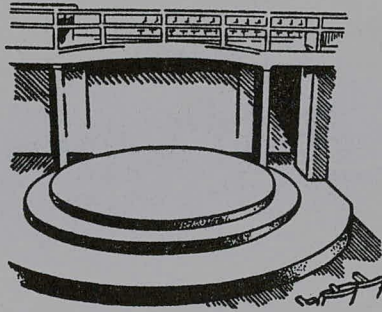


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INTERPERSONAL PSYCHOLOGY OF RELIGION*

MORENO AND BUBER

PAUL E. JOHNSON

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How do psychologists understand religious behavior? To reduce the welter of theories into a square of opposition, we may note four contemporary points of view in dialectic relation to each other.

1. FOUR PSYCHOLOGIES

First, there is the conflictual theory which sees man as a profoundly complex personality, who is caught in the distress of internal contradictions, struggling desperately to resolve conflicts and come to a reconciling position of productive maturity. This is the view of Freud (7) and he offers psychoanalysis as a therapy to unify the unconscious conflicts and painful fragmentation of life. He looks on religion as an obsessional neurosis seeking to relieve inner anxiety and guilt of the family romance (Oedipus) through reconciliation with a father symbol. The depth of the conflict is affirmed by Boisen (3), and the cure he finds is a religious conversion whereby a person becomes responsibly related to larger loyalties.

Second, there is the collective theory which also rises from conflicts, yet sees them as complementary tendencies capable of mutual support when integrated into larger wholeness. This is the view of Jung (9) in his psychology of the collective unconscious. To him the religious thrust is an overpowering invasion of psychic energy from the collective unconscious, whose mysterious meaning is to be discovered in archetypes or universal symbols, appearing in many cultures as racial memories to inform and guide the individual as he wrestles with his destiny to fulfill the hidden potentialities of his being.

Third, there is the personalistic theory which is dubious of all collectivism that submerge the uniqueness of the individual, and of all instinctual or segmental views that would reduce him by causal determinism to a lesser creature of the past. This is the protest of Allport (1, 2), who holds that the direction of the growing person is forward, and his business is to overcome the blocks which arrest his becoming, thus to move into effective maturity by new motives to replace former ones. The religious sentiment may be in-

*Reprinted from "Interpersonal Psychology of Religion," by Paul E. Johnson, with permission of author and of Abingdon Press, New York-Nashville, 1959.

strumental to effective maturing by outreaching neurotic aggressions in response to an all-embracing system of values. Mature religious behavior follows conscious intention to worthy goals by orientation to the future.

Fourth, there is interpersonal theory which finds the distinctive nature of man in his encounter with other persons. This is what personalistic psychology overlooks in its effort to explicate the uniqueness of the individual. It is what collectivism loses in the mass which submerges the individuality recaptured and enriched by the relation of person to person. It is what conflictual psychoanalysis misses in viewing man "from the bottom up," as a product of infantile and primitive wants. It is what interpersonal dialogue addresses as I confronting Thou in the decisive relation of the present moment.

2. THE INTERPERSONAL THEORY OF MORENO

The interpersonal theory is a vigorous counterthrust to each of the three theories, redirecting and extending dynamic principles inherent in them. A frontiersman who contributed to the development of interpersonal psychology is Jacob Levy Moreno (1892-). He was born in Bucharest, Rumania, the first of six children, three boys and three girls. His father, a merchant, and his mother, a housewife, were Sephardi, or Spanish Jews, and his mother tongues were Spanish and Rumanian. At the age of four he went to Bible school and began to read the Bible in Hebrew. When he was six, his family moved to Vienna, and there he learned German and attended public school and the university, where he pursued studies in philosophy, theology, and mathematics before turning to medicine and completing the doctor's degree in 1917. While a medical student he was a research assistant of the Psychiatric Clinic at the University of Vienna, and in the year 1911 he met Freud and attended one of his lectures. But the analytic reductionism of Freud left him cold, for he was already moving in another direction.

Moreno recognized the deep conflicts of life, but to him they demand a creative solution in religious dimensions. He was not satisfied with the religious institutions which were preoccupied in conserving the traditions of the past but was more impressed by the dramatic dialogue of Jesus and Socrates. His idea of God was of the Creator on the first day of creation, acting spontaneously to bring into being a new world. And spontaneity became to him the basic principle motivating behavior in creative action. With this as the revolutionary principle to change life from confining rigidity to creativity, he saw the need of a new religious movement employing the new discoveries of science.

In the spring of 1914 Moreno published in Vienna the first of a series of poetic writings entitled *Einladung zu einer Begegnung* (*Invitation to an Encounter*), which is evidently the first literary definition of encounter, the concept which has become central in the existentialist movement. To describe the encounter, he portrays two persons exchanging eyes to comprehend and know each other:

A meeting of two: eye to eye, face to face.

And when you are near I will tear your eyes out and place them instead of mine, and you will tear my eyes out and will place them instead of yours, then I will look at you with your eyes and you will look at me with mine (11).

The literary magazine *Daimon*, of which he was the editor, carried in the February issue, 1918, a dramatic dialogue by Moreno entitled "Einladung zu einer Begegnung: Die Gottheit als Autor" ("Invitation to an Encounter: The Godhead as Author"). In this article (page 6) appears the term "interpersonal communication" ("zwischenmenschlichen Verkehr"). The term "interpersonal relations," which Robert MacDougall (10) used in 1912, came to prominence in his book *Who Shall Survive* (1934) (14) and in the journal he founded in 1937, *Sociometry: A Journal of Interpersonal Relations*. During the years 1918-20 Martin Buber was a contributing editor of *Daimon*, and his articles appeared side by side with Moreno's, prophetic of the role each would have in the history of interpersonal theory. The I-Thou concept of God was the keystone of the interpersonal arch as documented in their publications of 1920-23. *Das Testaments des Vaters*, 1920 (*The Words of the Father*) (13), contains dialogues of direct address in the form of Ich und Du. Buber's *Ich und Du* (1923) (4) is the definitive statement of the I-Thou relationship.

Moreno is best known for his pioneer work in sociometry, psychodrama, and group therapy (1911). What is not so well known and yet is clearly stated in his writings is that the basic motivation for all of his work is religious. "The theory of interpersonal relations is born of religion." Sociometry (the psychological and experimental measurement of interpersonal relations) he began first with a community of displaced persons at Mitterndorf near Vienna, 1915-17. The classic study he conducted at the Hudson (New York) Training School for Girls, 1932-36, during which the essential concepts and procedures of this science were developed (14). Here the sociometric test invited the girls to decide with whom they would and would not like to live, and the psychological currents were shown in sociograms. In

this way the emotional dynamics of group life were revealed and therapy for personal needs was provided.

Psychodrama had its beginning in Vienna with the Theater of Spontaneity (12), which Moreno first conducted in 1921. He found the legitimate theater stifled by the practice of giving the actor lines to memorize written by another, to portray a character which he was not, on a shrouded stage with the audience in darkness. He invented the open stage in the center of the room with access from the audience all around. His theater invited actors and audience to portray their own dramatic situations from the here and now, and to speak impromptu, without written lines, in response to one another. He perceived this as a kind of dramatic religion, a theater to call forth the spontaneously creative self and learn with God what it means to be a creator. This became the therapeutic theater to heal the distresses and conflicts of the inner life by allowing the patient to act them out in the face-to-face encounter of psychodrama. This method has been widely used in schools, churches, and hospitals to provide catharsis, role learning, and the working through of individual and social dilemmas.

3. THE INTERPERSONAL THEORY OF BUBER

The interpersonal theory of man has come to further development in the work of Martin Buber (1878-). While Moreno has been at work with interpersonal relations in psychiatry and the social sciences, Buber has been pioneering a philosophical anthropology of I and Thou. He was born in Vienna, fourteen years before Moreno, in the year 1878, of a famous Galician Rabbinical family. His early youth was spent in Lemberg, steeped in great Hebrew traditions in which piety and culture flowered in the spirit of the Enlightenment. During his student years at the universities of Vienna, Berlin, Leipzig, and Zurich he devoted himself to philosophy, literature, and art among the great thinkers of that day. His early scholarship illuminated the Chassidic movement of ethical mysticism within the human community, and his dialogic view of man makes him, now at Hebrew University in Israel, one of the prophetic voices of our time.

His most influential book is a slender volume of poetic beauty published as *Ich und Du* in 1923 and translated as *I and Thou* in 1937 (4). Later writings on this theme were published as *Between Man and Man* (5). We have noted that Moreno and Buber were associated in the literary journal *Daimon* and that both were concerned with the encounter of person with person. How much they may have influenced each other is not altogether clear, but they moved in a common stream of fertile significance, the inter-

personal theory of man and God. Buber does acknowledge a germinal idea which Feuerbach gave in his *Principles of the Philosophy of the Future* in 1843:

The individual man for himself does not have man's being in himself, either as a moral being or as thinking being. Man's being is contained only in community, in the unity of man with man—a unity which rests, however, only on the reality of the difference between I and Thou (6).

Buber sees that man is incomplete as the single one; he is not himself in isolation. Neither does he find his fulfillment in the crowd by submerging himself in the collective mass. Real life is in meeting, lived in the relation between man and man. This meeting is the life of dialogue in which one person addresses another, turns to him to make him present and perceive what life means to him. As we communicate person with person, my whole being says something to you, and your whole being speaks something that enters my life.

In this dialogic relation the person whom I encounter is not the object of my experience; he is the subject who addresses me as subject. There are two primary words, each indicating a relation. If I say the primary word I-It, I am defining a relation to a thing, and my attitude is that of separation from an object. The I of such a connection has no present, only the past in which things are classified. The living experience of the present arises when I confront Thou in this moment. The real, filled present occurs in meeting in which there is living and mutual relationship. The primary word I-It can never be spoken with my whole being. But when Thou is spoken, the speaker takes his stand in relation. I become a person through my relation to Thou.

Man does not become a whole self alone or in reference to objects, but only in relation to another self. The whole self is a unity of opposition, in which tension and conflict arise from the essential duality of personal existence. This Buber calls the inborn Thou, which from birth will always be over against my singleness. To enter into a relation is to accept this tension of duality as essential to my being and to live the life of confrontation. So ultimate is the meaning of relationship that Buber finds in every relation the eternal Thou revealed. Not by turning away from human persons do we meet God, but God meets us in all of our interpersonal relationships. "In each Thou we address the eternal Thou."

God is not one object to be inferred from another as philosophers do by abstract reasoning, for this reduces Thou to It like any other thing.

"God is the being that is directly, most nearly, and lastingly over against us, that may properly be only addressed not expressed." God in the direct relation of encounter is not an idea in the abstract sense of logical argument, induced or deduced from some other givens. Rather He meets us as Thou in the present moment of living relationship. He is not to be proved or disproved but known in the dialogue of personal relationship. Religious experience for Buber is at once psychological in the intimate sense of meeting and theological in the affirmation of ultimate Being so revealed.

Though not himself a psychologist, Buber contributes significantly to the psychology of religion in submitting data and description of the religious life which psychologists will seek to understand. He further sharpens our focus upon the nature of man and offers a frame of reference for contemporary study that gives meaning and dignity to the human encounter.

4. CONCLUSION

It is evident that every theory of man emerges from a philosophy whether latent or manifest. For theory is constructed of principles which assume universality in one way or another. Psychological research will continue to gather significant data by ingenious methods to fill in needed details and at times to upset established theories. But data are only a collection of meaningless items in a heap of confusion until viewed in the clarifying and integrating perspective of a theory. Facts and theories are not interchangeable parts from mechanical assembly lines. They are the tools fashioned by a purposive intention to wrestle with elusive unknowns and hold a steady course to a goal we may decide to seek. Interpersonal psychology offers a fruitful set of hypotheses to explore, if we seek to comprehend both the depth and the breadth of religious experience. This I have undertaken to do in the revised edition of my *Psychology of Religion* (8), from which this article is an excerpt.

