last decade, there have been rapid developments in the techniques of group psychotherapy and psychodrama. One of these techniques which seems particularly well-suited for use in industrial situations is the role-playing technique. However, this method has been employed in some industrial training programs with only spotty success. It is suggested that an *Intensive Industrial Role Playing Technique* be employed to achieve certain economies of application and to provide a specific industrially-oriented type of dynamic reconstructive learning process. This new procedure places far greater responsibility upon the group leader both in the preliminary planning and the direction of the group process. His functions are broadened to include more complete a priori understanding of the personality dynamics, assets and limitations, and needs of each individual participant. It is believed that only with this understanding can he efficiently plan the type of group interaction necessary for constructive group experiences. To achieve a meaningful and goal-oriented group interaction, the group leader should both foster the desired mode of group interaction and resolve group resistances, deteriorative tendencies, and limiting defensive reactions. Such intensive goal-directed group experiences would then provide the desired practical psychotherapy for the industrial supervisor.

ROLE PLAYING TECHNIQUE IN INDUSTRIAL SITUATIONS¹

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The morale, motivation and attitudes of individual workers are of far greater importance than such physical factors as illumination, ventilation or rest periods in industrial productivity. There has been gradually increasing emphasis on human relations in industry (3, 4). Social scientists have found that the focal point for emergence of such basic attitudes lies in the primary work group (1, 2). In particular, the breeding ground seems to be in the nature of interpersonal relationships which exist in the primary work group. Of considerable importance is the relation between each worker and his first-line supervisor. For this reason, great emphasis is now placed upon the character of employee-supervisor relationships and methods of fostering more beneficial interpersonal relationships.

Of considerable diagnostic importance in determining the healthfulness of supervisor-worker interpersonal relationships is the perspective or view the worker has of his immediate superior. His concept may be and, in fact, usually is radically different from the impression the supervisor feels he is creating. Both the supervisor's impression and the worker's percept of the situation may be quite divorced from reality. This is because we are not dealing with objective facts but, rather, personalities interacting in an emotional climate. For illustrative purposes, Figure 1 indicates in an overly simplified manner a rather hypothetical polarization of employee-supervisor relationships which might be found in a goal directed industrial situation.

It has been found that merely supplying information on proper supervisory methods or conducting special training programs on good human relations is of very limited value (5). Knowledge of what is right does not con-

¹ This is the second of two articles which describe how supervisor-employee relationships may be improved. The first article introduced some of the theoretical assumptions underlying a new approach to this important problem in modern industrial management. This second article outlines the specific procedure and methods by which this new technique may be implemented.

note emotional acceptance nor the ability to put the words into action. Something bordering upon psychotherapy sometimes seems necessary to improve these aspects of personality. Indeed, the source of the method proposed in this study is in the recently developed techniques of group psychotherapy. It is an extension of the role playing technique which attempts to facilitate emphatic processes by fostering limited and temporary identifications with other personalities. That is, by playing first one role and then another in a group conflict situation, the individual is forced to place himself in a position which may not be so egocentrically demanding and thus permits greater appreciation of the needs and feelings of others. It is this understanding of the needs and feelings of others, combined with an increased ability to satisfactorily resolve the disrupting effects of defensive reactions, which is prerequisite to implementation of any factual knowledge on good supervisory practices.

FIGURE 1
VARIETIES OF SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE RELATIONSHIPS

<i>Type of relationship</i>	<i>General results</i>	<i>Description</i>
Dependent	Inefficient conformity	A supervisor may foster extremely passive, dependent, or submissive roles by his subordinates by acting in an authoritarian manner, making all the decisions, or doing all the important work himself.
Cooperative	Optimum efficiency	The supervisor may function as a leader who can advise, interpret, support, and is capable of understanding the problems of his subordinates. He promotes responsible action, stimulates achievement, and engenders a feeling of approval among employees.
Avoidance	Evasive compliance	A supervisor may fail to create a feeling of acceptance and regard for the personal worth of his subordinates. The employees react with passive resistance, feelings of resentment, and they will not wholeheartedly perform their duties.
Negative	Disrupting resistance	The supervisor is viewed as a threatening, disapproving, critical, or dominating person who is not to be trusted and is feared or rejected by his subordinates. Despite surface conformity and obedience there is an undercurrent of active resistance and attempts to find expression for reactive aggression.

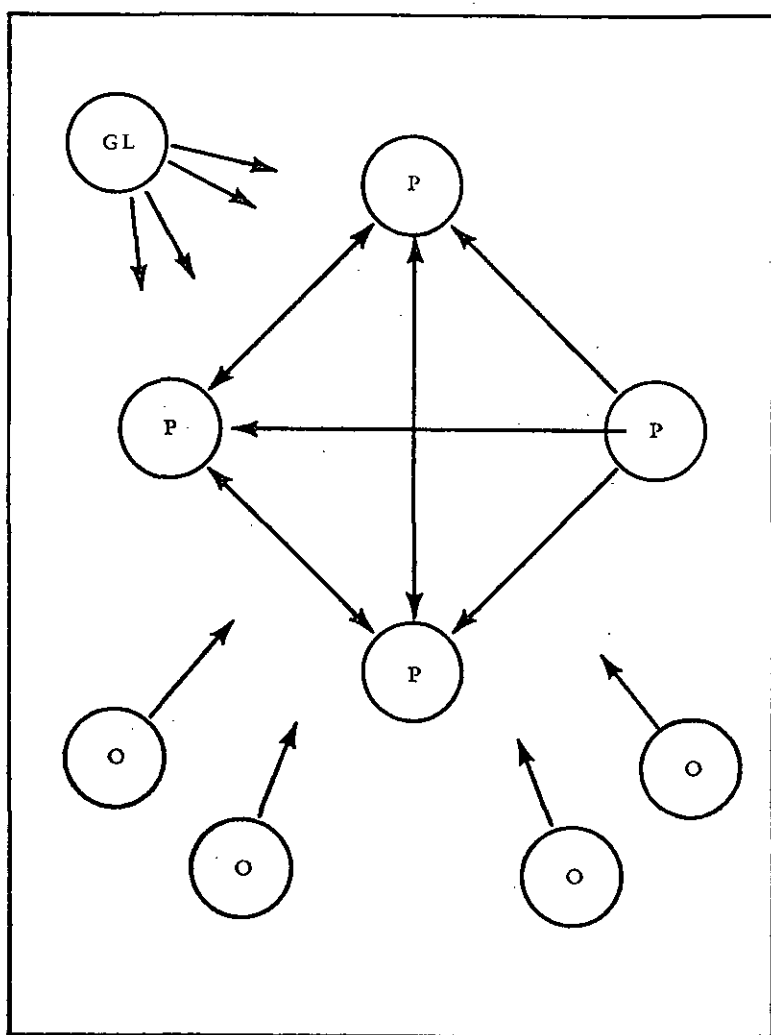
PROCEDURE

The basic group in the Intensive Industrial Role Playing Technique is composed of some nine individuals: one *group leader* or expert who is the responsible agent in planning the therapeutic process, and two alternating groups, one composed of four role-playing *participants* and one of four *observers* (see Fig. 2). The size of the group is vitally important since a participant is only capable of satisfactorily relating to a maximum of about three other personalities during a particular conflict situation. So too, the group leader must be free to follow exactly what is transpiring among the participants and a group of four approaches an optimal limit for the purposes intended.

This group would normally meet in sessions lasting about an hour. However, before the group meetings begin, all participants should receive an individual interview. While this interview is ostensibly to determine compatibility of members of various proposed groups, it also has the very important function of allowing the group leader to determine the needs, limiting pathology, and therapeutic utility of each individual. This relieves the group leader of the very great burden of attempting to diagnose each individual in the fluidity of a changing social group structure and results in the obvious economies found in the rigid structure of individual interviews. Not only does it save group time and allow for the more conventional experimental conditions of diagnosis, but it allows for the preliminary planning which is essential if costly mistakes are to be avoided and an efficient, goal directed, therapeutic group interaction is to be maintained.

It is believed that diagnosis should be used in the sense of recognition of important psychopathological manifestations and therapeutic assets of each individual in relation to how they may limit the growth of the individual or affect the progress of group interaction. Thus, the emphatic relationships which are fundamental to successful role playing are based upon a conscious a priori plan-of-action related to needs of the group and determined by the manner in which the therapeutic goals may be reached with a minimum of lost time. Certainly, one of the most common causes of failure in group therapy is the attempt to lead the group without understanding of what is going on or having any clear-cut plan of action for the individuals concerned. Diagnosis, in and of itself, infers appropriate therapeutic action.

The organization of an effective program utilizing the Intensive Industrial Role Playing Technique might be as follows:



P — Participant
O — Observer
GL — Group Leader

FIGURE 2
STRUCTURE OF ROLE PLAYING GROUP

Phase I: *Planning.*

Step 1: *Program Orientation.* There should be some publicity or propaganda to establish individual's expectations. This may be done by written materials which emphasize the positive benefits which will accrue to those who participate. Be careful to avoid statements which imply that this program might result in improvement of existing conditions, that it might be mandatory for some participants, or that it is directly connected with management. If at all possible, the program should be of a nature wherein individuals would be provided an opportunity to "sign up," i.e. voluntarily commit themselves. They should "expect" to learn new psychological techniques which they could employ if promoted to positions of greater responsibility. That is, there should be no implied criticism of the individual's current practices since, defensively, he may attempt to prove that what he is doing is right. This type of aroused antagonism is not the receptive expectation for new learning that is desired.

Step 2: *Individual Interview.* The importance of clinical diagnosis of each participant as a preliminary step in planning has already been discussed. The use of psychological tests probably should be avoided; since it is time consuming, it may place some participants upon the defensive, or serve to promote rumors that everyone is to be "psycho-analyzed." About one hour may be allowed for each interview, i.e. total of 8 hours for a group. The interview should be a relaxed, pleasant affair with spontaneity, a free flow of thinking and feeling, and a somewhat undirected expression of events and ideas which are important to the interviewee. However, too strong an attitude of permissiveness might engender some inefficiency in the diagnostic procedure.

Step 3: *Mapping the Procedure.* After the initial interviews are completed, the group combinations, role playing problems, therapeutic objectives, and desired modes of interaction must be determined. In a sense, it is like planning the moves in a chess game. The more successful the plan-of-action is, the less obvious the leadership or direction during the actual group process. About 8 hours should be allowed for this vital portion of the program.

Phase II: *Group Interaction.*

The following steps are involved in each group role playing session. These steps are clearly related to the all important function of the group leader, the management of manifest anxiety as a disruptive medium in the defensive balances achieved by each participant.

Step 1: *The Warmup.* This is merely a short introductory period to re-establish rapport and create a mental set conducive to the learning process.

Step 2: *Ego Involvement.* When the participants are assigned roles to play in a particular conflict situation, their complacency, of course, is disturbed. The threat of role playing is anxiety arousing. But such a

disequilibrium is essential to call forth habitually used protective mechanisms or defensive reactions. This, since much of human behavior is based upon reactions to anxiety and defenses against anxiety. The efficiency of habitually used defenses is lowered with aroused anxiety and are, thus, less satisfying and more subject to critical evaluation.

Step 3: *Content Clarification*. While there is some ventilation of feelings which may serve to reduce anxiety, the procedure should be of a nature so as to promote experimentation with new modes of reacting and adapting to stressful social situations. This demands that there be some effort to clarify the issues involved, derive possible alternative courses of action, and determine how they relate to overall management objectives. Of course, the burden of such productive thought should rest upon the shoulders of the participants, but they should not be allowed to become tautologically stalemated. While the material covered has to be meaningful and somewhat ego involving, it should be sufficiently displaced to prevent defensive "blind spots" or resistances which are but islands of incomprehensibility and nonacceptance if directly attacked.