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GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY WITH GERIATRIC PATIENTS
IN A STATE HOSPITAL SETTING
RESULTS OF A THREE YEAR STUDY

KURT WOLFF

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Aim

The aim of group psychotherapy with geriatric patients was to make a scientific study of its usefulness under conditions of control. The specific aim was to establish the potential of group psychotherapy in helping geriatric patients to improve their interpersonal relationships, to control their hostility to a higher degree, to gain insight into their condition, and to get in better contact with reality.

Method

The group was composed of eight geriatric patients, four males and four females. The average age was 70. Group psychotherapy was done once weekly for one hour and the duration of treatment was from six months to two years. It was found that at least six months of group psychotherapy were necessary to improve the patient's mental status. The therapist took the role of a more or less passive listener, showing sympathy and understanding for their problems. He gave support to shy and withdrawn patients and kept the overtalkative ones from talking too much. The recreational and occupational therapies remained the same for all patients as before group psychotherapy was started. Drugs, such as tranquilizers or stimulants, were not given during the experiment. Another psychiatrist and a trained psychiatric nurse served as observers.

Duration

The duration of the experiment was three years. During this time 54 patients were treated by group psychotherapy, 25 males and 29 females. Ten patients were treated for six months only, 12 for 12 months, 19 for 18 months, and 10 for 24 months. Two patients died suddenly during the first 3 months of treatment due to coronary thrombosis, and 1 had to be taken out of the group after 6 months because he became disturbed and delusional.

The geriatric patients chosen for this experiment suffered from Chronic Brain Syndromes associated with Cerebral Arteriosclerosis or senility (32),

with C.N.S. Syphilis (6), with Alcoholism (3), from Schizophrenic Reactions with Senile Changes (7), from Manic Depressive Psychosis with Cerebral Arteriosclerosis (6).

Thought Content of the Patients

Very interesting studies could be made in regard to the thought content. The most frequent topics chosen for discussion by members of the group were:

1. Religion,
2. Marriage and love life,
3. Historical events, and
4. Food.

Geriatric patients are very conservative, sensitive and emotional. At times an attitude of rigidity, lack of flexibility with compulsive and overtly moralistic trends became evident. Such a behavior, whenever observed, appeared to be a sign of decompensation—a desperate trial to hold the personality together, a flight against desperation, against the feelings of complete confusion and fear of being lost. When a patient showed improvement, these symptoms disappeared and were replaced by the ability to relax and by decreased rigidity.

Religion was the preferred topic of the members of the group. Unhappy, lonesome and despondent patients were eager to discuss a better life after death, in paradise, perceived by them as a heaven of love and kindness. The religious attitude increased when the personality disintegrated and became disorganized. Religious belief, faith in God, helped them to overcome their grief. The other members of the group hardly ever doubted such a trend, because religion gave to all of them support and greater Egostrength. Delusions of religion were not infrequent. Some of the patients suffered from visual or auditory hallucinations, believing to hear the voice of the Lord or seeing Him. However, when a patient expressed delusions of persecution, of being mistreated by friends or relatives, his words were not accepted by the other members of the group as true and correct, and the possibility of a mistake or a wrong interpretation of the relative's words or actions was discussed. Delusions of grandeur were even less accepted. When a member of the group believed to be very rich, to own factories or houses or to be a good friend of the governor or other well known politicians, he was openly doubted. This attitude had the effect, after initial irritability and resentment, to bring the delusional patient nearer to reality.

Nearly all patients agreed when the discussion fell on problems of

love and marriage. They expressed deep attachment to their spouses. They showed anger against them only during the acute phase of their sickness, while hostility toward their children was a more frequent topic for discussion. Resentment, disappointment, hate, feeling of being rejected and thought of as a burden by the younger generation, was ventilated. They felt somewhat relieved when they realized that other members of the group had suffered troubles of a similar kind. They came closer to each other and their interpersonal relationships improved remarkably. When the spouse was dead, all the good things experienced in the past, were mentioned to the group. Many of them did not believe, at the beginning of the group meetings, that the dead partner could ever be substituted. Erotic feelings were repressed at first but, after a couple of months, the men looked at the ladies and the ladies at the men with different eyes. They started to dress themselves with greater care. The men shaved more regularly, came to the meetings with their best ties and washed themselves more frequently. The ladies began to use lipstick and to powder their face. This change in the patients' attitude toward their personal appearance was one of the first, and perhaps the most important, sign of improvement by group psychotherapy. *The socialization and rehabilitation process was enhanced and interest in marriage and love reappeared.*

Some of the patients, irritated at first by the presence of members of the opposite sex, gradually lost their suspicion, showed more interest, and became friendlier. When a member of the group fell sick, the others visited him in the infirmary ward or sent get-well cards. Couples who sat side by side during the group therapy session were also seen together at the dances, at movies, at birthday parties, and at other occupational or recreational activities.

Another subject of conversation very often chosen was historical events. They liked to talk about kings and queens of the countries of their family's origin, about the early settlements of the United States, about religious and political customs of fifty or more years ago, about the Indians, the Spanish-American War, and about famous American poets and artists. Technical progress, cars, the use of phones, modern machinery, and farm equipment rarely were brought into the conversation.

They liked to read books of the Civil War in the United States and showed a rather conservative inclination toward the problem of racial discrimination. At times they were not very tolerant. They appeared to be threatened by revolutionary ideas and showed, occasionally, ambivalent feelings toward new immigrants. Newcomers who did not speak good

English were not easily accepted at the beginning, but as time went on, they found better understanding and sympathy and formed friendships with the other participants of the group.

Unless physically sick, geriatric patients like to eat and show a certain amount of regression to the oral stage.

Consequently, one of the most important topics of discussion during the meetings was food. Candies and chocolates were exchanged. The meals on holidays and birthday parties which included cookies and cakes were very often mentioned. Stomach trouble due to overeating was a frequent event.

For elderly patients, too great a preoccupation with eating or digestive problems is not a favorable symptom. It can be considered as a regression into infantile, immature, and dependent nature, which might be reinforced by an overprotective attitude of relatives or attendants. For some patients, this kind of regression into excessive oral cravings might become a serious handicap to their treatment and for their release from the hospital.

Findings

The patients suffering from Chronic Brain Syndrome associated with Cerebral Arteriosclerosis or Senile Brain Disease with Behavioral Reaction, showed the greatest improvement. Of the 24 patients of this kind, 20 improved in regard to their interpersonal relationships. They became more cooperative and more frequently took part in occupational and recreational activities than before group psychotherapy was started. They slept better and were less agitated. Of the 8 patients suffering from Cerebral Arteriosclerosis or Senility with Psychotic Reaction, 2 only improved by becoming aware of their delusional ideas, by getting a better insight and being able to control their temper tantrums better than before. Five remained unchanged and 1 became worse. Of the 6 patients suffering from Chronic Brain Syndrome associated with C.N.S. Syphilis who had sufficient treatment with penicillin before group psychotherapy was started, 3 improved. They gained in self-esteem and felt less agitated and depressed.

Of the 3 patients suffering from Chronic Brain Syndrome associated with Chronic Alcoholism, 2 improved. They took more active part in all activities on the ward and made a better adjustment. Out of 6 patients suffering from Manic Depressive Psychosis with cerebral arteriosclerotic changes, 4 showed a remarkable improvement by becoming more cooperative and by gaining in emotional equilibrium. Of the 7 patients suffering from

Schizophrenic Reaction with senile changes, only 1 improved and gained in reality testing. One became more disturbed and delusional.

There were essentially no differences in regard to sex.

Conclusion

Our experiment showed that about 60% of geriatric patients treated in a mixed group (females and males together) were able to improve considerably by group psychotherapy. They could control their temper tantrums better and improved in interpersonal relationships, in adjustment on the ward, in alertness and in interest for occupational and recreational activities, and, in a few cases, they improved in regard to reality testing. Patients suffering from Chronic Brain Syndrome associated with Cerebral Arteriosclerosis with Senility, with C.N.S. Syphilis, with Alcoholism, and those suffering from Manic Depressive Psychosis with Cerebral arteriosclerotic changes improved more than patients suffering from Chronic Schizophrenic Reactions, who revealed very little improvement.

Of the 54 patients treated by group psychotherapy, 21 could be released from the hospital. Therefore, group psychotherapy in a large psychiatric hospital is of definite value for geriatric patients and has a great advantage over individual psychotherapy; it is more economical in regard to time, effort and personnel. Furthermore, less anxiety is noticed in group psychotherapy, while in individual psychotherapy, according to my own clinical experience, tension and anxiety is very often great and represents a serious problem. Physicians are looked upon with suspicion because of the patient's unconscious hate toward authority figures.

Group psychotherapy, where the therapist remains in the background, appears to be the more suitable form of psychotherapy for geriatric patients.

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THE USE OF INTER-ACTION CENTERED SCHEDULES IN GROUP WORK WITH PRE-MARITAL COUPLES

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The Pre-marital Schedules were originally developed for the counselor's use in pre-marital counseling with couples. The materials are designed to be filled in privately by a couple, TOGETHER, i.e., the counselor is not present while the couple works on the schedule. They are then reviewed by the counselor and the couple. No use of these educational aids by groups was envisioned. However, fairly early in a pilot study conducted to field test the materials, a number of counselors pointed out that they were adaptable to group use and asked permission to use them in this context. These counselors pointed out that there was a scarcity of materials and aids available in the area of group work with pre-marital couples. They expressed a need for a framework around which to conduct group counseling and educational sessions in preparation for marriage. The counselors believed that the Pre-marital Schedules might offer such a framework.

Since that time (1952), a limited number of publications have appeared which are of help to the counselor engaged in group pre-marital counseling. However, their distribution is not widespread and the bulk of counselors engaged in this work do not seem to be acquainted with these aids. With the background of an expressed need by counselors for a framework around which to conduct group pre-marital counseling sessions, it was decided to encourage use of the schedules by groups on an exploratory and experimental basis.

A preliminary conference was held with each counselor planning to use the materials with a group. The purpose of this conference was to clarify any questions about the materials and to help the counselors to develop an exploratory and research emphasis while using the schedules. Counselors were asked to keep a record of their experience with the materials. An informal evaluative conference was held after the counselors had used the materials with groups.

The materials are composed of three schedules: The Pre-marital Survey Section, The Sexual Adjustment Section, and The Family Finance Section. The Pre-marital Survey Section is the main section while the other two schedules are considered supplemental materials. The Pre-marital Survey Section has twelve different areas grouped under the heading "Things

Usually Discussed Before Marriage." To the right of these areas is the heading and the space for the marking of each area by the couple. The heading reads "How Do We Feel About This?" There are two sub-columns with the wording "We Have Worked This Out Pretty Well," and "We Need To Talk About This More." The couple are asked to mark either one of the two columns. The twelve areas which compose this section are as follows: (1) Housing, (2) Money Matters, (3) Our Relationship, (4) Education, (5) Employment, (6) Health, (7) Religious Matters, (8) In-laws, (9) Children, (10) Sexual Adjustment, (11) Leisure Time, (12) Wedding Preparations. Each area has from three to six sub-topics and a space has been left so that a couple may add any other topic they may wish to discuss. For example, under the area "Our Relationship" are found the following topics: "a., Expressing ourselves freely to each other; b., Adjusting to our different backgrounds and upbringing; c., Telling each other about the things that irritate us; d., Expressing our real feelings to each other; e., Adjusting certain individual habits to our marriage; f., Handling arguments and quarrels; and g., (blank space)."

The areas are so arranged that the couple discusses relatively "impersonal topics" initially and then proceeds to more intimate and personal topics. For example, Sexual Adjustment has been placed tenth on the list as a topic for discussion.

The Family Finance Section is a supplemental material to be used if additional work in the area of family finances is indicated. The section is divided into two parts. On the left hand side are listed thirteen discussion topics such as "The wife having a housekeeping allowance." The couple is then asked to mark each topic *together* under two columns headed "Have We Ever Shared Our Real Feelings About This?" and "How Much Do We Need To Work On This?" Under each of these two columns the couple can mark one of three choices titled "Not At All," "To Some Extent," and "Very Much."

The Sexual Adjustment Section is another supplemental educational material and contains fourteen statements. One such sample statement is, "It may be helpful for couples to have an understanding of the importance of tenderness and affection before, during and after sexual intercourse." The couple is asked to mark on a four point scale, ranging from "No Value" to "Great Value," their response to the question "To what extent may this idea be of value to us?"

UTILIZATION OF MATERIALS BY COUNSELORS

A total of twenty-two counselors used the materials with groups. Of this number sixty-five per cent were ministers and thirty-five per cent from other professions. The latter group was composed largely of doctoral students and professors at Florida State University. All of the counselors using the schedules were residing in the states of Georgia and Florida. The materials were used with a total of fifty-four groups over a six-year period, from 1951-'57. The average size of the groups was five couples; the average number of sessions was five. The Sexual Adjustment Section was used as a supplementary material in a total of nineteen groups. The Family Finance Section was used with twenty-six groups.

Use of the Schedules with Educational Groups

Educational groups are defined as groups made up of pre-marital couples who come to the counselor with no particular presenting problems or difficulties, but who feel a need for some general help in preparation for marriage. The materials were used by forty-one of the fifty-four groups who worked with the schedules. This figure supports a prior study which indicated that the majority (74%) of couples seeking pre-marital counseling did not have a specific presenting problem. The figure also seems to reflect the educational emphasis by most of the counselors participating in this study. It will be recalled that approximately two-thirds of these counselors were ministers who had been in the habit of organizing and conducting classes or groups for couples seeking pre-marital preparation.

A number of findings emerged from the use of the materials with educational groups:

(1) Counselors stated use of schedules helped couples get acquainted more quickly, stimulated group discussion and provided a content framework for the group.

(2) Counselors reported that they did "less talking" or lecturing to groups while using the schedules and that the materials seemed to call forth more group response than other educational aids previously used.

(3) All counselors, with the exception of two, stated that the group reaction to the Pre-marital Survey Section was favorable. Five counselors asked a total of seven groups to write an anonymous evaluation of the use of the schedule. Of the seven groups, four group members did not like use of the section for various reasons. Of the two counselors who reported unfavorable group reactions, one stated that his group felt they could not move fast enough if they followed the Pre-marital Survey Section. The other counselor

pointed out that the schedule confused his group as they would ask irrelevant questions and thus keep him from covering those topics on which he felt a lot of emphasis should be put.

(4) Twenty out of twenty-six groups using the Family Finance Section and seven out of nineteen using the Sexual Adjustment Section were educational groups. These figures seem to reflect the educational focus of the groups and perhaps, the reluctance of counselors to venture too deeply into the area of Sexual Adjustment. Several counselors told the writer that for the first time they had talked about this area with their groups. Others said that for the first time they had made books on human biology available to their group participants. Several counselors commented that they would prefer having a doctor talk to their group about these matters and were making such arrangements.

(5) All counselors using the Family Finance Section reported a favorable group reaction to this section. Several counselors believed this section to be especially suited for one couple or two couple "buzz group" discussions.

(6) The majority of counselors (70%) stated that the wording of the sub-topics of the Pre-marital Survey Section seemed to help the couples to uncover and talk about concerns and problems more freely.

Use of Schedules with Groups Having Specific Problems

A total of thirteen groups composed of couples who came to the counselors with specific problems used the materials. All five of the counselors who conducted these groups had specialized training in counseling. A number of significant findings were noted:

(1) All counselors reported that the schedules made a contribution as a "relationship building device." Working with the schedules seemed to help group participants to establish relationships with each other more quickly. Four counselors made the observation that their group seemed more ready to work with their problems earlier in the counseling sequence. They attributed this to the use of the materials.

(2) Counselors stated that the inter-action of couples around the areas and topics provided many clues useful in obtaining a better understanding of the underlying dynamics of a couple's problem early in the counseling sequence. Counselors pointed out that in the initial counseling sessions couples seemed to inter-act and relate to each other more freely and spontaneously, and that this furnished the counselor opportunities for observation and insight into problems.

(3) Counselors agreed that the materials need to be used with maximal

flexibility, allowing the group to depart from a discussion of a specific area or topic entirely, or dispensing with the use of the materials for a period of time. It was stated that the nature and design of the sections is such that they can be flexibly used according to group need.

(4) The materials seemed to be especially helpful in providing an introduction to the topic of Sexual Adjustment. Of the nineteen groups using the Sexual Adjustment Section, twelve were groups composed of couples with specific problems. Counselors pointed out that some couples who stated a need for counseling in the area of Sexual Adjustment were included in every one of their groups. Counselors were unanimous in their conclusions that use of the Sexual Adjustment Section is most effective if couples fill out the schedules privately within the group (two-person "Buzz Sessions") prior to the use of the section as a basis for discussion.

(5) Counselors concluded that while the materials were being used, the counselor should repeatedly clarify that he was available for individual counseling with group members. This was necessary in order to help individuals and couples handle problems (uncovered while working on materials in the group sessions) for which individual counseling was indicated.

EDUCATIONAL AIDS AND TECHNIQUES USED IN CONJUNCTION WITH MATERIALS

A number of counselors used films such as the McGraw-Hill "Marriage for Moderns" Series in relation to specific schedule areas. Several counselors selected only one or two specific scenes from each film to illustrate a point or stimulate discussion. They reported this technique of "editing" film as highly successful. The use of tape-recordings was also reported. Some counselors "produced" their own tapes by writing scripts of a couple's discussion around topics of specific areas. Other counselors, particularly those working with groups of couples having specific problems, used "edited" recordings of couples (who were not group members) working on the schedules. This was done after they had obtained permission from couples to use the tapes for counseling and educational purposes.

Organization of professional libraries composed of books, pamphlets, magazine articles, and newspaper clippings built around schedule areas was also reported. A marked response to reading materials was noted when the professional library was "rotated" so that new materials were made available as the group moved into new topics, while the "old" materials were withdrawn.

Sociodramatic techniques were used by approximately 65% of the coun-

selors. Although few of the counselors had formal training, a number were acquainted with Moreno's contributions to sociodrama and were in possession of some of his publications. Others used the derivative "play-acting techniques." The majority of counselors reported that the schedules presented many opportunities for using items from specific areas as springboards to "act things out." For example, under "Money Matters," couples were asked to "play-act" (sociodrama) how a couple decides ways of handling family finances. (Area 2, Item c., "Deciding how we want to handle our family finances.")

Only three counselors used psychodramatic techniques. They reported that the materials presented many opportunities for the use of psychodrama. The area of "Our Relationship" was mentioned by all three counselors. For example, Area 3, Item f., "Handling arguments and quarrels" was used to explore the adjustment patterns of couples and role reversal techniques employed.

Counselors reported that the format of the schedules is particularly conducive to the use of sociodramatic and psychodramatic techniques. In many of the areas opportunities for acting out were suggested by the very wording of the materials themselves.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A study was conducted using a set of inter-action centered materials, the Pre-marital Schedules, in group work with pre-marital couples. Twenty-two counselors used the materials in a total of fifty-four groups. Forty-one of the fifty-four groups were "educational groups" and thirteen groups were composed of pre-marital couples who had specific problems. All groups used the Pre-marital Survey Section. In addition, twenty-six groups used the Family Finance Section of which twenty were educational groups. Nineteen groups used the Sexual Adjustment Section of which twelve were groups composed of pre-marital couples having specific problems.

A number of findings emerged from this study:

A. Use of the materials seemed to stimulate counselors who had mainly used lecture methods or leader-centered procedures *to use more group discussion and to use more of a group centered approach.*

B. The Pre-marital Schedules were of value as a "relationship-builder." Use of the materials helped group members to deal more effectively with the factor of social distance and feelings of isolation, and seemed to help some groups begin work on their problems earlier in the counseling sequence.

C. A significant percentage of counselors concluded that working with the sub-topics of the Pre-marital Survey Section helped couples to talk more freely about their concerns and problems.

D. Counselors found the materials to be flexible and adaptable to group needs and circumstances, and used a variety of educational aids and methods in conjunction with the schedules.

E. There was some evidence that use of the materials helped counselors (particularly those who had previously ignored the area of sexual adjustment) to develop a more constructive way of handling this subject with pre-marital groups.

F. The wording of the topics listed under the twelve areas of the Pre-marital Survey Section and the Family Finance Section is such to suggest, encourage and stimulate the use of sociodramatic and psychodramatic techniques, offering both the counselor and group members many opportunities to practice these techniques.

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THE EGO BUILDING TECHNIQUE

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I. DEFINITION AND METHOD

The Ego Building Technique is a group method in which a person faces the group to hear the members discuss all his positive aspects. A volunteer is asked to take the seat facing his audience. The latter is then instructed by the director to say anything they honestly like about the person facing them. They are not to say *anything* derogatory.

The function of the director may be manifold. First, he should be ready "to cut" or stop the discussion once he feels the audience "has run dry." Second, he should ascertain how the recipient of the compliment *feels*. Third, he should then ascertain how the members of the group *feel* having said what they did. Fourth, the director may use this method as a projective technique and learn from each of the discussants whether he or she thought they possessed the qualities they imputed to the person discussed. Fifth, he may appoint a reporter who keeps a record of what was discussed, by whom, and in what section of the audience, as a basis for a sociometric study. Sixth, he should ask for feed-backs from the discussed person in the succeeding session. Seventh, the director is responsible for giving an opportunity to as many other members of the audience who wish to assume the seat.

II. ILLUSTRATIONS

1. The director told the group that this was an experiment. He asked for a volunteer to take the seat facing the group. He put the group in the role of not saying anything derogatory about Mr. Astone, who volunteered. "You are to think of all the positive things you can say about Mr. Astone. There are to be no derogatory remarks. Ask yourselves, what do you like about Mr. Astone. Be absolutely sincere. Flattery, i.e. insincere flattery, will get you nowhere. Now, proceed to discuss him. It may be about his clothes or the way he acts. Please be specific." The members of the group had known Mr. A a long time. They discussed him as follows:

B. "I think A knows how to meet people. Several times when I was playing a role, for example, and I felt that I did not play it adequately, he was there to tell me how well I did, patted me on the back, and made me feel pretty good."

C. "I agree. He does that with every one and we like him for it."

Another thing is his ability to direct the session. He always seems to have the knack of knowing the feelings of others, he will not permit any damage, and he takes people out of roles, cuts the action when necessary. His timing is excellent——."

D. "I don't think there is any question about his proficiency in a psychodramatic situation, whether he is directing or taking roles. And you know why he is able to do this? He is able to accept people as they are. He fairly exudes acceptance."

B. "I like his ability to map out a program, too."

F. "That reminds me. At our last Workshop it was Mr. Astone who actually worked out the details, got people to volunteer to take parts. A great measure of the success of the Workshop was due to him."

I. "You can say that again. He is about as agreeable a person as you know. One thing, however, we missed in this discussion was the ease with which he can bring his own family into the picture, use them as examples, without any apparent feeling of embarrassment."

K. "And he speaks well."

L. "He can get a group to work in harmony."

M. "His suggestions in committee work are apropos."

B. "What we are saying, of course, is that he has a healthy and helpful personality."

D. "He is honest and sincere in his appraisal of people, and he has a way of telling you that what you did could be better, how it could be better without causing any embarrassment. In fact, you hardly know he is really criticizing you."

At this point, the director cut the comments. He thought the group discussing Mr. Astone had "run dry," since they started to repeat what had been said. He then asked Mr. Astone how he felt about all of this. "I feel good. I felt I did some of these things but I wondered if anyone else felt that way about it. It does make me feel good, of course, and I believe you were all sincere. Some of you should take this 'hot seat.' The impact is terrific."

Before citing other examples, we shall continue with Mr. Astone to find out what happened to him subsequently. Did anything occur during the week to Mr. Astone as a result of the discussion about him? This "feedback" was obtained a week later, when the group met again. At this meeting the director asks Mr. A: "Did anything happen during this week that you feel resulted from the method of group discussion last meeting?" Mr. Astone stated: "Oh, yes. Definitely. As I worked alongside of my colleagues, I had

the feeling that my colleagues may have the very same thoughts concerning me that you people had. It gave me a great deal of social confidence."