Step 4: *Feeling Analysis*. At this point, the group leader should attempt to promote some understanding of why various participants reacted as they did and what were the limiting factors in the conflict situation. This is where an understanding of the personality dynamics of each member of the group is of vital importance if growth is to be maximized and the chances of regression minimized (6). The group leader might best utilize the observers rather than the participants in these discussions.

Step 5: *Experimental Socialization*. After the development or analysis of the modes of adaptation and feeling tones present in the conflict situation, some opportunity should be provided to "try again" with the added armament of an increased understanding of what is happening. By "living through" a similar conflict situation with new experimental concepts in mind, there may be some reinforcement of the new concepts prior to any healing and return to old inappropriate defensive techniques.

Step 6: *Ego Support*. Nearing completion of the session, the group leader should attempt to foster feelings of acceptance, the worthiness of individual contributions to the group, stimulate ego enhancement where necessary, and reduce any discomforting tension or manifest anxiety.

Since these sessions may be somewhat traumatic in the sense that they disturb a participant's equilibrium and force him to do some new learning, the participants of one session should be given the less upsetting task of being the observers of the next session. However, participants who start a session should carry through the entire procedure of a session, i.e. initial ego involvement, subsequent analysis, and a second opportunity to try out new adaptive techniques.

Phase III: *Individual Ventilation.*

After about six Group Interaction Sessions, opportunity should be provided for individual consultation with each member of the group. This will permit some ventilation of personal difficulties and allow the group leader to determine corrective action for problems that have arisen. The original plan-of-action should be modified or extended at this time.

Phase IV: *Group Interaction.*

The technique may be continued for another six sessions or even further if serious problems are involved. The savings in time for the group leader (or lowered cost to industry) in comparison to individual therapy is considerable. It requires only 25% as much time and provides an unmatched industrially-oriented social experimental setting.

During the role playing process, the group leader should provide such direction as is necessary to prevent discussions which circumvent pertinent issues. He should avoid moving too rapidly over ground likely to induce resistances or demand difficult choices before the participants are ready. He should avoid premature or extensive interpretation. But most important, his leadership should not be too obvious. He must never be placed in a "teaching" position when he should be functioning as a leader or expert.

SUMMARY

Any industry, however automated, is fundamentally dependent upon the individual worker as the key to optimum productivity. However, the individual worker seems to be an unpredictable variable in industrial management. Recently, the origin of employee morale, motivation, group attitudes, and loyalties has been found in the character of interpersonal relationships which occur in the primary work unit. If a method could be found to improve these interpersonal relationships, the results would directly affect productivity and profits.

It is recommended that a specialized technique of group psychotherapy, modified for use in industrial situations, be utilized to improve supervisor-employee interpersonal relationships. The method of application of this Intensive Industrial Role Playing Technique has been outlined in this article. It provides for a group leader who is a responsible agent in planning the exact nature of experimental interaction in industrially-oriented conflict situations. This is achieved by individual diagnosis and subsequent mapping of a plan-of-action based upon group objectives and needs and fitted to the therapeutic utility of each participant.

The concept of anxiety management in the role playing process is intro-

duced and its relation to adaptive learning described. The group interaction process is considered as an opportunity for ego involvement with concomitant disequilibrium of ego-satisfying defenses. Opportunity is then provided for content clarification, feeling analysis, experimental socialization, and ego support as aids in the development of more appropriate goal-directed behavior.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS IN ROLE PLAYING APPLICATION

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There seems to be a polarization in the approaches of role playing practitioners in industry. On the one hand there are those who ask too little from the technique. They seem content to use role playing as a didactic instrument with which they "prove" things about interviewing, disciplining and human relations. It is questionable whether the efforts of the first group can be considered action training. They use "canned" cases, printed scripts, and conclusions to be reached are predetermined. Their use of role playing is so structured and controlled that it becomes an analytical tool.

The second group is comprised of those who expect too much from an industrial role playing session. They are eager to produce dramatic and impactful productions with profound therapeutic effects.

With tremendous reservoirs of dollars, time, and people, industry provides almost an ideal setting for both research and application of action methods. There is sufficient evidence scattered throughout training and personnel journals to indicate that the climate in industry is increasingly receptive to action methods. At the same time, however, industry has not been receptive to full blown group therapy and psychodrama. There seems to be a potentially fruitful area somewhere between the sterile, didactic approach of "method-centered" role playing and the dramatic and therapeutic approach of psychodrama.

The development of methods and approaches which can be useful in this middle-of-the-road area requires a further consideration of the context in which industrial role playing is used. Most practitioners would probably agree that the psychological and inter-personal problems being dealt with in industry are in many ways similar to the problems one finds in institutional settings. Informal social organizations and sociometric networks exist in all groups. Status and authority problems are ubiquitous. Personal friction and frustration are not confined to industrial organizations. There are, however, significant differences between the industrial group and most non-industrial groups. First, the industrial enterprise has a well defined formal organization structure which has been designed as a result of conscious study and the application of business organization theory. The authority

and responsibility of members of the industrial group are to some extent controlled by executive management so as to arrive at a satisfactory balance of power and provide for specialization in solving problems, making decisions, and producing results. Obviously, the personalities and the informal social relationships among the members of the organization have a profound impact on the way in which the organization functions. Nevertheless, there has been a tremendous amount of study and planning devoted to the establishment of organizational structures which function with maximum effectiveness.

The organization has, in addition to a well defined hierarchical structure, many established group standards. Again the difference between the standards of a business enterprise as compared to other social organizations is that the standards of the enterprise do not all evolve through natural processes. They are planned, organized and guided by what businessmen accept as "principles of organization."

In addition, businessmen have proved, at least to themselves, that the most successful enterprise is one in which management controls have been established to insure efficient operation. Many of these controls are technological, comprising such things as quality standards, scientific wage determination, and production control techniques. However, many of the controls are organizational and are aimed at achieving a balance of power between various segments of the business. (One finds, for example, in companies where organizational controls are not operative, that the enterprise may be pouring dollars into product research and development without adequate marketing support.) Although it is true that some businesses operate successfully with rather informal management methods, the larger enterprises which are the backbone of our economy rely heavily on the application of sound management planning and control methods.

In summary, then, when a personnel executive or industrial trainer begins dealings with the inter-personal problems of an industrial group, he must also deal with problems of business organization and control. This, perhaps, can best be illustrated by an example:

This role playing session occurred in an industrial training group comprised of members of major departments of a business organization. The purpose of the meeting was to discuss common problems and "improve communication and understanding."

Mr. A: One of the problems that bothers us in production is when marketing requests a change in product specifications to suit one particular customer. (Several members of the production department begin discussing the

problems which marketing had been creating for production in attempting to satisfy all customers' special requests.)

Mr. B: (Marketing department representative) What you guys in production don't realize is that if we don't satisfy our customers we won't need a production department. (After further discussion, the director suggested that the situation be investigated through role playing.)

Mr. A: I understand the sales department wants us to get out a special order for one of our large customers but that a change in specifications will be required.

Mr. B: That's right. One of our biggest customers needs some stuff in a hurry for a special job and they do require some slight changes in specifications.

Mr. A: You know as well as I do that that kind of deal will foul up our whole production schedule and will probably cost more money than we can make on the order. (After this discussion had moved along and the argument became more heated the director inserted a double.)

Mr. A: If you guys in sales would learn a little more about production, you would know the problems you are making for us.

Auxiliary ego doubling for A: These fancy pants from marketing with their ivy league suits and shiny brief cases act like they are running the whole damn business.

Mr. B: Look, I appreciate that this is causing a problem but this is a big customer and if we don't satisfy him on the smaller accounts we can't expect to get his business when he has a big order.

Auxiliary ego doubling for A: These marketing guys always try to make it sound like we are trying to ruin the business and that we don't really understand what's going on.

Mr. A: I know that sales are important and we have to keep up good relations with our customers but what I would like to know is where you get the authority to change specifications and foul up the whole production schedule.

Without going any further with this incident, several problems begin to reveal themselves. First, there are some negative feelings existing between marketing and production personnel. (The director could pursue this dimension of the problem attempting to increase the insight and understanding of the participants and develop additional role playing situations for experimentation with techniques for handling inter-personal conflicts.)

In addition, organization and control problems are being revealed. Who has the authority to change specifications? How are these changes to be communicated?

Actually, in this particular instance, the director followed the first course of action. He directed a series of enactments revolving around the inter-personal conflicts between marketing and production personnel.

Although, as the session ended, there was evidence that the insight and understanding of group members had increased, there were also some negative results. The marketing manager, who had not attended the session, later called the production manager to complain about the lack of cooperation evidenced by production supervisors. Word spread throughout the marketing department that most production supervisors were jealous of the marketing executives. The net result was that further training sessions were cancelled.

This case illustrates several typical situations which create problems for the industrial trainer.

1. Inter-personal and attitudinal problems are frequently interwoven with problems of business organization and control.

2. Functional problems between departments often point up the fact that a decision or new course of action is needed. The group members do not have the authority to make these decisions, therefore, the trainer must focus on social problems and ignore pressing and important business problems.

3. Most training groups represent cross-sections of department supervisors and are not organizational entities. Therefore, no decisions can be made. The discussions tend to be philosophical rather than practical. Role playing enactments cannot be fully explored.

The purpose of pointing out these problems is to suggest that a different approach to industrial training situations is desirable. The crux of this point of view is that the trainer should deal with the total problem faced by the trainees. Problems of organization, control, authority and decision making, are so interwoven with the sociometric and inter-personal problems of the group that they cannot be ignored. Attempts to teach human relations and at the same time ignore those forces which are affecting the participants in the here and now are frequently abortive. This is not to suggest that human relations and supervisory skills training is always ineffective. Rather it is to suggest that role training *in situ* can make a much more significant contribution to the organization. Here is an example:

Relationships between two departments of a business were very poor. There were conflicts between various individuals, and decisions involving both departments were arrived at only after a great deal of unnecessary discussion. Rather than attempting to teach all of the supervisors involved better methods of communicating, the problem was attacked directly. The heads of Department A met with the personnel executive and began exploring areas of conflict with Department B. Role playing was used sparingly and

the focus was on developing an understanding of the organizational relationships between these departments and the standards and controls which were operative. Areas of disagreement and conflict were isolated and discussed. Now the trainer attended Department A's executive staff meeting. Decisions which could be made internally by members of Department A were made at these meetings and acted upon. Role playing was used from time to time as a method for increasing the effectiveness of implementing the decisions. Gradually, members of the lower echelon of management in Department A were introduced to this process.

The same approach was followed in Department B.

As a third step in the process, a meeting with department heads from both departments was held. Now it was possible to fully investigate areas of conflict and to use sociodramatic methods to investigate the problem areas.

Finally, sessions focused more directly on inter-personal relations and human relations skills were conducted. Thus, the trainer had to some extent become a part of the organizational groups which were solving problems, making decisions, and having conflicts. He moved from one group to another and attempted to warm up each group for action and interaction.

Executives from both departments reported improved relations between the groups. Problems were being solved more effectively and cooperation had increased.