2. Mrs. Livingston is a very industrious worker. She is always busy doing things for others. She appears to work without thinking much about herself. She had just bought a new car. Here are some of the comments when she volunteered to face the group:

A. "I certainly think Mrs. Livingston looks stunning tonight. Her clothes match and she looks like a million dollars."

B. "She just bought that new car and her choice of colors was superb."

C. "I like Mrs. Livingston's ability to think of others, what she can do for others, her every willingness to help this group and other groups, and yet, she has begun to think of what she can do for herself, a realistic combination."

J. "She is friendly."

D. "Yes, she can accept people, too. She likes people."

G. "No one can take a role better than Mrs. Livingston. Do you remember that 'Mother' role she took? She displayed great talent."

H. "She is also efficient."

When Mrs. Livingston was asked how she felt about this conversation, she said she felt good. She had a feeling that this was she, but now she could verify it.

3. The director then asked for another volunteer and Mr. Howard took the seat.

A. "He has 'groupified'* since he came to us. He enters roles readily and well, and takes responsibility for the tasks he feels he can handle well, and he does a good job."

B. "He certainly accepts people. He shows initiative."

I. "One thing I like about Mr. Howard is his honesty and sincerity."

Other comments were made. However, for the sake of brevity we shall note how Mr. Howard felt. He said, "I had a feeling that I had achieved something for myself. I am surprised any one else noticed it."

4. Mrs. Robeson came late to the session. (She was the hostess and had been supervising the preparation of food for the group.) Without letting her know what had preceded, the director asked her if she wished to be part of a group experiment. She was sure she would and he asked her to take the seat facing the whole group.

* A. defines the word as "an ability to enter normally into group activities, relating well to each other member of the group."

B. "I like how she can be really accepting. You feel warmth in her acceptance."

C. "I bet she can give someone Hell too, if the occasion warrants."

F. "This ability of accepting others is what makes her a good publicity manager. She has warmed her way into the hearts of our reporters, and they do a real good job for her, and incidentally, for us."

J. "She is a swell hostess."

L. "You know, she is an ideal wife, I bet. She loves her husband's greatness and helps him feel that greatness. That is what I call an ideal wife."

M. "She has aesthetic taste, too. See how this home is decorated?"

A. "She is really the power behind the throne, but she would never let you know it. She has real ability and she can think on the spot."

B. "She takes roles, too, with exceptional accuracy."

Mrs. Robeson was then asked how she felt. "Well, you took me by surprise. I bet I know who's behind this. You (pointing to the director). I feel great. I have always wanted to hear my eulogies. This is the first time I have had that pleasure."

5. Mrs. York then took the seat. Her husband was in the room among the participants.

A. "I always felt that Mrs. York was quite sincere and she plays her roles excellently. She was very brave in taking some of the roles while being pregnant. You remember when I stopped her taking one role?" (Parenthetically, it was almost an acrobatic role and could have been physically dangerous for her.)

B. "We like her genuineness."

C. "Did you ever watch her how she walks, her mien, her posture? She seems to have a great deal of confidence in herself."

Mrs. York got up and when the director asked her how she felt, she stated: "I did not like it. I would much rather have someone tell me my faults." Dr. Robert S. Drews, her therapist, has since explained that Mrs. York had a severe conflict. This was due to the lack of a sense of self-worth instilled in her by her mother. Whenever Mrs. York attempted to excel she was beaten down by her mother. On the other hand, she felt that she could not be poor at anything. She was torn between accepting her mother's opinion of herself, and her own sense that in some areas she was worthwhile. Anxiety developed due to this conflict. She was afraid to face her own self-approval. Hence, she felt much more comfortable when she was criticized. Her very denial of its import revealed her need for the Ego Building Tech-

nique as a therapeutic agent. She, who never got approval at home, felt some guilt about her awareness of her need to be told that what she actually thought of herself was something of her worthiness.

THE DISCUSSANTS

Now that we have discussed the occupant of the chair, let us turn our attention to the discussants. At subsequent sessions, with other groups, we wanted to know if a discussant had a different feeling in the role of a critic than he did in the role of a praiser. In several role playing situations the feeling of the disapprover was one of being or feeling hurt, "not feeling so good." In every instance where the person said something good about other persons, the approver felt "good."

Following the first session on the Ego Building Technique experiment, the director asked the discussants how they felt when they said something nice about the person in the "hot seat." In every instance, they recognized they felt better for having said what they did. Hence, the technique appears to have a therapeutic value for the discussant. Furthermore, since he is in a group and is agreeing with others in that group, he feels himself a part of a therapeutic group. There is still another virtue. The group itself becomes more cohesive. The director asked members of the discussing group how they felt now about their group. Did they feel that the group was more a unit? Had they developed a greater feeling of self-ness as a group than they had had heretofore? The affirmative answer in twelve groups wherein the technique was applied led to the conclusion that there is a tendency towards greater group cohesion.*

PROJECTION

In five of the twelve groups the writer asked one more question. In discussing Miss Javits the following was said:

G. "I think Miss Javits has a good education and knows how to apply it. She is an inveterate reader and she can absorb a great deal in a short period of time."

F. "Miss Javits is neat about her clothes. She is attractive."

He then asked Mr. G. if he thought he had those attributes which he ascribed to Miss Javits. Mr. F. was asked whether he thought he was a

* Parenthetically, what one says *about* a person, (his clothes, his manner of dress, his choice of colors for his tie, and the like), in distinction to what is said *of* the person, (his manner of meeting people, his intelligence, and the like), might be an evasive remark, especially if it is made exclusive of any observations made *of* him.

good dresser and neat. Whenever the question was asked, the person who made the remark had a similar opinion about him or herself. In other words, he could use the Ego Building Technique as a projective technique.

THE DIRECTOR'S FUNCTION

To arrive at the goals of this technique, it is the director's responsibility, (1) to keep the discussants in the role of an honest, sincere discussion group and to keep the discussion on the level of finding desirable qualities about the person they discuss, (2) to join in the discussion, (3) to ask the person discussed how he or she feels, (4) to keep asking members of the discussion group how they feel about the opportunity to uncover nice things about others, and (5) to arrange for such scientific observation as may seem to be of interest.

CONCLUSIONS

The study of twenty-five groups in which the method has been used by the author has led to the following conclusions: the Ego Building Technique is a group device (1) to help each member in the group feel himself as a part of an accepting group, (2) to aid in building up the individual's ego, (3) to minimize, for the individual, negativistic opinions about him or herself, (4) to help the group feel responsible for each of the members comprising the group, (5) to give an opportunity to each of the group members to have a feeling of pleasure in finding something of good in the other fellow and being permitted to tell him or her about it, (6) to help the individual obtain a frank assessment of the group's opinion, (7) to afford a basis for scientific investigation of (a) what are the values one has for other people, (b) what values they look for, (c) and whether or not these values have some projective significance, and finally, (d) whether there may not be factors present for sociometric study, and (8) to contribute to a greater cohesion within the group.

A CHALLENGING GROUP OF THREE

CALVERT STEIN

Springfield, Mass.

Case of the Painful Callous

She was eighty-five years old, with cardiac and other failures incident to her age. But she came from a neighboring state; and her daughter had sold her a bill of goods: "If anyone can help you, Dr. Stein can." This you will agree is a form of "psychological seduction" which is hard to resist.

There wasn't very much that the Great Grandmother didn't have wrong with her. She had bilateral cataracts, chronic cardiac decompensation, a pulse rate of 130 with absolute cardiac dysrhythmia, respirations of 20, a blood pressure of 128/78, sclerotic and hyperemic optic discs. She was also hard of hearing, and constipated; but she was oriented for the month, day and year, and she also remembered my name, having once attended one of my classes on Human Relations, several years earlier. Otherwise, the psychiatric examination wasn't very informative, although she was gracious, sweet and as cooperative as could be expected. In her youth, she had been a store clerk and a mill worker. Now she was almost completely confined to her home. The complaint for which she came was a very painful callous on the tip of her left middle toe and pain in the adjacent toe. Actually, both feet and all of her toes were mis-shapen with a combination of hammer toes, bunions, hallux valgus, and long term arthritis deformans; so that even her local chiropodist had given her up as hopeless.

The daughter knew that I was a psychiatrist. She confided that she didn't really expect any help for Grandma's painful toes or for the cardiopathy; but she hoped that I might, somehow or other, postpone the old lady's inevitable social collapse. Fortunately or otherwise I knew none of this history or the clinical findings when the appointment was made on the telephone for a "conference about the lady's mother." My pessimism must have shown on my face, for the daughter (who is a registered nurse) began to apologize profusely for taking up my time.

It had been thirty years since my general practice days when I used to consider myself a competent therapist for all ailments of the skin and its contents, and I couldn't imagine that any of the conventional therapeutic approaches would be indicated. And yet the job was actually half done at the instant that grandma agreed to come to my office, for obviously,

they both had a tremendous amount of faith. Moreover, we did have a group of three persons.

We had a group of three people, and all of us were interested in Grandma, but what to do with such a group in the single allotted hour that had been reserved, was more than I could think of at the time. I decided to free-lance and see what would happen. As long as I did the best I knew how, my conscience would be clear even if my best turned out to be somewhat unorthodox. At all events, here are the facts and you can judge for yourself.

I figured we had nothing to lose. It wasn't necessary to consult grandma herself. We couldn't be sure just how much she was actually hearing; but her daughter's responses dictated my choice of the term "relaxation" rather than hypnosis or groupnosis. I would have liked a longer session, and at least a few return visits. There wasn't an opportunity for role playing, but there was moral support from daughter plus reinforcement, and a few other psychodynamics which, as it turned out seemed to have influenced the end results.

To make the story short, the daughter agreed to let me try my luck, and I concentrated on trying to teach Grandma how to "*relax*." I was about half-way through with the induction patter when the daughter mildly observed, "Doctor, I don't think her hearing aid is turned on." So, I started all over again. Grandma hadn't heard me use the word hypnosis, so I told her about relaxing. She could yawn and she could stretch. She could breathe slower and deeper, and she could relax *some* of her muscles "*more and more*." After awhile, the monotony of my voice was making it difficult for all three of us to stay awake. I hadn't planned it to be a session in groupnosis, so, in a spirit of bravado, I suggested that perhaps Grandma wouldn't feel quite so tired if she didn't keep racing her motor . . . that she really could let her heart beat slow down *just a little*, that she was perfectly safe and comfortable, and that she would be able to feel much better when her heart didn't have to beat quite so rapidly. Much to our surprise, the cardiac rate did slow to an average of 100 at the apex, but naturally with no change in the dysrhythmia (since it was an organic disorder); and the lady reported that she did, indeed, feel more relaxed. (According to her daughter this was a very rare confession, even with tranquilizers.)

The next step was to compare arthritis in grandma's son with *his* rigid and unbending personality. I never once talked about *her* arthritis, but only about her son. I pointed out that usually this condition affected

people with very high standards of performance and ethics; that, in fact, the rigid joints could be a symbol of the owner's reluctance to bend to lower his standards by accepting inferior performance and second grade results. I guess the daughter, a registered nurse and one of my former pupils, must have already indoctrinated her mother in some of the principles of psychosomatic medicine, for the elderly lady nodded her understanding and agreement. With this encouragement I became a little bolder. I suggested that much of that which grandma had previously considered to be personal rejection by her son could be considered as a flattering compliment in the form of identification with her. My diction, of course, was simpler, but the thought actually pulled her out of the light trance as she wanted to discuss the matter further. However, I reminded her that we could talk about this at another time, and that we only had another fifteen minutes left in which to work on her painful toe. With a few deep breaths she relaxed immediately, and this time her respirations slowed to 16.

I then took the deformed and ill shod foot in my hands, patted it gently, and reminded grandma of the years of faithful service which it had given to her. Next I suggested that what she had done with her body tensions and her pulse rate, she could also do with her toes and feet. I asked her to *feel* her feet shrinking *just a little . . .* to notice how much roomier the shoe now felt. Then I suggested that she could imagine a *tiny bit of motion* in the rigid toe. I couldn't believe my ears when she said that she actually did, so I didn't waste any more time. I remembered my visiting days as a volunteer assistant to the infirmary at San Quentin in 1930. Standard operating procedure for "lame backs" in the morning sick call line-up was a six inch paint brush dipped into diluted tincture of iodine and applied liberally to the skin. I also borrowed a leaf from the outpatient dermatology clinic at the Massachusetts General Hospital where, I am told, warts have been treated by painting them with colored water.

My nurse brought in some Tincture of Gentian Violet and I told the patient that I had brought back an ancient remedy from Nazareth on my trip to the Holy Land last year. (It wasn't entirely a fib, for I did see the preparation in use at the Hadassa Medical Clinic there, and at least the container was purchased in the village of Jesus' boyhood.) I told her that in six days (Mother's Day) she would feel better. Being a devout Christian, and impressed by the story, she was eager to view the painted callous with the aid of a hand mirror which she did at the end of the session.

I had yet one more therapeutic task to accomplish. In the remaining minutes I suggested that having been brought up strictly, she too may have been literally walking about on tip-toes all of her life for fear of offending others; but that *now that she had learned how to relax, this wouldn't be necessary any more*. Beginning today she could march off boldly, and confidently and let the darned old callous take care of itself from now on. Believe it or not this is what it did.

The end of this true tale is even more strange. A few weeks later, the daughter reported that grandma had abandoned her hermitage and was canvassing the neighborhood for signatures to a petition for local home improvement. Some squatter was trying to change the residential zone into a defacto business area via an unlicensed business, and grandma was the only person with courage enough to fight him. The cardiac status remained unchanged but the toes were bothering her less and less and she had discontinued paring the callous.

This general improvement lasted about one month.

Two months after writing this report I made a telephone inquiry to her daughter (July 7, '59): Grandma was back at the paring *but of her other toes*. The two toes which hurt here in May are still without pain and *the callous which was painted has disappeared*. Daughter said "she got her relief from pain a couple of days *before* Mother's Day! She was very thankful that I took her to your office because of the relief she got. And there's something else you should know, doctor: *Her father died with a gangrenous toe!* She told me that only a few days ago." Daughter was advised not to persuade grandma to return here, but to wait until patient herself took the initiative and asked for another appointment. Naturally, she has not yet done so.

Obviously there are limits to reasonable expectations from hypnotherapy. Obviously, too, Grandma may be willing enough to part with *some* of her symptoms but is not yet ready to lose all of her defenses, nor her identification with her father. Her anxiety re her father's gangrenous appendage serves multiple purposes—the psychodynamics of which need not be entertained here.

THE USE OF PSYCHODRAMA AND ROLE-PLAYING IN IMPROVING THE INTERPERSONAL SKILLS OF ATTORNEYS*

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INTRODUCTION

A popular view of the lawyer is as an advocate, one who represents a client in a civil or criminal proceeding in a courtroom. This is the picture of the lawyer one gets from reading "Perry Mason" stories, or watching the attorneys in such TV shows as "Day in Court" or "The Verdict is Yours." Viewed in this light, the attorney is seen as one *engaged in conflict*. But this is a false picture; the typical lawyer spends much, if not most, of his time in his office helping to *prevent conflict* and *resolve conflict*. He helps to produce cooperation among different interests, and to prevent future disagreements, by working with his client and others in the formulation of contracts, wills, leases, laws and regulations. He helps to settle existing disputes amicably, thus avoiding the conflict found in strikes, divorces, proxy fights and litigation. In performing these functions, the lawyer serves a highly important social purpose: the prevention and reduction of wasteful and damaging conflict among individuals and groups.

For the past two years I have been engaged in a research and training project involving an analysis of the role of the lawyer as a resolver of conflict. My aims have been to determine whether the skills of lawyers in filling this role can be improved through formal training, and to develop some theories about the role which conceivably could be useful to those studying conflict resolution in other areas, such as international relations. In the research phase of the project, I have used interviews with practicing attorneys, and formal training and research in such fields as psychology, group dynamics and sociology, to learn as much as possible about effective techniques for the resolving of conflict in a legal context. In the training phase of the project, I have offered, and am currently offering, an experimental course for law students, at the Northwestern University School of Law, entitled "Professional Relations." This paper describes the objectives and methods of this course, with particular emphasis upon the use being made of role playing.

* Presented at the 18th Annual Conference of the American Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama on April 25, 1959, in New York, N. Y.

Interpersonal Skills Required by the Attorney

I begin by describing the specific kinds of interpersonal or human relations skills which, I believe, the lawyer must have, if he is to perform adequately his function as a resolver of conflict. These skills appear to be five in number: 1. *Interviewing*—I use this term to describe the process by which the lawyer acquires *information* from his client or anyone else. Included in the concept of "information" are not only facts, but also goals, attitudes, feelings, etc. Interviewing is important, of course, because the lawyer cannot help to solve a problem unless he knows the facts, and understands the motives and feelings of those involved. For the lawyer, the process of interviewing a client or a potential witness in a lawsuit may involve such problems as the person who is so affected by fear and a feeling of helplessness that he cannot tell his story effectively; the person who is reluctant to tell his story for fear of "getting mixed up in a law suit," or because he is ashamed of some aspect of his own behavior; the client who is unaware of some of his own motivations and goals, and who thus makes it difficult for the lawyer really to understand the problem.

2. *Counseling*, which I use to mean helping clients with their problems by providing a "listening ear," information, aid in clarifying problems, or suggestions and advice. I see the lawyer, in his role as a counselor, not only as one who provides technical, legal advice and action, but also as one who aids the client with the non-technical aspects of his problem. For instance, the client's problem may be the technical one of whether he has legal grounds for divorce, but he may also have a problem of whether divorce is the appropriate way out of his marital difficulties. Likewise, the client may seek legal advice and action on the tax aspects of a proposed business transaction, but he may also be concerned about whether or not the transaction makes sense from a business or personal point of view. If I may adapt a term from current medical practice, I believe that the lawyer, *within the limits of his competence*, should treat not only the "legal symptoms," but the "whole person."

3. *Mediating*, such as helping the members of a partnership solve a dispute among the partners; attempting to reconcile a quarreling husband and wife.

4. *Negotiating*, which involves situations such as making an out-of-court settlement of an accident claim with an insurance company, or participating in the negotiation of a new collective bargaining agreement between a business firm and a labor union.

5. *Participating in small groups*, such as a board of director's meeting, or a conference with other lawyers and their clients.

We have, then, five areas in which interpersonal skills are of importance to the lawyer in his role as a resolver of conflict: interviewing; counseling; negotiating; mediating; and participating in small groups.

I emphasize the phrase *interpersonal skills* because I am concerned with the process element of such functions as counseling, and not the content element. For instance, if the client's problem is whether or not he ought to buy a new store, the lawyer must know something about the particular retail business before he can presume to offer advice. But my concern is not with such matters of content, which are obviously too complicated and diverse to cover in any single course. Rather, I am concerned with such process questions as when, and under what circumstances, the lawyer ought to offer advice, and the methods by which the lawyer can make his advice most useful to the client.

Training Methods Used in Helping Law Students Improve Their Interpersonal Skills

The "Professional Relations" course is currently being offered to a small number of students, on the basis of 2½ hour class sessions, meeting once a week for fifteen weeks. The course, still experimental, has four elements:

1. Informal lectures, reading materials, and class discussion of some of the theories of effective interviewing, counseling, and the like. To some extent, these theories have been derived from interviews with practicing lawyers. Theories have also been derived from an examination of some of the literature from other fields, such as *counseling* in an educational or psychiatric context; *interviewing* for social workers; *negotiating* among governments, or between labor and management. It has been necessary to go to these other fields, because almost nothing worth while seems to have been written about the work of the lawyer in these areas of his professional activities.

A brief listing of some of the theories and concepts which are being considered for their possible usefulness for lawyers will, I believe, give you an idea of what this theory element of the course is all about: shared v. authoritarian leadership; the advantages and disadvantages of non-directive counseling; the creation of a permissive and accepting atmosphere in an interviewing situation; the importance of "face" in the conduct of negotiations; the need for the counselor to recognize his own needs and goals in the

counseling situation; the various functions of the mediator; the importance of "good listening" techniques.

2. The second element in the course is the "T- (for training) Group." Many of you probably know about T-Groups, pioneered at Bethel, Maine, by the National Training Laboratory in Group Development. For the benefit of those who do not, here is a brief description: The T-Group is a unique kind of discussion group, in which the participants themselves plan their own agenda, establish their own procedural rules, and determine their own leadership pattern, for example, whether or not to have a chairman. While the instructor is present, he plays a more limited role than is the case in most discussion groups. Because participants tend to become deeply involved in the activities of the T-Group, and for other reasons, the T-Group provides an excellent opportunity to acquire new ideas about how to make small groups function more effectively. In addition, a participant can acquire new insights into how he functions in a group, and how other people react to him. A participant can also experiment with, and practice, new ways of behaving more effectively in interpersonal situations. This "action" element of the T-Group is necessary because of the well-known gap between knowing what ought to be done, and being able to do it. The T-Group can thus be thought of as a "laboratory" group, in which each member can analyze, experiment with, and practice, more effective ways of working with people.

3. The third element involves the discussion of professional relations cases. Some of these cases are fictional, such as the scene from James Gould Cozzens' novel, *BY LOVE POSSESSED*, in which the lawyer interviews his teen-age client, accused of rape, and finally succeeds in getting the client to tell the truth about the incident. Some cases are hypothetical (though having their counterpart in real life), such as the case of a client who does not want to settle an accident claim on a reasonable basis. Some cases are actual cases, such as one involving a young woman client, who had been carrying on an affair with a wealthy, but married, industrialist, and who finally had a child by the man. The woman sought to recover money for the child, and, after long negotiations, the industrialist agreed to set up a trust fund for the child in the amount of \$70,000. The woman's lawyer had the check in his hands, and all he needed was the woman's signature on a paper releasing the man from further claims. But, the woman failed to keep an appointment to pick up the check, and sign the release, and instead vanished from sight. The question for class discussion is why did the client change her mind, and what, if anything, can and should the lawyer do about it?

4. The fourth element in the course, which I believe will be of most interest to you, is role playing.

The Use of Role Playing to Demonstrate, and to Test Student Knowledge of, Effective and Ineffective Methods of Working with Others

One use I have made of role playing is to demonstrate to students, and to test their knowledge of, effective, and ineffective, methods of conducting an initial interview with a client. The exercise, adapted from an actual case, concerned a college professor, a member of the Department of Sociology of a hypothetical University who came to see a lawyer, because he thought his rights were being infringed by his university. His complaints concerned a failure to give him a salary increase which others received; a failure to provide him a graduate research assistant, as had been done during the previous 9 years; and the taking away of courses in his own field of criminology, and giving them to a younger man in his department. In the scene, one of my colleagues took the role of the client, and I played the role of the lawyer.

The client began his story with the statement, "There is a criminal conspiracy against me," and continued in a highly emotional manner for some time. After calming down, he told a fairly coherent story of his difficulties. He indicated that he did not want to start a lawsuit, but rather to write a strong letter to the President of his institution, protesting his treatment, and demanding the removal of the chairman of the Sociology Department, on whom he blamed all his difficulties. The client produced a draft of the proposed letter, which was short on facts, but long on denunciation. The letter was discussed by the lawyer and the client, and the interview ended with the lawyer's retaining the draft, so that he could make some revisions of it. The lawyer promised to phone the client within a few days.