Although the above illustrations are not conclusive, they do suggest that role playing holds the possibility of an application in industry that has not been utilized to any extent. Essentially this approach amounts to working with existing organizational groups rather than transient, amorphous training groups. It suggests applying action methods to problem solving and decision making as well as inter-personal and organizational relationships. It requires the personnel executive or consultant to conduct sessions on actual business problems in the setting in which they occur. Whether these sessions are therapeutic or skill oriented must depend on the needs of the group and the ability of the trainer. However, the future of action techniques in industry may well depend on the extent to which these techniques are used to meet the needs of the organization rather than to fulfill the prophecies and confirm the prejudices of the practitioner.

PROJECT-CENTERED GROUP TREATMENT*

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There are plenty of problems with groups in industry, as well as in the community at large. As an administrator or manager you may have to deal with a group of foremen or supervisors who ally themselves with the workers and directly or indirectly oppose you, or sabotage your management practices. Or you may have middle management personnel, who are so ignorant or disinterested in effective supervision that your production flow is in a constant turmoil and you're beginning to feel like a fireman—always rushing out to dampen the latest flare-up.

Or you may be the conscientious type—subscribe to the right and proper services; belong to the correct technical and management societies; carefully mark articles to be read in your leisure or spare time. Unfortunately, the important material to be read usually ends up in a brief case, in transit, shuttled back and forth between office and home and then from home to office or it is added to that pile of must reading which accumulates the day you're home nursing a cold or an ulcer.

But we don't have problems with middle management alone in dealing with groups in industry. There are equally grave problems in dealing with the workers, and if we assume you are a conscientious manager or administrator, one of the areas of great concern to you would be that of wage incentives as applied on the factory floor.

BEGIN: I want to tell you about a recent experience which involved your friend and mine, the conscientious administrator of a wage incentive plan. In this actual story, the conscientious administrator had gone to great lengths over many months to accumulate the data, make the interpretation, develop the plan, including production standard and incentive pay. Finally, the plan, beautifully written up and painstakingly explained to all the groups involved, was officially installed.

But in less than 60 days, the crushing blow fell—at a union meeting the people voted the wage incentive plan out! Shortly, thereafter, the union representative, always on good terms with management, walked into the conscientious administrator's office and plainly said, "The climate in this

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plant is not right for a wage incentive plan." Bowing to the people's demands and the union's request, the wage incentive plan was discontinued. And about the same time, management noted a rash of things going on which could be lumped under the general heading of deterioration of morale. Some of these were: increased number of complaints to the union stewards, more absenteeism and tardiness, and lowered production.

Now, perhaps, some of you who are interested in, or have management responsibility, would like to ask, what would *you* do if you were in the conscientious administrator's dilemma? Actually, one of the first things that happened was that a consultant was engaged to render professional assistance in the problem.

Soon it was possible to advise management that the real problem was *not* how to make a wage incentive plan work but how to achieve improved morale and do something about the climate, which the union representative had aptly described as "not right." It was pointed out that frequently, non-financial incentives play as great or a greater part than financial incentives in group productivity.

In the time allotted, I can only hit the high spots of what took place. It was suggested that out of the plant labor force of 1000 employees, perhaps 125 to 150 individuals were the indigenous leaders on the worker level and that the total population probably reflected the attitudes, feelings and reactions of this leadership pool; that this group could and would make or break any company program and probably played an important part in the decision to vote the wage incentive plan out of existence; that, using sociometric testing, the members of this group could be identified; and, finally, that participation by these individuals in a series of weekly meetings professionally directed would result in improved understanding and co-operation.

For the sociometric testing, that is, using spontaneous choice as an index of work-situation relationships, the following question was asked on the production floor:

"I'm from the Personnel Office—what is your name and clock No. (write it down). I'll tell you what I'm doing here. We, in the Personnel Office, are making a study of looking into wages and jobs throughout the factory and in all the production depts. We're kind of short of help in the office and so I have to do this job all by myself. It would take too long to talk to all the people so I'd like you to help me—tell me who you think I should talk to in your section about wages and job conditions—someone who works with you—someone you think knows the score."

Going thru the production depts. asking this question, the consultant

selected what he considered the power and prestige individuals—120 of them—the key workers, who could determine whether a company program would succeed or fail. The total of 120 was broken up into 12 groups of ten each. Each group met weekly for an hour to hour and a quarter session for ten weeks. Care was taken to provide as heterogeneous a group in each case as possible. A mixture of men and women was present in each group which included persons from five different depts. There were Mexicans, Negroes and whites—literate and illiterate present in most of the groups.

It is interesting to note that attending the meetings or group sessions came to be known as “going to school” and was seen as a prestigious activity. Group leaders reported that non-participants would approach them with “When is it going to be my turn to go to school?”

In the first and second sessions, the consultant raised the question of how can we get to know each other better, since we’re all from different depts? This led to individuals identifying themselves and their depts, which became a list entered on the board. Then, the question of length of service was raised, and corresponding tenure entered against each name. There was an opportunity to exchange job descriptions before the group and begin to understand the workings of other depts. for the first time.

But these first sessions served another important purpose. The most aggressive and hostile individuals were given an opportunity to blow their top and vent their frustration—which they did. With sympathetic support by the group leader and, in most cases, remarkable tolerance and good-natured understanding by the rest of the group, the ground work was laid for individual progress.

About the 3rd or 4th session, the group leader raised the question of how do you tell the difference between a good worker and a poor worker? At that point considered appropriate, he handed each person a mimeographed release which briefly explained the purpose of a merit-rating plan and some factors from representative plans used by other plants. The participants were asked to take the printed material back to their stations and discuss them with their fellow workers and come back next week prepared to discuss some of the factors.

In this manner the 12 groups worked out a seven factor merit-rating plan, complete with descriptions and weighting. The consultant during this period was supplying to each group all the pertinent information about the activities in the other groups. Obviously, there was also a great deal of interaction between individuals outside the group sessions which helped to clarify issues and resolve differences.

By the tenth session, the 12 groups had reached a decision on the Rating Plan which they recommended management should accept. Also, in each group, a typical rating procedure was role-played, so the participants could see and hear the plan, which was their own handiwork, in action. And the company accepted the recommended merit Rating Plan without change.

But there were other results equally important and significant. About the 4th or 5th week of the program, middle management began to report a slight but noticeable improvement on the production floor. Gripes began to diminish in number and violence, tardiness and absenteeism lessened and productivity began to rise. In fact, at the end of the 10 week program, the company found itself in the unique position of having achieved improved morale and significantly greater productivity without wage incentives.

You may be interested in the consultant's attempt to get the participants' evaluation of what had taken place. At the last session, the consultant handed out an Experiencing Form of 9 sentences to be completed. The responses gave ample evidence of changing attitudes and greater understanding.

In closing, it's interesting to speculate how the professional would categorize this experience. Is it an example of Group Therapy, in a modified brief form? Or is it another example of Group Work? Or is it another example of a practitioner in Group Dynamics at work? Or perhaps it's in-service training? Or you may prefer to say this is simply another example of adult re-education?

As for myself, and until there is more work done and further clarification, I've called this Project-Centered Group Treatment—an eclectic approach, with contributions from Group Therapy—Group Work, Group Dynamics, In-Service Training and Adult Re-education.

Experience in this and other industrial situations suggest a pattern which runs something like this. Management finds itself in an untenable or intolerable situation, and proceeds to make its own diagnosis and write its own prescription for treatment. In the case history I've just reported, management's diagnosis for a condition of low productivity was lack of financial incentive and prescribed a wage incentive plan as treatment. The next thing that happens is that the treatment fails or does not work and frequently the situation gets worse or deteriorates. In our example, you recall, the treatment did fail—the union voted to throw out the wage incentive plan.

At about this point, the consultant is called in and quite often his

examination and analysis lead to the conclusion that what has happened before has been treatment of superficial symptoms rather than the deeper underlying causes. Again, in our example, the deeper and more serious problem on the production floors, was one of *morale* rather than *take-home-pay*.

The next step is to enlist the participation of the indigenous leaders, actual and potential change agents, if you will, in both diagnosis and treatment. Again, referring to our example, the group members were in a professionally controlled situation with ample opportunity to complain and criticize but also to work out a contribution to the solution of their difficulties.

And notice, before long, their activity became crystallized in working on a specific project—the development of a merit Rating Plan which would help clarify for themselves and management, the status of each worker. I need hardly emphasize the importance of knowing where you stand in relation to your job, as a factor in morale.

In conclusion, Project-Centered Group Treatment seems to offer considerable promise in reducing tensions, handling personality conflicts and reconciling what may appear to be the widely varying goals of management and labor. It may be the key to the solution of many difficult and complex administrative and management problems which have been impossible to handle with existing tools and methods.

ROLE PLAYING: AN EFFICIENT TECHNIQUE AT A BUSINESS CONFERENCE

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The central idea of a conference or group discussion is to actively engage the participants into presenting differing points of view in order to advance the understanding level of a problem situation, and so be able to deal effectively with it. In many cases, it is difficult, indeed, to achieve this objective.

An example of this is the suspicion which is aroused when the executives of a company invite its supervisory staff to "talk it over" with them. This request creates certain doubts in the mind of a supervisor who questions the sincerity of the invitation and wonders just what might be openly discussed without threatening his position in the organization.

What is the typical process which takes place as a group moves from "getting together" toward "effective communication"? The conference director attempts to describe the objectives of the meeting; he extends a hearty invitation to speak freely and ends his talk with a question to start the ball rolling. This is met with a few guarded remarks, usually slanted to show how much is already being done. Unless the conference director has other techniques to lead a group discussion, he may as well adjourn the meeting.

A practical consideration of this defect led to experimentation with methods which can reduce the tension this group-setting provokes and increase the flow of ideas which such a meeting should produce. A particular experience, which I'm about to relate, describes how role-playing with a member of the conference and a trained psychodramatist rescued the meeting from stereotype and focused the group warm-up on the major issues facing the company.

At a recent meeting of one of the large retail apparel chains, the top executives were sitting around a conference table with supervisors of the outlet stores, discussing the necessary changes to meet the problems of the coming year. In order to provide a climate conducive to such discussion, the conference director assigned each member to sit in committee with four others, and report back the consensus response to the question "what, in your opinion, is the major obstacle to this firm's successful operation?"

As the spokesman for each group reported, the weak link in the com-

pany's functioning appeared to be the way in which the retail stores were being merchandised. This referred the responsibility for change back to the main office. Contrary to the expectations of the supervisors (who were led to believe that an evaluative session would result from a diagnosis of the firm's ills), the president of the company, hot under the collar, unexpectedly addressed the meeting in much this way:

"You supervisors are passing the buck! This is senseless. In my thirty years in this business, I never heard of a store-manager who didn't think that the answer to every problem was to return all the garments to the warehouse and to fill the racks with fresh salable merchandise. Just remember we can't sell from the warehouse." Abruptly, he sat down. It was like ringing the curtain on the meeting. No one within the organization was able to challenge him. The conference director ameliorated this impasse.

"Let's take a closer look at the store-manager and his role in the organization to see how much he is doing to fulfill his job and what needs to be done about it." A trained auxiliary ego was asked to be a supervisor and a supervisor was cast as a store-manager in his territory. The two stood in front of the meeting and re-enacted a typical encounter. The store-manager exclaimed to the supervisor:

"Am I glad to see you! Here it is the holiday season and my stock is a sorry mess—heavy with small sizes and no high shades or colors. This is awful because my trade is all 'big mama'—what am I to do?"

"What did you do to meet this emergency?" The plan of the auxiliary ego is not merely to picture the past, but to extend the investigation into a picture of the problem, to interpret and clarify the role which is being developed.

In getting down to brass tacks, as it were, the role-playing became a common experience for each of the group members and successfully lifted the barrier caused by the president's outburst. The supervisors were able to "get across" some of their carefully thought out ideas by using the role-playing incident as a point of reference.