In order to highlight certain parts of the interview, I adopted the device of "cutting" the interview at selected places, stepping out of role, and confiding to the audience what problems concerned me as the "lawyer," and how I proposed to handle them. For example, I "cut" at one point to say that I was concerned about the client's repeated use of the phrase "there's a criminal conspiracy against me," and that I suspected that the client might have paranoid tendencies. Stepping back into the role, I asked the client how he happened to come to me, rather than to any other lawyer, and he said that he had been referred to me by one of his neighbors, a Mr. Z——, who happened to be a close friend of mine. The exercise was then "cut" in order to point out to the class the purpose of the question, i.e., the question was based on the fact that persons who refer clients to lawyers often can supply valuable background information about the client.

The exercise was framed in such a way as to demonstrate inappropriate

interviewing techniques, as well as appropriate ones. This was done in order to arouse class interest, and to test class understanding of, and ability to apply, interviewing theories which had been previously covered in readings and class discussion. For instance, the client at one point in the interview was asked whether he had shown the draft letter to anyone else, and he replied that he had shown it to his wife, who had thought it *mild*. The lawyer did not follow this up however, to determine what role the wife was playing in the whole situation. In the class discussion following the exercise, some of the students pointed out that the lawyer had overlooked this clue.

Another mistake the lawyer made was to accept the client's account of the problem, and to begin aiding the client, without first trying to check the accuracy and the completeness of the client's story. The lawyer made no attempt to ask for documentation of the story, such as a copy of the client's contract with the institution. Likewise, the lawyer did not ask for the client's permission to talk with other people, for instance, with colleagues of the client in the Sociology Department, who might shed additional light on the matter.

In the class discussion of the exercise, students also pointed out that the lawyer was, perhaps, considering the case in an overly legalistic way, in too narrow a framework. After all, if the situation with the department head was as bad as the client pictured it to be, perhaps the wise thing for the client to do was to seek a teaching job elsewhere rather than to get involved in a possibly bitter battle within the institution. It was suggested that, even if the client won his case, he might lose it, because the bad relationships caused by the struggle would make his continuance at the university unpleasant and unprofitable. In short, the lawyer was "treating the legal symptom," and not "the whole person."

*Role Playing as a Form of Skill Practice**

Role playing is also being used to give students an opportunity to *practice* the application of theory to interpersonal situations which they will encounter in law practice. An illustration comes from the field of interviewing witnesses to accidents, in order to get facts about the accident, and to formulate a judgment about the advisability of using the person as a witness in any lawsuit involving the accident. An expert in this field of interviewing, Mr. Allen Hartman, of Chicago, Illinois, was kind enough to deliver a brief lecture, and conduct a class discussion, on this kind of interviewing.

At the next class session a role-playing exercise was used to test student

* Moreno, J. L., "Forensic Psychodrama," in *Progress in Psychotherapy*, Vol. IV, 1958, pp. 9-11. Published by Grune & Stratton, Inc., New York.

ability to apply theory to concrete situations. The expert took the role of a witness to a hypothetical auto accident, and a student took the role of a lawyer coming to interview the witness in his home. Another student then took the lawyer's role, and the exercise was repeated. The second student was not allowed to observe the first student's interview with the witness. Class discussion followed the conclusion of the exercise.

Among the points which emerged from the class discussion were the following: The interviewer should not be trapped into replying to personal criticism of his age, etc., by the witness; the interviewer should not accept the offer of a drink of beer or whiskey; it is usually best to let the witness tell the story in his own words, without interruption, and then to return to a more detailed examination of the facts; the interviewer should not be evasive as to whom he represents; the interviewer should be fully prepared to meet a witness request for a bribe, or a witness refusal to talk, based on an unwillingness "to get mixed up in a lawsuit."

Role playing is also used to give students supervised practice in interviewing hypothetical *clients*. For example, we ran an exercise in which I took the role of a client seeking a divorce, and a student the role of the interviewing lawyer. The "lawyer" was allowed 15 minutes to conduct his interview, whereupon another student—who had been out of the room during the first interview—took the role of the lawyer, and the exercise was repeated. In this way, it became possible to compare methods and techniques of interviewing.

In the case, the client began his story with the statement "I guess I want a divorce," and the interview disclosed that the client's wife had left him approximately 17 months before the interview, taking the children with her. This apparently constituted desertion, in the legal sense of the term, and would entitle the client to a divorce. But there was actually far more to the story than came out in the client's rendition of it. The reason the wife left was not just a quarrel over the discipline of the children, and the wife's treatment of the husband's parents; it also involved the wife's refusal to tolerate the husband's attentions to another woman. The relationship with the other woman had been continuing, and, as a matter of fact, it was pressure from this other woman for marriage that caused the client to seek legal advice about a divorce. More importantly, the client himself was not really sure whether he wanted a divorce or marriage with the other woman, and he evidenced willingness to consider reconciliation with his wife.

The interesting thing about the two interviews, as conducted by the students, was that the first one failed to secure this additional information

until the last minutes of the interview, and no attempt was made to explore the possibilities of reconciliation, while the second interview obtained the additional information very quickly, and explored the reconciliation issue with the client in some detail. What would have happened had the interviews not been artificially limited to 15 minutes is difficult to say. The least one can say is that the second interview saved time.

Why the difference between the two interviews? I believe that the difficulty with the less successful interview was that it was "fact oriented," while the more successful one was "feeling oriented." The first student, perhaps overinfluenced by the intellectual and rational element of his law school education, concentrated on getting the facts, and he spent most of his time asking questions about names, addresses, joint bank accounts, the amount of alimony the client would be willing to pay, and the like. The second student, more sensitive to *feelings*, and alerted by the client's opening sentence—"I guess I want a divorce"—did not get bogged down in gathering information, but devoted his time to an exploration of the client's reasons for wanting the divorce. This examination of client *goals* led naturally to the reasons for the wife's leaving the husband, and to a lawyer-client discussion of the possibilities of reconciliation. I do not mean to suggest that legal interviews should not be fact-oriented, but only to point out that feelings do count, and that a lawyer who concentrates exclusively on facts is headed for trouble. In a sense, one can say that a basic aim of the course is to "make feelings respectable," and to aid students in improving their ability to deal with feelings.

Two other role-playing sessions, now in the planning stage, may be of interest. In one, students will be asked to interview and counsel a client, a member of a minority group, who wishes to purchase a residence in a restricted area, through a dummy purchaser. The case will raise both legal and non-legal problems, for instance, the wisdom of entering a neighborhood where members of one's group are apparently not wanted, by means of a subterfuge. The other session will be more elaborate, and will involve problems in interviewing and counseling in marital relations cases, with particular reference to the problems of referring clients to social agencies for marriage counseling. In this program, I will have the aid of a psychiatric social worker, with considerable experience in marriage counseling, in discussing—and demonstrating—effective methods of diagnosing and referring clients who need specialized help with their marital problems. In addition, two clinical psychologists with experience in psychodrama, have kindly agreed to play the roles of women clients with marital difficulties in two skill practice exercises in which students will take the lawyer's part.

These, then, are samples of the uses being made of role playing in the experimental course. I hope to be able to develop role-playing exercises in the areas of negotiation, and mediation, for use in the latter parts of the course. I also have in mind, in time, the use of spontaneous role playing, and of more complex forms of role playing, such as role reversal, the use of auxiliary egos, and the like. (Being an amateur in this field, I would be delighted to get your suggestions and comments on the uses to which role playing can be put in a training project of this kind.)

*An Evaluation of the Experimental Course; Plan for the Future**

It is too early to tell whether law students learn enough from a course of this kind to justify the investment of scarce faculty resources. Nor do I know whether the theories and techniques developed in other fields, such as educational counseling, or negotiating at the international level, have significant relevance for the work of the practicing attorney. It may well be that courses for members of the bar, especially younger lawyers, would be more valuable than student courses, since practicing lawyers might be more highly motivated, and might find it easier to "transfer" learnings to situations which they are experiencing each day.

I plan to continue exploring the literature of conflict resolution; interviewing practicing attorneys, and persons with special experience in fields like the mediation of labor disputes; exchanging views with people engaged in offering training in interpersonal skills in non-legal fields; and collecting additional professional relations cases. I also hope to do a limited amount of psychometric research among law students and lawyers. An example would be the determination, by use of personality tests, of the attitudinal pattern of lawyers who are considered by their peers to be especially effective as counselors, mediators, and negotiators.

Of one thing I am fairly sure: if training of this kind eventually finds a place in law school curricula, or in programs of continuing education for members of the bar, it will include role playing as a central element. As you know, perhaps better than I, role playing is a very effective way of reducing the gap between thought and action, a gap which can be so wide in the field of interpersonal relations.

* Moreno, J. L., *Progress of Psychotherapy*, Vol. IV, 1958, *Forensic Psychodrama*, pp. 9-10.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The practicing attorney, if he is skillful in the arts of interviewing, counseling, negotiating, and mediating, can help prevent lawsuits, strikes, divorces, and other forms of damaging social conflict. The author has been engaged in a research project designed to determine whether the interpersonal skills of lawyers can be improved through formal training. As a part of the project, he is offering an experimental course for law students, entitled "Professional Relations," which combines an examination of some theories about effective interviewing, counseling, and the like, with discussion of professional relations cases, and T-Group sessions. In addition, use has been made of role-playing exercises to demonstrate effective and ineffective methods of interviewing and counseling; to test student knowledge of theories about interviewing, counseling and the like; and to afford students to improve their interpersonal skills through supervised practice.

I trust that the foregoing account of this project will help correct misconceptions about what lawyers actually do, and supply evidence for the proposition that lawyers, too, are members of one of the "helping professions." And, I hope that this account may encourage you in your own work by letting you know that there are people in other professions who are also engaged in research into the most challenging problem of this (or any other) era—the age-old problem of helping man to live with man.

ROLE TRAINING AND JOB PLACEMENT OF ADOLESCENT DELINQUENTS: THE BERKSHIRE FARM AFTER-CARE PROGRAM

MARTIN R. HASKELL

Berkshire Industrial Farm, Canaan, New York

Berkshire Industrial Farm is a residential treatment school for adolescent delinquent boys. It is situated in New York State, about twenty-five miles east of Albany and has a population of 145 boys, coming from various North Eastern States and ranging in age from twelve to seventeen years. The treatment staff includes six caseworkers, a casework supervisor, a psychologist and a psychiatrist. Individual casework, group therapy and psychodrama are included in the treatment program. In July 1957 the author of this paper was employed to administer an After-Care program for boys returning to New York City. The mission of this program was to assist boys in their adjustment to employment, school, the family and the community. The emphasis was to be on help in solving reality problems arising in the course of their adjustment and to provide them with Role Training.

The assumptions upon which the program was based are:

1. That during their residence at Berkshire Farm the boys had sufficiently resolved their emotional problems to enable them to function in the community at about the same level as other boys of their age and class.
2. That the environment to which they were being returned was essentially the same as the one in which they were situated at the time of their previous delinquent behavior.
3. That by adding positive factors, such as satisfying job experiences, and mitigating negative factors, such as rejecting family relationships, a boy could influence each dynamic assessment against a possible delinquent act. If a boy experienced satisfying work and family relationships this would tend also to minimize his contacts with delinquent patterns and to maximize his contacts with non-delinquent patterns (9, Ch. IV).

THE SUBJECTS

During the eighteen month period between July 1957 and January 1959, there were a total of forty-three boys serviced by the Berkshire Farm After-Care program in New York City. As of January 20, 1959, the boys, after leaving Berkshire Farm, had lived in the community for periods of

time indicated in Table I. The three who had been out less than four months are not considered further in this report. The forty boys involved in this report were on After-Care for an average of 17.2 months.

TABLE II
LENGTH OF TIME ON AFTER-CARE

Number of Months	Number of Boys
24 plus	12
18 to 24	8
12 to 18	9
5 to 12	11
1 to 4	3
Total	43

When they left Berkshire Farm discharged to After-Care, thirteen of the boys were under 15 years of age, eleven were between 15 and 16, and sixteen were over 16, only one of whom was over 17. Twenty-five of the boys are Negro. Of these, twenty-three are Protestant and two Catholic. Fifteen of the boys are White. Ten of these are Protestant and five Catholic. Three of the white boys were born in Puerto Rico.

Of the forty subjects of this report, five are classified as neglected and thirty-five as delinquent. However, as Tappan has pointed out, whether or not a boy is held delinquent, neglected or dependent depends chiefly on the petitioner and his motive rather than the boy's conduct or his more basic problems of adjustment. Twenty-two of the forty boys were brought to court because of involvement in property offenses, prior to their being committed to Berkshire Farm. Eight of these had been involved in property offenses two or more times. Three others were brought to court as a result of alleged assaults including sexual assault. The remaining fifteen were charged with truancy, running away from home, or being incorrigible. Eighteen of the boys, sixteen Negro and two White, were members of gangs before their commitment.

¹ Berkshire Farm had an After-Care Program in effect in New York City between June 1956 and June 1957 with a slightly different orientation which did not include Role Training. Twenty of our subjects were under the supervision of the former After-Care worker from one to six months, at the time the present program was instituted.

THE PROGRAM

The following services were offered:

1. Assistance in finding jobs. Referral was made directly to a prospective employer or to an agency that was in a position to make such a referral without delay. Early in the program the cooperation of the Correctional Vocational Rehabilitation Service of the New York State Employment Service was solicited and secured.² During the eighteen month period included in this report, sixteen placements were made through the Correctional Vocational Rehabilitation Service and twenty-two through all other resources available to the Placement Director.

2. Assistance with school problems including counselling, placement, transfer and attendance problems.

3. Assistance with family problems. Family adjustment was discussed with the boy or with members of his family at least once every three months either in his home or in the Berkshire Farm Office. In those cases where it was deemed inadvisable for the boy to remain in the home other housing arrangements were made if the boy was gainfully employed.

In addition to the above services, Role Training was administered in group meetings and in individual sessions. Group meetings were generally held at the New York City Berkshire Farm Office every two weeks and were attended by between five and fifteen boys.³ At these meetings Role Training was given in occupational, family and community roles. Prior to being sent out to apply for a job or to face a new situation, each boy was given Role Training to prepare him to cope with that situation.

One learns social roles through interaction with others in a group who hold normative beliefs about what his role should be and who are able to reward and punish him. Feelings of anxiety arise from having to function in an unknown pattern of interaction. Among the twelve propositions related to adjustment to any social category role one can list three which point to role playing as a means of adjustment. These are:

The degree of adjustment to a future role varies directly with the degree of clarity with which the future role is defined.

The degree of adjustment to a future role varies directly with the amount of opportunity for:

² The Correctional Vocational Rehabilitation Service has been organized to deal specifically with the placement of delinquents and offenders. This service, under the direction of Miss Janet Pinner, is available to returnees from all New York City and State correctional institutions.

³ A total of twenty-eight group meetings were held in eighteen months.

1. Emotionally intimate contact which allows identification with persons functioning in the role.
2. Imaginal or incipient rehearsal in the future role, and
3. Practice in the role through play or other similar activity.

Role playing may be defined as a temporary stepping out of one's own present role to assume the role of another individual or of one's self at another time. Role Training is a form of role playing in which emphasis is placed on the re-enactment of performances in real life. It is a technique for learning to differentiate in action those patterns of behavior which may have been inadequate, bringing inadequacies to the attention of the director, the individual and the group (4) (3). Role playing, Role Training and related techniques have been used to produce attitudinal and behavior changes in a wide variety of settings in the fields of Mental Health, Industry, Education and Correction. The Role Training planned was to be similar in nature to that given by the author to inmates of Riker's Island Penitentiary as preparation for release on parole, in 1956 (2) (3).

EXTENT OF PARTICIPATION

Twenty-seven of the forty boys participated in group therapy sessions in which Role Training was administered. Seventeen attended six or more group sessions and ten attended from two to six sessions. In addition, six boys who did not attend any of the group sessions were given Role Training in individual sessions, either prior to a job interview or in connection with difficulties experienced at home. There were seven boys who did not receive any role training. All contact with the boys was on a voluntary basis and no effort was made to compel attendance at group or individual training sessions. Of the twenty-seven who attended group meetings, all but six participated as protagonists (subjects) in occupational roles. There was considerable reluctance to participate in family roles. Nevertheless, nine of the boys did act out family situations in which they were having difficulties with parents or siblings. The emphasis of most of the group sessions was on occupational roles, particularly those of: job applicant, worker-employer, worker-fellow worker and worker-foreman. By placing the boys in each reciprocal role an attempt was made to give them greater insight into the roles of others with whom they were interacting. It was hoped that such experience would increase their empathic ability and enable them to accept supervision with a minimum of frustration.

Twenty-nine boys sought assistance in finding employment. This includes seven boys who attend school and sought summer employment. All

but three were referred to jobs and received role training for the job interview before being sent to apply. A total of thirty-eight full time jobs were found for the boys. Twelve were placed once, seven were placed twice and four were placed three times. All sixteen boys attending school were given counselling and placement assistance by the Board of Education personnel of the City of New York and by the Placement Director, Berkshire Industrial Farm.

RESULTS

The major respect in which the Berkshire Farm After-Care program differs from others is in its emphasis on Role Training both as a kind of group therapy and as an individual learning device. No attempt is being made at this time to compare the results obtained with those of any other treatment facility. A research project to compare the outcome of the Berkshire Farm program with that of any other treatment facility would be extremely difficult to design because there would always be some doubt as to whether or not the subjects used would be a common or comparable population (7). Since admission to Berkshire Farm requires the action of its intake committee, a selective factor is added which cannot be corrected statistically. Nevertheless, it appears that the subjects of this study do not differ significantly from the boys returned to New York City by other correctional institutions in age, racial composition, type of offense or family situation. Table II presents a residential pattern of the boys returned to New York City.

TABLE II
RESIDENTIAL PATTERN OF BOYS ON AFTER-CARE

With Whom Residing	Number of Boys
Both parents	8
One parent and step-parent	4
One parent	12
Other family	9
Alone (furnished room)	7
Total	40

Since the objective of all correctional procedure is the rehabilitation of offenders, recidivism should be a general measure of the effectiveness of a correctional program. Weeks defined as a recidivist one who for any reason was returned to court and/or violated probation or parole and as a result was committed to an institution. Boys called into court and admonished or

warned but not re-committed are not recidivists or failures by this definition. (8) Accepting this definition, there have been two recidivists or failures out of the forty subjects on After-Care in the last eighteen months. In addition, two others were taken back to Berkshire Farm for short periods of time for further treatment after delinquent acts.

Another index of rehabilitation is adjustment to work situations. Table III shows the length of time jobs were held. It is common knowledge that adolescents are restless and change jobs frequently. Furthermore, delinquents generally do not have work habits conducive to steady employment. According to these figures over half the group had made an excellent occupational adjustment. Of the eleven who have held jobs for less than six months, two were placed on their first jobs four months ago and are still employed on those jobs.

TABLE III
LENGTH OF TIME ON JOB OF BOYS ON AFTER-CARE

Length of Time on Job	Number of Boys
One year or more	6
Six months to one year	7
Less than 6 months	11
Total	24

Salaries are another indication of occupational adjustment. Thirteen of the boys are employed at salaries between \$40 and \$50 per week, somewhere close to the minimum wage. However, nine of the boys are earning between \$50 and \$60 per week, and two others are earning over \$60 per week.

Adjustment to school is another index of rehabilitation. Table IV shows the number of boys attending school, attending school and working part-

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF BOYS ATTENDING SCHOOL AND/OR WORKING BY RACE

	Negro	White	Total
Attending School only	8	4	12
Attending School and Working Part-time	3	1	4
Working only	7	6	13
Working and Attending Evening School	7	4	11
Total	25	15	40

time, working full-time, working full-time and attending evening school. There is no significant difference in work or school patterns between Negro and White boys.

Ten of the boys are expected to graduate from high school and are in day-time attendance. At least six of the boys that are attending evening schools are expected to reach high school graduation. Two of the boys have not adjusted to school and continue to create truancy problems. Four of the forty subjects are not now residing with the families with which they were placed. Three of the four presented their home problems in group sessions and made some effort to adjust to their family situations. For better or for worse they decided to leave home and were granted assistance in relocating.

What about the failures? One of the two boys that failed is White and Catholic, the other is Negro and Protestant. Both were away from the farm over eighteen months at the time of their delinquency. Neither participated in group sessions. An attempt was made to give one of the two role training to prepare him for job interviews but he was unable to play the role of any other person. This particular individual had an IQ of 70 and read at the third grade level at the age of seventeen. It is felt that the after-care program was no help to this boy. As for the other, a difficult home situation contributed greatly to his re-institutionalization. He was re-committed upon the complaint of his mother that he stayed out late at night and refused to obey her. This incorrigible behavior convinced a judge that he could not stay in his home. There was no other home available to him.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The recidivist rate of the boys returned to New York City and supervised in its after-care program must be considered low by any standards. The adjustment to work situations appears excellent for over half the group and about average for the rest. School adjustment appears satisfactory in all but two cases. No attempt can be made, on the data available, to evaluate family adjustment.

Since the after-care services were made available to all Berkshire Farm boys returning to New York City, it is impossible to determine to what degree the results obtained may be attributed to the residential treatment and to what degree to the after-care program. Even if this were possible, we would have no way of evaluating the effect produced by each aspect of the after-care program. Assistance in finding employment, in school placement, and in family adjustment are all important factors in influencing contact with

non-delinquent patterns. Role Training may also have had an important bearing in producing successful social and personal adjustment. A study comparing the adjustment of boys returning from two correctional schools, one of which supplied after-care services including Role Training, and the other identical after-care services without Role Training, would enable us to evaluate the effect of the Role Training given. The Highfields research demonstrated one way in which this can be done.(8)

At this time, it is the writer's feeling that the Berkshire Industrial Farm program clearly demonstrates that effective after-care services enhance the possibilities for successful rehabilitation of adolescent delinquents.

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RECENT DEVELOPMENT OF PSYCHODRAMA AND HYPNODRAMA IN JAPAN

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1. *Introduction*

Almost ten years have passed since the theory of psychodrama and dramatic psychotherapy and their techniques were first introduced to Japan. In this country it usually takes a fairly long time for a new clinical technique to be accepted by clinical practitioners and the first few steps of psychodrama and dramatic psychotherapy were also rather slow.

So excellent, however, were the introductions of them in their early phase, that they were well understood by psychologists, psychiatrists, case workers and school teachers. This is why these people gave a big welcome to the recent attempts of clinical application of the theory. Recently rapid development of psychodrama in various clinical fields has taken place.

2. *Historical Overview*

In 1950, Moreno's idea of psychodrama was first introduced to Japan as one of the projective techniques by Sotobayashi (23) in his book entitled "Psychodiagnostics of Personality," in which he translated the term "psychodrama" literally into Japanese "shinri-geki."

Having called on Moreno at his institute on his trip to the United States, he published a booklet in 1955 in which he wrote a fairly long introduction of Moreno's theory and technique of psychodrama and added his criticism of it, from the point of view of Gestalt psychology and psychoanalysis.

Matsumura (12, 16), also introducing Moreno's theory and technique in the following year, started his study of the effects of improvised drama with the co-operations of his students at his clinic.

About the same time, many others also began to study psychodramatic practice in their own organizations. Among these were Fukuoka, Ishii and Naruse, who studied its application to psychotherapy in clinical counseling, or to educational guidance from various points of view.

These studies were separately done in their clinics, classrooms, laboratories and hospitals. Although the main aim of these studies had been merely to produce freely improvised drama, these basic experiments promoted further development of psychodrama in this country.

In 1956, establishing a research center for psychodrama in the Japan School of Social Work, Sotobayashi, Matsumura, Ishii and others began to co-operate to develop this technique further. Having about seventy trained specialists as its members, the center has been publishing the annual journal "shinri-geki Kenkyu" (Japanese Journal of Psychodrama) since 1957. In this center the members have been studying the psychodrama most actively under the management of Ishii.

At about the same time, clinical application of psychodrama began to be practiced in this country in various fields. Since then the literature on this topic has remarkably increased. The following is a brief survey of the main field of study in Japan.