Somewhat later in the day of the conference, the store-managers met with the rest of the organization. It didn't take them long to get warmed up to a lively discussion of some of the problems they were running up against in their daily operation. The conference leader encouraged them to talk in story-form to illustrate the problem. When a selling problem arose, the director suggested role-playing, explaining it as a way of sharing their experiences and so increasing their skills. Here is one condensed de-

scription of the use of role-playing in training the selling-skill of the store-managers.

A young girl came into the shop asking for a skirt, looked over the stock and left, promising to return with a blouse she planned to wear with it. On her return visit, the manager did not close the sale. She was out of the proper size in the style selected by the young girl.

The director primed the audience into "better ways to handle this" by pointing out what they had seen, and advised them to look for differences in another approach to this problem. He asked for volunteers. There was a series of them until the most prestigious manager (she ran the most successful unit) offered to show how she conducted herself when the stock showed an incomplete size range in a popular style. What did she do? She sold an idea, that of beauty, first searching for the use the garment was to serve, then finding a suitable substitute.

In the discussion which followed, the realization came that sales skill isn't a "canned talk," but develops out of the uniqueness of the individual, his relationship to the customer, and primarily, his philosophy and attitude toward selling. And role-playing provides a laboratory where each one's methods and techniques can act as a substitute for real-life experiences.

Because the business conference is essentially an organizational structured hierarchy that lowers the spontaneity of the actors, it would seem that the conference director needs more than commonsense to get the wheels of action rolling. He will find it fruitful to be able to conduct role-playing as a starter to involve the group in active participation, or as a method for teaching a specific skill. This, also, requires training. For, while the theory of role-playing is simple, its application is complex and requires a high amount of skill to be effectively employed.

GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY AS ADJUNCT TRAINING IN HANDLING GRIEVANCES

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INTRODUCTION

Generated by a kind of "social conscience" industrial management has accorded increasing attention to that area euphemistically referred to as Human Relations; and, it has even seen fit to venture into fields of endeavor which it formerly considered to be foreign to its interests and needs. From its technological and mechanical orientation industrial management's emphasis has been slowly channeled into a bio-social awareness of the importance of the personal equation; that the individual and his work group are permanent and inexorable sources of both pain and pleasure in industrial life. A most interesting aspect, incidentally, about this awakening of management to the need for "humanizing" its organization along predetermined lines (paralleling technologic improvements of its operations), which can be classified as psychengineering, is the abject failure of the social organization to comprehend the nature and complexity of the problems of management. In effect, the formal organization claims the informal organization suffers from a form of "intellectual myopia," i.e., an inability to perceive the long range issues because of a limited frame of reference. On the other hand, the informal organization charges that the formal organization engages in sundry acts of mental masturbation.

As a consequence neither management nor employees have found a way to successfully bridge their misunderstandings and develop an emphatic response aimed at reducing conflicts and tensions. With the advent of unionism the efforts to understand one another and work in harmony have not been noticeably narrowed; and with each passing year more ways and means for formalizing the avenues of understanding and communication have arisen. And, with each new need or demand a new method, technique or procedure had to be evolved to assist both management and the union in the pursuance of their efforts to more effectively deal with one another: the individual demand has given way to collective bargaining; the informal understanding is now a written contract; the personal gripe becomes a formal grievance, *ad infinitum*.

As a direct result of union-management relations, the grievance has assumed overriding importance as a powerful instrument in labor relations.

Unfortunately, it has also become a means whereby it has been used both injudiciously and with malice as often as not. With an increase in the volume of grievances, concomitantly, management has had to increase its labor relations staff as well as continually train them in the fine art of effectively disposing of grievances.

There are an estimated 100,000 collective bargaining agreements in force today (1). These agreements, with their built-in due process machinery—the grievance procedure and arbitration—protect the personal rights of each worker just as the due process clause and the other articles of the Constitution of the United States protect the personal rights of every citizen. Since a grievance can generally be defined in terms of anything related to the job situation which an employee thinks or feels is wrong—be it either real or imaginary—the grievance machinery is essentially designed to answer problems once they have occurred (6).

CASE BACKGROUND

A large steel company with a long history of labor unrest—work stoppages, work slowdowns, and strikes—found itself facing an increasing number of grievances with each passing year since the war. The past year was an especially turbulent one which eventually culminated in a two week strike because the union claimed over 1000 of their grievances were not satisfactorily disposed of. (Actually, some 600 grievances had been resolved, albeit not to the complete satisfaction of all union officers, with another 400 grievances being in the various steps of the grievance machinery. Nevertheless, 400 grievances is a sizeable number to cope with particularly in view of the fact a sister company with the same labor force had less than one-tenth of that number over the same time span.)

Over the previous four years top management had been changed three times in an effort to find an effective team which could make plant operations profitable and straighten out its labor problems simultaneously. Also, during this period the Labor Relations Director and his staff of ten supervisors conscientiously sought to improve their skills by undertaking both formal and informal means of self and group improvement. Apparently, in spite of all efforts, labor-management relations deteriorated steadily and the labor relations supervisors were being “swamped” with grievances. Each labor relations supervisor was assigned to a given mill, and he was fully responsible for handling all grievances which arose in his bailiwick. The work load became unbearable; it stretched from a 5-day work week into six, and from 40 hours to 60 hours per work week.

OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES AND METHODS

A meeting with the industrial relations executives led to a decision that a new, radically different approach was needed to assist the labor relations staff out of its dilemma. It was determined to work with the attitudes and psychodynamics of each supervisor's *modus operandi* rather than concentrating on the mechanical aspects. Such a course of action necessitated two operational procedures being applied: (1) initially setting up a non-directive, permissive climate of self-examination and self-evaluation, and (2) moving into a more directed, critique-centered direction geared toward re-orienting each supervisor's skills and capabilities. Inherent in these procedures is an application which pertains to education as well as other fields of endeavor: there is a need to build and build upon a solid foundation. If the foundation is solid the superstructure will be secure; if it is weak it can not adequately support the structure built onto it.

One of the essential tasks, therefore, was to acquaint the supervisors with the manner in which they think, feel and behave; then, by means of group discussion and evaluation, to develop insights and awareness into what they do and how they do it so they can take corrective or remedial steps to alter (and improve) their own methods in handling grievances. Once this foundation of how they feel, perceive and react to persons, places, and situations is examined and evaluated, the next step is to move in the direction of strengthening the mechanics of how, both effectively and efficiently, to operate in handling grievances.

The central problem to be faced here was one of having a person learn about himself not as he sees his action but as others do. We do not see things as THEY are but as WE are! This usually involves having the person unlearn something and training or retraining him before a difference in behavior comes about. Furthermore, it was felt that a more expeditious and beneficial therapeutic effect would be evidenced if one's peers acted as the primary agents in propagating change rather than an outsider.

Two weeks prior to the first meeting the Labor Relations Director informed the ten Labor Relations supervisors that a new series of special meetings was to begin and that each man was to come prepared to fully present and discuss a current grievance or one which he had recently handled and was still in the process of being adjudicated. These meetings were to be of two hours duration, after regular working hours, and to be preceded by a dinner in the company dining room.

At the initial meeting the author explained the aims and purposes of

the forthcoming series of meetings, together with outlining a general description of some of the techniques and procedures to be utilized during the course of the meetings. The group was asked for permission to tape record each meeting so each tape could be used to review and evaluate the entire meeting after which the tape would be erased. The training group normally consisted of the Labor Relations Director, the ten supervisors, and the two heads of the Industrial Relations department.

Basically, a less intensive form of group therapy than is conducted in a normal clinical session was called for inasmuch as these supervisors were not disturbed or neurotic. The primary aim of these meetings was to examine critically the skills and capacities these supervisors used in the normal conduct of their affairs, and to suggest remedial and corrective measures which would make the supervisors personally more effective. Such a scope of applications in an industrial environment is almost a rare happenstance, as a search of the literature will reveal (2, 3, 4, 5).

After the initial briefing the author arbitrarily called upon one of the Labor Relations supervisors to stand before the group near a chartpad (which could be used to provide visual assistance in whatever manner the supervisor saw fit), and make his presentation. The room arrangement was such that all participants were seated in a semi-circle with the person making the presentation at the open end of the semi-circle. The time it took to make a complete presentation of the facts behind a grievance together with the supportive evidence, which included records, statements from the principals, work samples, etc., varied with the nature of the grievance, but the mean time was 45 minutes.

After the presentation was concluded each participant was allowed, in turn, to first ask questions and second suggest alternative courses of action, procedures or methods to be employed. (It was agreed by all participants that no interruptions would be permitted during a presentation, but that a question could be asked which served to clarify or explain an obscure, unusual or involved point.) Questions were asked of the supervisor making the presentation in order to obtain information or raise questions pertaining to: (1) unanswered or unclear problems or statements germane to the handling of the grievance; (2) new interpretations or ways of looking at the grievance and what is involved in it; and (3) tying up loose ends or flaws which require additional attention and/or consideration.

After each participant had asked his questions, the next step centered about suggesting different methods or means for handling this particular grievance. If any differences occurred in this step, role-playing was utilized

in an effort to secure a more realistic understanding rather than a mere recital of one's convictions or hunches.

The following phase in the procedure was one of extreme importance because it aimed at crystallizing the entire presentation and discussion into three salient problem areas which were to be answered on the basis of the accumulated fund of information: (1) what are the key issues involved in this grievance and why? (2) what is or should be management's position with respect to these issues and why? and (3) what does the union expect to gain by this grievance, and what implications does it hold for management? In most instances little disagreement was evidenced in conjunction with the first two problem areas, but the third one oftentimes proved difficult to answer. It was at this juncture that one's empathic ability was truly tested by a series of role-playing scenes. These role-playing experiences proved most enlightening and valuable from two standpoints: (1) they revealed the inflexible, obdurate orientation of some of the supervisors, and (2) they opened up some supervisors' eyes to the covert purposes which often underlie the filing of grievances under various sections of the labor contract. (Another interesting finding which was uncovered, and which paralleled what actually occurred in grievance hearings, was the withholding of facts at the first step by the union.)

Up to this point the entire proceeding had been problem-centered with little attention paid to the personality dynamics of the supervisor making the presentation. Therefore, the next order of business was to view the presentation in terms of the personal make-up of the supervisor, and to relate his actions or inactions against a background of his intellectual, emotional and behavioral traits. Here the entire group discussed and evaluated the presentation as to the soundness of the investigation, validity of the evidence, reliability of the witnesses, the feelings and attitudes of the labor relations supervisor, and the like.

From this sort of a personal evaluation a constructive list of the shortcomings of the supervisor and the way he handled the grievance was made, together with follow-up action to be taken, corrective action to be made in view of one's personality failings, and a follow-up report on the nature of improvement made. Finally, the entire meeting was summarized by the author with special attention being devoted to the assessment of both the supervisor's strengths and weaknesses relative to the grievance and his own psychodynamics.

Before the next scheduled meeting the tape recording of the previous meeting was played back and reviewed by the author. This proved to be a

most helpful procedure because these playbacks often led to the isolation and identification of other personality and mechanical shortcomings in the presentation. The presentation of Supervisor Einer provides an excellent illustration. A careful study of his recorded presentation revealed the following findings which were missed by the group, and which were "news" to the supervisor himself: (1) of the 39 questions which were directed at him, he never allowed any of the supervisors to complete their questions before he began to answer back; (2) he invariably reacted defensively to certain key words with alacrity, e.g., "you didn't find out . . .," "shouldn't you have . . ."; (3) he referred to the union or union representatives with the adjective "damned," e.g., "that damned steward," or "this damned union"; (4) his manner in dealing with line employees was always deprecatory and sardonic; and (5) in response to questions, he oftentimes allowed his answer to be both discursive and desultory, seldom getting at the crux of the matter.

CONCLUSION

The use of a group therapy approach in the attempt to understand the relationship between one's personality dynamics and the manner in which he wrestles with job related problems is finding a gradual acceptance in industry. Inherent in this acceptance is the belief that a problem situation can not be parcelled out from the person(s) involved in it. This rationale was tested in a series of meetings with labor relations supervisors in an attempt to cut through a heavy work load of grievances, and after a half year training program, the personal effectiveness of supervisors was increased while the rate of grievance disposition was nearly doubled.

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THE IDEAS TECHNIQUE IN CONFERENCE LEADERSHIP

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The conference leader has a difficult task. Usually, conferees are able, experienced, mature people who tend to be quite critical if a program is not completely satisfactory. Quite differently from college students who are generally docile enough to accept wasting of their time with philosophical resignation, they want and demand material that is meaningful and useful.

Comparing conferences in industry with class room lectures we may say these differences exist:

<i>Industrial</i>		<i>School</i>
Free	<i>versus</i>	Captive
Experienced	<i>versus</i>	Inexperienced
Critical	<i>versus</i>	Accepting
Many alternatives	<i>versus</i>	Few alternatives

The experienced industrial conference leader soon realizes that even the most motivated individuals become restless after an hour or so of sitting, and that after a time, any speaker, no matter how skilled, begins to tire his auditors. For this reason it is common for leaders of conferences to use blackboards and chart pads, slap-cards and slides, tape recordings and films—to vary the diet as it were, to prevent that state of mind that assails conferees—complete blankness.

In our own experience we have been impressed with the value of two other more-or-less well known conference techniques. The first is role-playing and the second is the “buzz” session.

Role-playing when used properly can serve as a living audio-visual device, dramatizing and humanizing the points made by the leader. By changing the pace, it alerts the conferees and gives them something tangible to deal with.

“Buzz” sessions permit the auditors to become speakers, so that every individual in the group may obtain an opportunity to ventilate and contribute his views. If from each group a secretary is taken, this individual can summarize the group’s opinions, and thus, in an economical manner, permit rather complete distribution of information and views.

However, lecturers and conference leaders who have employed these techniques are not always satisfied with them for the following reasons: The use of these methods sometimes gets away from the leader. The group

becomes interested in one aspect of the problem and wants to continue without regard to the leader's well-planned intentions, thus affecting the presentation adversely.

The IDEAS technique, we have found, helps to integrate the need for formal structuring and spontaneous group interaction. Properly used, it results in a meeting which is at the same time interesting and informative.

THE TECHNIQUE

I—Introduction. This consists of the content material, usually in the form of a lecture. The leader introduces and discusses the issue at hand. Also—most important—he states the form of the session—the D-E-A-S parts, and gives the group an approximate time schedule.

D—Demonstration. When he has finished his formal introduction, the leader now has some aspects of the problem demonstrated by two or more people who role-play some scene related to the problem. The leader may provide experienced assistants to role-play, or if necessary, he may give volunteers cards with information on them which will structure the scene or scenes they are to play.

E—Exercise. The third phase of the IDEAS technique consists of the "buzz" session. Here, the members may do two kinds of things: re-role-play the demonstrated situation or other appropriate ones, and discuss the lecturer's presentation or the small group's role-playing.

A—Action. The fourth phase now re-assembles the group, and a number of elements may result:

1. Statements by representatives of the sub-groups, with interaction between them if considered wise.
2. Expositions of the role-playing situations used at the tables before the entire group, with discussions and analyses.
3. Questions from the group and answers from the leader.

S—Summary. Finally, as time comes close to the end, the leader may summarize the session, including his own remarks originally made and whatever material came from the group.

THE LOGIC OF THE TECHNIQUE

It may be noted that the IDEAS technique has a spindle-shape. In I only the leader speaks; in D there are two or more participants; in E, the whole group contributes; in A group representatives and volunteers express themselves; and in S, once again, the leader takes over to summarize.

The logic of this arrangement is evident, and when the system is presented to the group, it gives them assurance that the structure is such that complete satisfaction can occur in terms of openness of the situation. The method has the potentiality of gradually moving the group from spectators to participants to auditors.

The amount of time to be allocated to these five phases is the responsibility of the leader and in a two-hour session, the following distribution seems to work well.

Introduction	— 30 minutes
Demonstration	— 20 minutes
Exercise	— 30 minutes
Action	— 20 minutes
Summary	— 20 minutes

Depending on the content, these proportions can be changed radically, but generally it seems best not to permit the longest segment to be more than twice as long as the shortest segment.

EXAMPLE

We shall now attempt to illustrate how this procedure can be used in a session devoted to leadership patterns, by giving some portions of the material and some of the sequences.

1. "Gentlemen, the topic today has to do with the question of patterns of leadership. All of us know that successful leaders do not use identical techniques. It may be that each one of us has to find a method that suits him best.

"To consider this important issue I propose that we shall proceed as follows: first, I shall speak for about 30 minutes about this issue, trying to give you an understanding of this matter. Then, I shall ask two assistants to role-play one problem between an executive and an employee. They will play the very same role in four ways, to illustrate four patterns of leadership. Third, we shall ask you to break into groups of six, and to discuss what you have seen and heard. In these small groups, you may set up your own scenes and act them out if you wish. Fourthly, at each group you should elect a secretary to report your group's conclusions, and we can have a discussion. Lastly, I shall try to summarize all that has occurred."

"Now if we agree there are possibly hundreds of individual patterns of leadership, we may nevertheless agree that it is possible to determine certain dominant kinds. According to one system, there are four main methods on which I shall concentrate, and which I hope you will analyze and evaluate. They are . . ."

2. "Now, I have asked my two assistants to role-play a leadership situation. First, Bill will use leadership pattern A, and then B, C, and D."

The two assistants (or volunteer members from the entire group) now begin. When the demonstration is finished, the conference leader says:

3. "You have seen Bill play the leader's role four times. Now, I'd like to suggest that you break up into small groups and discuss leadership patterns, keeping into account what I have discussed and what you have seen and heard in the demonstrations. Select a secretary from each group to report back to the group as a whole your comments and questions."

During this period of small group discussion, the leader "visits with" each group, participating when he thinks necessary, but mostly observing. He should distribute his time in a more-or-less equal manner to the separate groups. In some there will be discussion and in others there may occur role-playing situations. About five minutes before the end of this third phase the leader should notify the group that there is about five minutes to go.

4. "Well, gentlemen, can we re-assemble? It's been quite noisy, and I am sure there is a lot to discuss. May I now ask the secretary of the first group to report his own sub-group's point of view. . . ."

In this phase, the leader may spend the time leading the discussion, participating with comments, answering questions, or having those who so indicate demonstrate an issue by role-playing, which in turn may serve as the basis for further discussion.

5. "Let us now attempt to summarize our entire session. I have taken a number of notes and will try to include these issues in my summary."

"As I stated when I began although there evidently are a number of leadership patterns, the question of their relative value, of their specific value to particular situations, and whether some patterns are superior to others for certain individuals is still an open question. However, it seems evident . . ."

DISCUSSION

The IDEAS technique is novel only in that it is a planned arrangement of familiar procedures: a lecture, a demonstration, "buzz groups", reports to the group as a whole by secretaries of the smaller groups, and finally a summarization. It is certain that experienced conference leaders have learned the value of breaking up any long session into sub-parts to attain the objectives of forcefully putting across their messages, and to keep the group alert. However, there seems to be some advantage to having an overall strategy of this type which includes a natural progression, in a spindle-shape manner, from one person doing the presentation through having complete involvement and back to the original lecturer summarizing his and others' material.

INDUCING CREATIVE PRODUCTIVITY IN INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH SCIENTISTS

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Recent trends in scientific discovery and the technological application of these research findings, have greatly increased the importance of the research scientist's role in industry. In some of our largest industries, scientific leadership now seems to be an essential requisite for continued economic well being. It has also become increasingly evident that even our national security and survival might depend upon the capacity of American science to be creative and productive. The scientific creativity necessary to meet these pressing demands is, in the final analysis, incumbent upon the individual research scientist. It is not enough that he have the essential training, skills, aptitudes, and motivation for his job; there must also be a certain added ingredient that is beyond the more conventional job requirements. It is the capacity to conceptualize and apply new, original, and constructively creative ideas in the solution of the increasingly complex and unusual problems of modern industry.

It has become obvious that many research scientists have not been able to respond in a satisfactory manner to this challenge. They have, in some instances, failed to meet the needs and expectations of industrial management in the production of new ideas and scientific discovery. Thus, techniques such as "brainstorming" have found ready, if not eager, acceptance as a partial remedy for this situation. Brainstorming is, basically, a method of utilizing group stimulation for the production of new "uninhibited" ideas or novel approaches to the solution of existing problems. The brainstorming technique might not have been introduced, experienced such widespread popularity, nor been so emphasized by research management if there had been a sufficiently creative approach by most individual research scientists. The sponsorship by management of special training programs dealing specifically with creativity also serves to dramatize this need for more original, and perhaps adventurous, thinking about company problems and objectives. There are even a number of universities that now offer special postgraduate

or conference courses in "creative engineering" for industrial research and development personnel. If those in position of management responsibility feel that something is lacking, perhaps we had better review some of the factors which may have contributed to this situation and determine what remedial or preventive action is indicated.

FROM CLOSET TO GENII

Until recently, the research and development staff of many companies had been assigned a "rear seat" position dealing only with supplementary tasks having to do with product improvement or quality control. Today, the tempo of new scientific and engineering developments has reached a point where the industrial research and development laboratory has suddenly emerged from the status of a luxury of the larger corporations to the "key to the future" of the modern industrial concern. Some corporations claim that a large portion of their current business is in products which were not even thought of ten or fifteen years ago. That is, the consumer products of tomorrow are the research laboratory curiosities of today. This dawning recognition of the potentiality of scientific research has helped to bring it out of the companies' back closet and recast it in the role of a new genii.

In the past decade, there has been a prevailing management philosophy favoring product diversification in place of having all the company's eggs in one basket. It was felt that those new products which could be integrated into existing company facilities were best sought after by researchers who were directed into certain channels of endeavor and whose developments became the property of the company, that is, through a company owned research and development organization. Funds were available because the sound and profitable business picture of the past decade permitted management officials to plow back some of their profits into what seemed like a justifiable investment for the future. In many cases, they have been pleasantly surprised by the pay-off in terms of immediate product improvement and other potentially lucrative contributions to the companies endeavors. With this proven potential, many companies have now come to the conclusion that much of their inherent flexibility and adaptability in meeting new needs and competitive threats probably rests in their research and development departments.

HERO AND SCAPEGOAT

Some companies which found it profitable to accept government contract research proposals were also surprised to find an additional pot-of-gold in subsidiary research findings and a corps of specially trained personnel. But,

it is also a fact that other less fortunate enterprises have recently run into considerable difficulty because they did not keep abreast of improved methods, materials, and technical developments. When, at last, they called upon an inadequate research and development staff for important contributions, they were often disappointed. It must be recognized that modern research is a relatively long term proposition. Perhaps much of the current feeling in regard to scientific creativity is a result of repeated crash programs imposed upon unprepared R&D laboratories. The hurried recommendations and tentative conclusions which resulted might have given good cause for misinterpretation by management as to an inherent lack of productivity, creativity, or utility of the research scientist.

THE PURE AND THE DIRTY

Traditionally, basic or pure research has been accomplished in the universities, whereas industrial research has usually been categorized as developmental or applied; that is, what has often been called practical or "dirty" research as opposed to the "clean" type of carefully controlled research done in the university for the "advancement of science." But in the last few decades, there has been an increasing shift in the proportion of research workers and type of research actually accomplished in industrial and institutional workplaces. A surprising amount of industrial research has become basic or fundamental in character. There are three primary factors which have contributed to this shift. First, industrial products are more complex and marketing more dynamic and competitive. The need for product improvement has given way to the necessity for creating entirely new products, processes, methods and materials. Second, modern scientific research is often dependent upon large scale expensive facilities, instrumentation, and such things as computers for analytical simulation. These just may not be available on the academic campus for reasons of cost or security. Third, there has been a change in emphasis from the individualistic, lone wolf, ivory tower approach supposedly traditional in the academic area to project or team research which utilizes interdisciplinary group effort. Even the project team usually functions with the cooperation, aid and support of a fairly large and well trained research organization. Thus, there have been some very fundamental changes in the character of modern scientific endeavor and the nature of the research effort which must be expended for scientific 'discovery'.

AMERICAN ELABORATIONISM

The relatively small number of American scientists during the nineteenth century were amazingly inventive in meeting the needs of a youthful, vigorous, and rapidly developing country. While there is justifiable pride in American scientific achievements and "know how," there are also frequent complaints that contemporary American science is characteristically involved in the exploitation, technical development, and elaboration of ideas which almost invariably seem to be imported from foreign nationals. Instead of utilizing original and imaginative approaches to scientific problems, it has been stated that our own scientific procedures are so restrictive, proceduralized, and highly structured as to forestall any truly creative research. It is charged that our research training unduly emphasizes a conservative approach which begins by a compulsive searching of the literature, places great reliance upon historical precedent for the solution of current problems, devotes much time and energy to a forced ordering of data into elaborate theoretical systems, and pays great attention to rigid experimental procedures by which hypotheses are tested under carefully controlled conditions. While such an approach seems essential to the development of any true science, it may well be that by overstressing conservative approaches and the problems of methodology, we have defensible security at the price of intellectual flexibility and richness of content. Thus, we may be unable to shed provincial formulations when original points-of-view and new intellectual tools are required. The fundamental question is, therefore, have we so overstressed adequate scientific procedure that we have sacrificed the equally desirable objective of research fruitfulness?

In addition to these situational factors there are influences on a personal level which may have served to diminish the creative potential of our scientists. Traditional in American research is the stereotype of the scientist isolated from family, friends and colleagues, withdrawn and quiescent, who attempts to make discoveries with no real interpersonal collaboration. Many vocational guidance counselors, in fact, consider some inability to work with others and a desire to work by oneself to be a "good sign" of probable success in science. This common stereotype of the research scientist as a professional and social isolate certainly influences the selection of new scientists and leads to a major problem: scientists who may be unprepared or unable to meet the realities of current group project research in industry. The selection of persons capable of making individually creative contributions to a team project is, of course, antithetical to selection in terms of the conventional stereotype of a scientist. Our current academic training

merely reinforces this idea of isolated research. Science students are seldom offered the opportunity to collaborate, but students must individually replicate the old tried-and-true experiments to which there is but one approach, procedure, and answer—an answer which often must remain unaffected by the contributions of error variance. This selection process and the academic training procedures which follow may have fostered group attributes or “traits” which are not really characteristic of “good scientists” but merely reflect a priori selection and intensive training specifically designed to develop these traits.

If an individual is completely satisfied with things as he finds them, he will have little motive to search for new improvements or knowledge, regardless of the incentives which may be offered. In other words, the scientist must be critical in attitude and constructively discontent as a *modus operandi* or essential working method to facilitate the perception of possible alternative solutions or means for improvement. This critical attitude or dissatisfaction must be focussed in a specific area and must be positive in nature so that some definite and potentially helpful action may accrue. This critical attitude may have its inception in an earlier rebellion against parental figures which generalizes to authority and has been focussed in the more acceptable area of systematic repudiation of established scientific “fact.” In one sense, the scientist may have externalized his personal problems and is symbolically seeking emotional release or is engaging in substitutive problem solving behavior. His relentless curiosity and dogged persistence may be symptomatic of an intense need to justify his rebellious or critical attitude by proving the possible validity of his assumptions. This strong motive to succeed and impetus to positive action is a highly desirable prerequisite for scientific productivity.

It is rather difficult for those in positions of management, administrative, or supervisory responsibility to accept anything but forthright organizational conformity from their personnel. All too often, the critical discontent of the research scientist becomes something more than a work habit. It may spread to a general dissatisfaction with the work surroundings, particularly during periods of stress regarding work projects. It is also quite easy to displace critical attitudes onto likely nearby targets as a defensive reaction to the almost inevitable occasions of personal frustration to difficult, abortive, or unsuccessful research effort. This certainly does not promote the harmonious kind of interpersonal relationships which are so desirable in the industrial organization.

Undue pressure for organizational conformity certainly does not provide

the best climate for research since nothing can be so devastating to uninhibited creative thinking as that social pressure which makes the scientist feel uncomfortable for exhibiting any originality. In this situation, the scientist's behavior may become accentuated, resulting in further organizational conflict which reduces his effectiveness and efficiency, causes him to transfer his activities to areas of less conflict, or eventually furnishes cause for termination of employment. To avoid censure, the scientist may arbitrarily constrict the parameters of his research, which concomitantly reduces his potential contribution to the company. To avoid liability, the scientist may reduce the probability of research failure by more conservative and stereotyped efforts of a more defensible nature. Thus, the pressure for conformity and fear of censure or liability actually fosters the research elaborationism in which progress is painfully slow. Perhaps a more important result of adverse research climate is a withdrawal into the protection of the scientist's professional specialty so that communication with other professional groups becomes difficult, the contributions of other fields are excluded from the domain of ingroup activity, interdisciplinary confidence and respect become shaken, understanding of overall problems becomes bogged down, and productive interrelationships become well nigh impossible.

CREATIVITY-INDUCTION TRAINING

Although the situational or environmental factors affecting creativity may be modified to some degree by appropriate managerial decisions, the personal influences are less amenable to such simple and direct action. Individual psychotherapy is far too costly and most group psychotherapeutic procedures are too intensive for the purposes intended. Industrial management is just not oriented toward providing social service activities such as individual psychotherapy for personal problems; and the research scientist generally is not inclined to seek the "treatment" suggested by the term "therapy." A special limited-goal program for remedial training and personnel orientation, utilizing the principles and techniques of group dynamics, is indicated for optimally inducing creative productivity in industrial research scientists.

Such a *Creative-Induction* training program should use specific group role playing procedures such as have been detailed for the Intensive Industrial Role Playing Technique (1, 2). Since the basic situational and personality factors have been outlined in the preceding paragraphs, the group leader or training director should have little difficulty in applying established techniques to meet the unique needs of concern to a particular industrial

enterprise. There are, however, certain principles and goals which should guide the planning and implementation of a Creative-Induction training program. One primary consideration is that any procedure designed to induce a higher level of creativity should avoid major changes in personality adjustment since this, in effect, may reduce certain desirable motivations or create temporary blocks which reduce creativity. Thus, the group process should be consistently creativity-oriented rather than focussed upon personal problems.

The goals of Creativity-Induction training should be limited to:

- (a) Developing personal attitudes conducive to harmonious working relationships among research colleagues on team projects and toward support personnel,
- (b) developing the ability to think in an uninhibited, unrestricted, problem solving manner in a group situation,
- (c) promoting an adequate understanding of the overall problems and objectives of large scale systems research,
- (d) fostering greater appreciation of the necessity for realistic demands by industrial management,
- (e) developing the social and communications skills essential for effective group research,
- (f) fostering the ability to restrict critical attitudes to research areas,
- (g) developing personal acceptance and means of dealing with the stress and failures associated with more ambitious research endeavors,
- (h) increasing personal motivation for research in areas most advantageous in terms of company goals.

Creativity-Induction training will also provide the necessary preliminary training in creative group interaction to permit brainstorming sessions to be maximally effective. Thus, Creativity-Induction training is not a substitute for brainstorming, but is an effective complement to this specific technique. It may be used as a selection device in the formation of special high prestige brainstorming groups. If such special high prestige brainstorming groups were to be formed, it would provide an extra incentive or reward for those undertaking the Creativity-Induction training.

In summary, there is a real and important crisis in American science; it is the apparent lack of scientific creativity and inability of the research scientist to function effectively in group research projects. Many of the causative factors may be corrected by specific action on the part of industrial management and by some rather fundamental changes in the academic training of our scientists. However, there are certain personal characteristics

of scientists which should receive special remedial attention if the full creative potential of American scientists is to be achieved. Specifically, it is recommended that special Creativity-Induction training programs be established to foster greater creativity in our industrial research scientists.

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ROLE PLAYING IN INDUSTRY

MITCHELL GORDON

The Wall Street Journal, New York City*

Sometime early next month, 35-year-old Anthony Chevins, a Phi Beta Kappa graduate of Syracuse University in 1947, will take up his post at the northeast corner of 50th Street and Broadway—and begin hawking newspapers.

Mr. Chevins is supervisor of the New York *Daily News* account with the Madison Avenue advertising firm of Cunningham & Walsh, Inc. His paper-selling endeavors, which will last three days, are intended to sharpen his appreciation of why people buy—and don't buy—the New York tabloid.

Mr. Chevins' exploit differs from the usual market research. If routine knowledge of the market were all Mr. Chevins sought, he could have gained his objective more easily by asking a few questions of buyers and sellers of the *Daily News*. But he wanted to get the "feel" of actually selling the papers himself, not just a report of the feelings of those who did so. More than anything else, he was after a point of view.

Insights Into Others

The concept, "role-playing," is a simple one. It is supposed to provide the player with an insight into another person's point of view by having the player act out the other person's part—either in real life, as Mr. Chevins is doing, or in make-believe.

The American Management Association, which started teaching the technique to businessmen in January, 1955, this year has close to 2,500 executives slated for instruction in the theory and practice of role-playing. That's almost ten times as many as it put through last year. "We think it's one of the most important communications techniques we can teach," asserts Harold Schmidhauser, director of the A.M.A.'s executive action course.

An increasing number of business concerns nowadays are employing the role-playing device in one form or another. Royal McBee Corp. of Port Chester, N. Y., for example, uses role-playing to help raise production standards. The J. L. Hudson department store in Detroit favors it for improving customer relations. Pittsburgh's Gulf Oil Corp. trains supervisors with the role-playing technique. And one concern has used it successfully to clear up what was once a chronic 5 p.m. quitting-time jam on the elevators.

* Reprinted from and with the permission of *The Wall Street Journal*, March 15, 1957.

Selling Effectiveness

J. L. Hudson thinks enough of role-playing to put most of its 8,000-or-so employes through one-day clinics a couple of times a year, mainly to improve selling effectiveness. One of the standard role-playing situations has one member of the class acting the part of a customer looking for a new hat, another as her friend, to whom nothing looks good, and a third as the actual sales person attempting to cope with the kibitzer and still ring up a hat sale.

Gerald P. Kent, manager of the store's special events section, says a situation of this kind "does at least two things. It puts the sales person's fashion knowledge to the test without making her feel defensive about it and it also tests her ability to deal with a very common problem in human relationships on the sales floor, the mere playing out of which can substantially lower the temperature of the real situation when and if it ever does come up."

There is a type of role-playing known as "stacked role-playing" or "mass doubling" that permits a great many members to participate in the single episode. In this form, players are substituted frequently while the episode is being played.

Though it is used mostly in commercial and industrial life for the training of personnel, the role-playing technique can prove useful for tackling a great many other problems as well. For example, William Mosher, director of service engineering for Royal McBee Corp.'s data processing equipment division, notes that manufacturing people "aren't always kindly disposed" to the complaints of field office representatives on the condition of merchandise received from the factory. "There's a tendency," says he, "to write off complaints of improperly adjusted tabulator mechanisms, for example, to shipping or to too much fault-finding by people in the field."

Supervisors Assembled

To overcome this difficulty, Mr. Mosher relates, Royal McBee one day assembled its plant supervisors in a conference room and had them play the roles of field office representatives who were about to take those machines out of their shipping cartons. No chance of shipping damage here—the cartons *hadn't* yet been shipped. Each machine then was checked on points of complaint by one supervisor while the others looked on. "It was really amazing to see the difference later," says Mr. Mosher. "That exercise," he adds, "did more than all the written reports and exhortations from on high."

General Electric Co. uses a form of role-playing known as the "chain-loss" to drive home to its foremen, executives and other supervisory personnel the danger of relying on word-of-mouth communication on matters of any import. It works like this: One member is selected from the group and is given a picture to study in private for two minutes. He then describes the picture to another member of the group in private, this member describes it to another and so forth, until the final member is told what the picture shows. The group usually consists of between 10 and 20 individuals. The final member describes the picture to the group, after which the actual picture is flashed on a screen for all to see.

One picture shows the interior of a subway car. A poorly-dressed white man is brandishing a knife in an argument with a well-dressed negro. Sitting nearby is a Jewish rabbi; in the background, a blonde with a baby. A G.E. executive reports that the final description often sounds like this: "It's a picture of a blonde with a baby, apparently her own."

Moral, as far as this G.E. official is concerned: If you're going to report something to others, don't trust your memory but take notes of what actually is seen.

An Unruly Worker

A plant foreman with Rohm & Haas Co. of Philadelphia had trouble with a good but unruly worker who liked to blow his top every now and then. One day the foreman simply escorted the dissident worker into a private office where a tape recorder was hidden. When the worker finished his harangue, the foreman pulled the tape recorder out, placed it on a table and said, "All right, John. Now you make believe you're me. How would you answer this sort of thing?" He turned the machine on. John sat through the session, then asked for the tape to be erased. He hasn't raised his voice to this foreman since.

A.M.A.'s instruction in role-playing is provided in special three-day communications "clinics" and also during its three-week executive action sessions. A typical practice performance will find as many as 40 or 50 diverse executives wearing little green placards around their necks, the cards bear make-believe names and roles they're to play day and night for nearly three days. A group that met earlier this year included an official from the Port of New York Authority, the president of a Canadian tile-making company, the office manager of a Virginia laundry concern, and the treasurer of a Tennessee research organization.

Role-playing has even helped the "blind" to see. When one executive

interviewed job applicants blindfolded, he found he had been discriminating against bald-headed candidates who were fully qualified in every respect.

Generally credited with fitting the role-playing technique to useful adult purposes is a Viennese doctor currently living in the upstate New York town of Beacon. As a student at the Psychiatric University Clinic of Vienna in 1911—when Sigmund Freud, father of psychoanalysis, still was only an associate professor there—young Jacob L. Moreno spent many hours in a public park (the famous Augarten) amusing children and picking up pointers on their behavior by having them play roles in make-believe situations.

Jacob's Mishap

The technique was familiar to the 20-year-old medical student. As a small boy, he would often play God and His angels, piling chairs atop a wooden table to serve as God's throne. Once, when young Jacob was playing God, someone suggested that he try to fly. He did—and broke his right arm.

Shortly after his graduation from the University in 1921, Dr. Moreno organized a "theatre of spontaneity" in Vienna for the purpose of helping people overcome psychological handicaps—teaching them, for example, how to relax before an audience. His students were accommodated in a small theatre near the Vienna opera house and paid a nominal fee for the privilege of conducting their own therapeutic shows. Among Dr. Moreno's early students were performers that were later to become famous, such as actor Peter Lorre.

Dr. Moreno's first application of role-playing to the business world came in 1933. As director of research for the New York City Department of Welfare, he helped set up at Hudson, N. Y., a school for delinquent girls between the ages of 12 and 30. Purpose of the school was to prepare the girls for responsible roles in society as salesgirls, maids, and the like. A number of concerns, among them Macy's department store in New York City, sought details on Dr. Moreno's apparently effective training technique. It wasn't long before many business organizations and other institutions were using the technique for a considerable variety of ends.

Neither Dr. Moreno nor the technique of role-playing meet with universal acclaim. One industrial relations chief says the technique is too "artificial" for broad application. Another criticizes it for being "too time-consuming." But most executives familiar with role-playing seem to think it can be used to advantage—and some are downright enthusiastic.

During the coming year, for example, most Cunningham & Walsh staff members will be putting in stints "in the field" similar to that of Mr.

Chevins. They will sell gasoline at Texaco stations, Decca records in musty music shops, Colgate-Palmolive Super Suds in crowded supermarkets and steamship cruises over sedate travel agency counters. "The main thing we're interested in," says Jerome Cowen, head of the program, "is in getting out and seeing how the goods we're trying to promote are actually sold at the consumer level."

The men from Cunningham & Walsh have been practicing the role-playing technique since 1945. What they have learned? Mustached Mark Mitchell, an account executive who late last year spent a week selling steamship cruises at Thomas Cook & Son's Fifth Avenue office, cites an observation he made during the course of that experience: "Some 90% of the people who finally buy these cruises are women. So we're going heavier on the fashions side of sailing in promoting these cruises and easier on what might interest men more, like what the ship looks like at sea."

DEFINITIONS OF GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY

Definition 1: "A method which protects and stimulates the self-regulating mechanism of natural groupings. It attacks the problem through the use of one man as the therapeutic agent of the other, of one group as the therapeutic agent of the other." From *Application of the Group Method to Classification*, p. 104, 1932.

Definition 2: "The groups function for themselves and the therapeutic process streams through their mutual interrelationships." From the same publication, p. 61.

Definition 3: "Group psychotherapy is the result of well calculated, spontaneous therapy plus proper social assignment. . . . The leader is within the group, not a person outside." Same publication, p. 94.

Definition 4: "Group therapy will be advantageous for persons who do not recover by themselves or through some form of psychological analysis or medication, but only through the interaction of one or more persons who are so coordinated to the patient that the curative tendencies within are strengthened and the disparaging tendencies within checked, so that he may influence the members of his group in a similar manner." Ibid., p. 97.

Definition 5: "Spontaneous formation of social groups based on the enthusiasm of the participants or on common interests and aims achieves often miraculous results, but cannot be called grouping in our sense as most of the interrelations remain unanalyzed." Ibid., 1932, p. 72.

Definition 6: "Group psychotherapy treats not only the individual who is the focus of attention because of maladjustment, but the entire group of individuals who are interrelated with him." *Who Shall Survive?*, 1934, p. 301.

Definition 7: "A truly therapeutic procedure cannot have less an objective than the whole of mankind." Ibid., p. 3.

DEFINITIONS OF THE TRANSFERENCE-TELE RELATION

There is a tendency to ascribe many irrational factors in the behavior of therapists and patients in group situations to transference and counter-transference.

I. It takes *tele* to choose the right therapist and group partner, it takes transference to misjudge the therapist and to choose group partners who produce unstable relationships in a given activity.

II. The greater the temporal distance of an individual patient is from other individuals whom he has encountered in the past and with whom he was engaged in significant relations, direct or symbolic, the more *inaccurate* will be his perception of them and his evaluation of their relationship to him and to each other. The dynamic effect of experiences which occur earlier in the life of an individual may be greater than the more recent ones but it is the inaccuracy of perception and the excess of projected feeling which is important in transference; in other words, he will be less perceiving the effect which experiences have on him the older they are and less aware of the degree to which he is coerced to project their images upon individuals in the present.

III. The greater the social distance of an individual patient is from other individuals in their common social atom, the more inaccurate will be his evaluation of their relationship to him and to each other. He may imagine accurately how A, B, C whom he chooses feel towards him, but he may have a vague perception of how A feels about B, A feels about C, B feels about A, B feels about C, C feels about A, or C feels about B. (Analogous to transference we may call these vague, distorted sociometric perceptions—"transperceptions.") His transperceptions are bound to be still weaker or blank as to how people whom he has never met feel for E, F, or G, or for A, B, or C or for how these individuals feel about each other. The only vague line of inference he could draw is from knowing what kind of individuals A, B, and C are.

IV. The degree of instability of transference in the course of a series of therapeutic sessions can be tested through experimental manipulation of the suggestibility of subjects. If their sociometric status is low, they will be easily shaken up (sociometric shock) by a slight change, actual or imagined, in the relationships of the subjects around him. It is evident that transference has, like *tele*, besides psychodynamic, also sociodynamic determinants.

BOOK REVIEW

"SOCIOMETRY IN THE CLASSROOM," BY NORMAN E. GRONLUND

Sociometry in education has long needed a text-book. This need has now been met by *Gronlund's Sociometry in the Classroom*. Teachers will find this book well organized, clearly written, and filled with practical suggestions.

The volume is divided into three parts, the first dealing with methods in sociometric testing; the second with the meaning of sociometric results and is chiefly concerned with the issues of reliability and validity and with various correlates of sociometric scores; while the third part points out how sociometric data may be utilized in helping to solve a wide range of educational problems.

In considering sociometric testing Gronlund makes it clear that these test results merely identify a present social situation and do not tell why any particular situation exists or what should be done about it. He considers this to be a necessary and important contribution, but makes it clear that this contribution must be supplemented by other diagnostic measures and by corrective procedures such as conferences and grouping when some social problems are revealed by the sociometric testing.

The author stresses the importance of well selected choice-criteria in sociometric studies, and emphasizes the advantages of criteria which are functional in particular class situations as opposed to such general questions as "Whom do you like best?" or "Who are your friends?" However, he prefers criteria which have considerable generality and stability such as work companions, play companions, and seating companions. For recording sociometric data Gronlund points out the particular advantages of the matrix chart and of the target diagram (with only mutual choices shown), but briefly describes other forms and devices.

In considering some typical characteristics of sociometric data found in school populations the point is made that about two-thirds of pupils receive less than their proportionate share of choices, that there are more pupils of very low than of very high choice-status, and that these conditions are not much affected by different choice-criteria nor by increasing the number of choices allowed. On all grade levels there is a strong tendency for both sexes to choose others of like-sex, and this tendency is stronger among girls than among boys.

The author makes it clear that none of the sociometric findings reported should be regarded as norms or as necessarily representing desirable condi-

tions. However, sociometric testing should reveal *desired* social relationships on the part of the pupils—not actual relationships.

The stability of sociometric positions among children in school groups is generally fairly high—many test-re-test correlations being in the 60's, 70's, and 80's. This stability is affected by numerous factors, such as time-interval between tests, age-level of subjects, nature of the choice criteria, number of choices asked for, and the extent to which socializing experiences are introduced between test and re-test. The stability or reliability of sociometric scores becomes a matter of importance chiefly when judgments or predictions are going to be made relative to a child's social adjustment within a particular group.

The validity of sociometric scores is considered in a comprehensive and critical manner. These scores are shown to correlate fairly well with observations of overt behavior, with teachers' judgments, with adult ratings of social adjustments, with reputation among peers, and less well with self-ratings and findings from projective tests. This material should be of real help to teachers in understanding how to interpret personal and social significance of data obtained from sociometric measurements.

Chapter 7 is devoted to pointing out relationships between sociometric results and a wide range of personal and social factors such as intelligence, physical skills, interests, personality traits, broken homes, family size, and proximity of residence. Although the author makes some pertinent comments about different findings being due to particular group situations, it seems likely that teachers would be helped more by this material if more attention had been devoted to describing the kinds of social-psychological conditions within groups which help to explain diversity of findings on the above topics.

In chapters 8 and 9 many practical suggestions and procedures for using sociometric data in schools are described and briefly evaluated. These include sociometric grouping, teacher-pupil planning, use of story materials, role-playing, conferences with pupils and with parents, coaching in special skills, and efforts to modify group attitudes. This material is clearly and definitely presented but not much attention is paid to general psychological or sociological principles involved in the procedures or suggestions offered. Perhaps the author was limited on space; however this may be, there is a need to integrate sociometric data with the principles and concepts involved in interactions between members of groups, with factors basic to behavior change, with personal and social factors influencing inter-personal preferences, with the influence of self-adjustments on social adjustments, and

with the importance of such learning principles as reinforcement and selective perception. This book would have greater coherence and more significance for its readers if a much more clearly defined statement has been made on *why* people are attracted to each other.

In his last chapter Gronlund shows how sociometry can be used in action research for arriving at more reliable answers to a wide range of school problems including those bearing on discipline and on the early identification of potential leaders and potential delinquents.

Probably the greatest asset of this book is that it presents for the first time to teachers a well condensed and very readable account of sociometric research during the past twenty years, and points out numerous applications of these findings to school problems. Its greatest weakness appears to be the lack of integration of sociometric findings with pertinent concepts or principles in psychology, sociology, and educational philosophy.

MERL E. BONNEY
North Texas State College
Denton, Texas

IN MEMORIAM

J. W. KLAPMAN, M.D.

1898-1959

Dr. Klapman was a Fellow of the American Psychiatric Association, a member of the American Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama, and a contributing editor of the journal *GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY*, the author of *Group Psychotherapy* published by Grune & Stratton, first edition 1946, second edition 1959. Dr. Klapman was one of the most active exponents and organizers of the group psychotherapy movement in the USA. His name will be particularly remembered in connection with the development of social therapeutic clubs of patients, Resurgo Associates, and Textbook-Mediated group psychotherapy.

He was a quiet man but an intensive thinker, an honest appraiser of old and recent trends of group psychotherapy. It must have been a profound consolation to his spirit that he could live to see published the revised edition of his excellent book *Group Psychotherapy*, shortly before he passed on.

AMERICAN SOCIETY OF GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY AND
PSYCHODRAMA

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Michigan Institute

A workshop is planned over the Decoration Day Weekend, May 30 and 31, 1959, at the Statler Hilton Hotel, Detroit. Reservations: Dr. Robert S. Drews, Director, 12500 Broadstreet Blvd., Detroit, Michigan. The theme, "The Therapeutic Community."

Annual Meeting of the Society, May 1960, New York City

The meeting is now being planned. It will take place at the Commodore Hotel. Papers are now being solicited for this meeting. Mail papers to: P.O. Box 311, Beacon, N. Y.

OPEN LETTER TO OFFICERS AND MEMBERS—AMERICAN
SOCIETY OF GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY AND
PSYCHODRAMA

FROM: DR. LEWIS YABLONSKY, *President*

A number of aspects of our rapidly developing and expanding Society require closer appraisal, planning and action. To facilitate this growth of our Society in a direction which reflects a consensus of membership opinion, I would like to personally invite greater participation on your part in the affairs of our Society.

The areas of our Society's development which demand attention at this time (as indicated by many of our members) include the following:

- (1) Accrediting and Training of Group Psychotherapists, and Psychodramatists.
- (2) Characteristics of our current membership and future planning for expansion.
- (3) Interprofessional relations (a further definition of our relationship, present and future, to other societies in the social science and practice area).
- (4) A re-examination of our constitution to determine its relevancy to our contemporary situation.
- (5) The status, size and general condition of State Chapters and their relationship to the National Organization.
- (6) The further development of Society Publicity and Public Relations.

As indicated the foregoing seem to be the most pressing current issues and areas of concern. There are probably many others, which I am hopeful you will bring to my attention.

It is apparent that one person or even a few dedicated members of our society can not carry the full burden of work required in the areas indicated as requiring action. To expedite movement I am appointing a number of committees to examine each of these areas and produce preliminary and final statements which will be useful for policy making. In certain instances these conclusions will be embodied in our constitution as a more permanent part of our society's structure.

(1) I am directing the committee chairman to examine the area in their charge with committee members (including any opinions made available by our general membership) and to produce a preliminary report which will be disseminated to our total society membership prior to our Spring, 1960 meeting.

(2) On the first day of the 1960 meeting, early in the program, at a convenient time, I plan to direct an open psychodramatic discussion of each issue.

(3) We will then distill a number of action plans, which I will actively support for executive committee action.

I have purposely not defined the six areas in explicit detail. This I leave to committee chairmen and our membership.

I urge each member to actively participate in the work of these committees. The issues involved are not vagaries. They are real conditions which will shape the development and direction of our Society in fostering progress in group psychotherapy and psychodrama.

Below is the list of committee chairmen and committee members I plan to appoint. If you are a Society member and wish to participate as a committee member, I urge you to contact the appropriate Chairman. I am advising all chairmen to accept your participation.

Committee on Training and Accreditation

Chairman, James Enneis, M.A., Washington, D. C.
Jack Ward, M.D., Princeton, New Jersey
Earl Loomis, M.D., Union Seminary
Robert Drews, M.D., Detroit, Mich.

Committee on Membership Planning

Chairman, Martin R. Haskell, Ph.D., New York City
Adaline Starr, Chicago
A. Bassin, Ph.D., New York City
A. Smith, Ph.D., New York City
Joseph Meiers, M.D., New York City

Committee on Interprofessional Relations

Chairman, Sol Levine, Ph.D., Boston, Mass. (Sociologist)
Leonard Maholick, M.D., Columbus, Ga.
(Psychiatrist)
Herbert A. Otto, Athens, Ga. (Psychologist)
Eugene Eliasoph, M.S., Massachusetts (Social Worker)

Committee on Constitutional Amendments

Chairman, Zerka Moreno, President-Elect, Beacon, New York
J. L. Moreno, Past President, Beacon, New York
Martin R. Haskell, Ph.D., New York, N. Y.
Hannah B. Weiner, Secretary-Treasurer,
Brooklyn, N. Y.

Committee on State Chapters

Chairman, Hannah B. Weiner, Exec. Secretary, New York City
Nahum Brind, Ph.D., Los Angeles, Calif.
Ted Franks, M.A., Chicago, Ill.

Committee on Public Relations

Chairman, Henry Feinberg, M.S., Detroit, Mich.
Hannah B. Weiner, M.A., New York City

Committee on International Relations

Chairman, Robert Drews, M.D., Detroit, Mich., Past President
Raoul Schindler, M.D., University of Vienna
H. Kreidler, Ph.D., Israel
A. Friedemann, M.D., Switzerland

ACADEMY OF GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY AND PSYCHODRAMA

First Academy, July 3-24, 1959

The Academy was attended by sixty participants representing many states and numerous countries as France, Belgium, Japan, Turkey. It was sociometrically organized from the start so that the participants could study the progress of their own relations. The range of training included four main aspects: (1) The private world of every participant, psychodramatically explored, (2) Training in the job situation of every participant, (3) Didactic sessions and (4) Rehearsal of the future and return to one's own community.

A special brochure is in preparation. For further information write to: Academy of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama, Moreno Institute, Beacon, N. Y.

Christmas Academy, December 26, 1959-January 8, 1960

Enrollments are now being taken for the Academy to be held during the Christmas vacation period, for two weeks.

Thanksgiving Workshop, November 26-29, 1959

This is being conducted as usual; enrollments are now being taken.

July 1960 and August 1960 Academies

Because of the enthusiastic response to the Academy of 1959, two summer Academies are being scheduled for next year, each of three weeks duration. Enrollments may be made now so as to secure good accommodations.

Certificates of Attendance

Participants obtain a Certificate of Attendance issued by the Academy.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

Organized Group Psychotherapy in Austria

In the country in which group psychotherapy originated, a Society of Group Psychotherapy has been formed under the name "Österreichischer Arbeitskreis für Gruppentherapie und Gruppendynamik." It has already a membership of 70 specialists and is divided into three sections: (1) Doctors of Medicine under the direction of Dr. Strotzka and Dr. Berner; (2) Social Psychologists under the direction of Dr. Rosenmayr and Dr. Lindner; and (3) a further section for Law and Social Work under the direction of Dr. Doleisch and Dr. Rotter. The secretary is Dr. R. Schindler, the foremost pioneer and exponent of group psychotherapy in Austria. Write to Psychiatr.-Neurol. Univ. Klinik, Lazarettgasse 14, Wien IX, Austria. Dr. Schindler and Dr. Strotzka are contributing editors of the International Section of our journal *GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY*. We will report from time to time about the development of group psychotherapy and group dynamics in Austria which is the first country on the European continent to start an organized group psychotherapy society.

Music Therapy in Germany

For the first time in German speaking countries a five-day course in Music Therapy in the Doctor's Practice will be held, as part of the International Autumn Course in Homoeopathy and Natural Therapy, in Velden, Wörther See, Austria, from 14th to 23rd of September, 1959. The 20th September will be devoted entirely to the subject "Music in Medicine," with lectures and courses by Dr. E. Haisch (Reichenau), Dr. H. J. Jaedicke (Hahnenklee), Dr. K. F. Blanke (Bad Salzuflen), Dr. H. R. Teirich and Dr. H. Teirich-Leube (Freiburg/Breisgau), as well as the Professor of Music, Berta Ernst (Vienna). Enquiries are gladly received by Prof. Dr. K. Saller, Anthropolog. Inst. der Universität, München, Germany and Dr. H. R. Teirich, Psychiatrist, Sautierstr. 54, Freiburg/Br., Germany.

L'Evolution Psychiatrique

The recent issue of this old and well established psychiatric journal under the editorship of Dr. Henri Ey, Hôpital Psychiatrique, Bonneval, France, contains important articles especially on schizophrenia and should be of interest to American readers.

Journey to Soviet Russia of J. L. and Zerka Moreno

During September 1959, J. L. Moreno will give lectures and demonstrations in German universities, as Hamburg, W. Berlin, Hannover, Göttingen,

Marburg, Heidelberg and Stuttgart. He will speak at the Czechoslovak Psychiatric Congress as a guest of honor of the Czechoslovakian government and will give lectures before Psychiatric societies in Warsaw and Krakow. He will attend the Pavlov Institute in Leningrad and appear before the Psychological Institute in Moscow and the Moscow Art Theatre.

New Books of Interest

The Sociometry Reader, edited by J. L. Moreno with Helen H. Jennings, Joan Criswell, Charles Loomis, and other leading sociometrists; published by the Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois, cca 800 pages, \$9.50, now in press. Publication date: October 1, 1959. Write to the Free Press for descriptive literature.

Gruppenpsychotherapie und Psychodrama, by J. L. Moreno, his first book written in original German since 1923; published by Georg Thieme Verlag, Stuttgart, 350 pages, now in press. Publication date: September 1, 1959. American edition of this book to be published by Grune & Stratton under the title *Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama*. Publication date: May 1, 1960.

SOCIAL FORCES

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