3. *Recent Trends of Study in Japan*

In Japan, psychodrama was first studied by following Moreno's theory and techniques. In recent literature, however, a few improvements are to be seen. Some consideration has been given especially to the process of warming up of role taking. One of them is the utilization of buzz method in group discussion preceding the dramatization (17). This utilization proved to be effective in shortening the process of warming up to action. Tokita (31, 32) stated the efficacy of letting children talk about their fantasies of the drama about to be enacted.

Sotobayashi (25) theoretically considered interpersonal relationship, especially the triangular relationships among director, auxiliary ego and patient or client. In this connection Matsumura (13) recommended the technique of psychodramatic interview in the clinic, and reported its utility for parents in infant-counseling.

Taking notice of the psychodramatic utilization of the doll technique for the infant, Kamitake, Takano and Inoue (9) applied psychodramatic doll drama as a special technique of doll play to study aggressive behavior in the infant. By developing this technique for improvement of parent-child relationship, Tatsuno, Furuya and Aida (30) obtained fair success in child guidance at the Psychological Clinic, Tokyo University of Education. Ishii (6) reported the great usefulness of doll psychodrama for infant counseling in the Child Guidance Clinic, Japan School of Social Work.

4. *Hypnodrama*

Noticing the clinical value of psychodrama under hypnosis, Naruse (19-21) introduced Moreno's hypnodrama and Wolberg's modified hypnodrama. Takahashi (29) reported a remarkable effect of this technique in the

therapy of children's unbalanced diet. The present technical problem of hypnodrama is how to warm up to psychodrama after hypnosis has been induced.

5. *Clinical Application of Psychodrama*

(a) *In Hospitals*

Psychodrama for the purpose of psychotherapy of psychoses has not been as successful as it has been in the other fields of its clinical application in Japan. Only one study is reported by Kashima (10), who found that schizophrenic patients' attitudes to nurses and other patients was markedly improved. According to the information given to the author (18), there are four hospitals in which work similar to Kashima's is in progress for psychosis.

(b) *In the Classroom*

Psychodramatic practice in the classroom is one of the most active and also the most promising areas in Japan. Especially, Fukuoka (2, 3) examined the effect of sociodramatic psychodrama on the interpersonal relationship among children in his classroom for the first time in Japan. Thereafter, he (31-33) reported a diagnostic technique of interpersonal relationships between classrooms. Nishi (22) measured the efficacy of psychodrama on human relationship in her class, in combination with sociometric techniques.

Misumi (18), Suzuki (27) and others are attempting to apply role playing and group decision in the course of civic education in the secondary school. Isobe (8) reported the therapeutic effect of psychodrama and role-playing behavior on feeble-minded children.

(c) *In Child Guidance Clinics*

The most excellent literature on psychodrama in this country is in relation to the studies in child guidance clinics. Sotobayashi and Ishii (26) of the Child Guidance Clinic, Japan School of Social Work, Matsumura and his co-workers (1, 11, 14, 28) of the Child Guidance Clinic, Ochia-no-mizu Women's University, and Kamitake, Tatsuno and their collaborators (9, 30) of the Psychological Clinic, Tokyo University of Education, each reported the therapeutic results of psychodrama or doll drama. Takahashi (29) and his workers reported successful results of hypnodramatic therapy applied to children's unbalanced diet and enuresis in the Psychological Clinic, Tokyo University of Education.

(d) *Miscellaneous*

Matsumura (15) utilized psychodrama to train sales women at toy counters in a department store. Tsubuku (34) attempted dramatic role-playing techniques to vocational guidance in the secondary school.

6. Conclusion

Today, ten years after the first introduction of Moreno's psychodrama into Japan, this method has come to the point of beginning its practical application in various clinical fields. It will take some more years therefore, before the more detailed clinical results can be obtained. It is expected that a large number of practitioners of psychodrama will be trained in Japan to resolve many problems involved in this method, such as how to be a director or auxiliary ego, and how and to what kind of cases psychodrama, doll drama or hypnodrama is to be applied.

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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.

CONCERNING THE ORIGIN OF THE TERMS GROUP THERAPY AND GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY*

Editor, THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHIATRY:

SIR: In a review of Corsini's *Methods of Group Psychotherapy*, in the March 1959 issue of this Journal, p. 840, Mr. Illing says: "Moreno claims for himself the first coinage of the term 'group psychotherapy' (1932), without, however, substantiating his claim, although he cites many 'witnesses' for his testimony, such as William Alanson White, Winfred Overholser, Pierre Renouvier, S. H. Foulkes. . . ."

Here follows the record in my *own* publications: *Application of the Group Method to Classification*, Congressional Library, No. 32-26884, Publisher: National Committee on Prisons, New York, 1931-32, a chapter "Concerning Group Therapy," pp. 60-61; "Illustration of Group Therapeutics," pp. 74-76; "Group Therapy in an Institution of the Insane," pp. 77-79; "Definition of Group Therapy," p. 103.

The *Group Method* monograph was the topic of a Round Table at the annual meeting of the APA, May 31, 1932, Moderator: William A. White. At this meeting the term "group psychotherapy" was first given currency by the author.

The term "group psychotherapy" is recorded in my book *Who Shall Survive?* with a Foreword by Wm. White, Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., Washington, D. C., First edition, 1934, Congressional Library No. 34-18502; see p. 437, referring to chapter "Group Psychotherapy," and the definition, p. 301, "Group therapy treats not only the individual who is the focus of attention because of maladjustment, but the whole group of individuals who are interrelated."

Group psychotherapy owed its emergence to sociometry and small group dynamics which was expounded by the author between 1931 and 34; he formulated group therapy as a scientific methodology with the help of Drs. White, Whitin, Branham and Jennings. There have been forerunners of pre-scientific group methods in the U. S. A. and Europe before 1931. The most important influence came from Vienna since 1909. Many of these methods (psychodrama, 1911, interaction methods, 1913, psychodrama combined with group therapy, 1923) have been launched by this author and described in his German books.

* Reprinted by permission from *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, Vol. 116, No. 2, Aug., 1959.

It is farfetched to trace the origins of group psychotherapy to European sociologists. One could equally quote American sociologists. Every new idea has forerunners but the moment of emergence of the scientific group psychotherapy movement into scientific history, its *kairos*, was the year 1932, within the fold of the American Psychiatric Association.

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BOOK REVIEWS

A STATEMENT

It is a privilege to assume the position of Book Review Editor of The Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama Journal. Several ideas occur that we would like briefly to share with our ever-expanding reader audience. The interest in group psychotherapy and psychodrama has deepened rapidly in recent years. At the same time, the increase in literature from related fields should not be overlooked. Since many diverse publications will be coming to our attention, we do hope to exercise some selectivity in the material that is reviewed and, at the same time, to maintain a broad perspective, as a service to our readers. It is our conviction that the group psychotherapy-psychodrama movement has made indisputable inroads on other disciplines. For this reason, it is incumbent on us to remain informed about topics and issues arising in the overall mental health, sociological, and education fields.

We wish to invite suggestions from readers, and, in fact, would welcome names of persons who would like to be included as reviewers. If you will specify your particular areas of competence and interest, we will be glad to consider sending you books to review.

EUGENE ELIASOPH, *Book Review Editor*
Berkshire Farm for Boys
Canaan, New York

SIGMUND FREUD: MAN AND FATHER. By Martin Freud. The Vanguard Press, 1958.

On reading this volume, this reviewer is left with mixed impressions. One feels the need to sit down with the author (Martin Freud) to ask him some questions—i.e.—Was your father as objective, controlled, and proper as you depict him to be? Are you, Martin Freud, as naive and unsophisticated in psychoanalytical spheres as you depict yourself to be?

Hopefully, Sigmund Freud's son would answer in the negative to both queries, but, one wonders, as this engrossing, human account unfolds, whether or not the desire for a negative response is perhaps wishful thinking. Dr. Freud emerges as a man who is almost rigidly controlled, whose displays of emotion are noted as unusual exceptions by his eldest son. There is, too, a feeling of lack of closeness between father and son, which perhaps has culturally founded overtones—in the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the

more authoritarian, Victorian-like family spirit prevailed. This factor, too, emerges as significant, that Dr. Freud was deeply entrenched in the morals and values of his day, and his fatherland. This was no rebel in the social sense, but, in fact, a man who observed traditions, and mores to the hilt.

Martin Freud writes with deep respect and reverence for his father, but, too, with a certain underlying feeling of hostility toward him. We might speculate that Martin's need to stay close to his father's house in his late adolescence, even when given the opportunity to go away to school, is indicative of unresolved Oedipal problems with a father who towered over everyone else around in intellectual and even physical prowess. It is interesting that Martin notes how father was always the most successful, and always the winner, even in family games.

We must, however, in summing up this book, give the author an accolade for revealing himself, and unselfishly sharing with us the accounts of his experiences with his father and his family. Without doubt, if we look deeply into Mr. Freud's motives for writing this account, which would be interesting to speculate about, we will miss much of the importance of the work. Suffice it to say, the book is highly recommended as an interesting excursion into the family background and atmosphere out of which arose the works of a genius.

EUGENE ELIASOPH

September, 1959

SMALL-GROUP DISCUSSION IN ORIENTATION AND TEACHING. By Randall W. Hoffman and Robert Plutchick. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1959.

The presentation of a concept gains clarity when set in the framework of a practical situation. Hoffman and Plutchick have achieved such clarity of presentation by describing a small group approach to teaching, with a college orientation class as the setting. Their description draws heavily on their experience with a freshman orientation program at Hofstra College, New York.

The beginning of the book gives an overview of orientation courses. It has a dull start, then picks up with a discussion of the authors' opinion that the "purpose of orientation is, simply, to increase the student's receptivity to the total college experience." They believe that this purpose can be achieved best by modifying a student's attitudes concerning areas such as "The Place of Education in Life," "Increased Self-Knowledge,"

and "The Improvement of Academic Skills." It is from this point of view that they discuss activities for the small-group leader, and the climate for an orientation class. There is a very helpful discussion of the structure of the class, and techniques to facilitate group development. The discussion delineates the role of the group leader, and indicates what might be expected from the class. It is supplemented with significant chapters about individual counseling, and group-centered teaching for other courses. There is an appendix containing material useful to the instructor, such as: bibliographies; source lists of teaching aids; sample forms for evaluations and reports.

Unfortunately, the tone of the book is in strong contrast to the information it contains. Although the authors are undoubtedly committed to a group-centered approach, they have not absorbed a basic tenet of group-centered (or client-centered) theory—i.e.—The individual should take responsibility for his own development. They say that outside help should enable one to develop and use his own resources, and yet they write as though one must use their methods and materials. The air of authority is especially evident when they tell the orientation leader how to show acceptance of everyone in his group. They present general rules which "may serve as a guide" in much the same way that a directive counselor guides a student by rigid interpretation of test scores. For example, "Not by work nor gesture nor expression should the group leader dismiss one statement as less important than another, or accept a statement as more important than another." Such advice is both restrictive and threatening. A group leader may feel that when he shows that everything is of equal importance he is really showing that nothing has value. Writing of this sort limits the ability of the reader to assume responsibility for developing a personal approach to group-centered leadership.

Considering both the style and content of the book, it should prove most useful to someone who is able to supplement it with another view of group-centered leadership. It can be the first step for those who would make use of the well selected references for balance. It can also provide a fairly comprehensive summary for those who have previous knowledge in this field.

LEONARD FELDMAN, *Assistant Professor of
Mathematics and Education, San Jose State
College, San Jose, California*

FATHER TO THE CHILD. By Everett S. Ostrovsky. G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959.

This book serves well to emphasize the trigger points in a child's daily life and experience that might affect the emotional and thinking patterns of each particular case history.

The aim of the book is to probe the meaning of the role of the father by observing what happens to children who are, to varying degrees, deprived of the father's presence. Equally, the aim is to observe the effect on such children when a male adult (such as a male teacher) assumes a prominent place in their environment.

Eight case histories are presented here—studies made in the classroom—in which the developmental pattern of the child's attitude is traced, his actions and utterances insofar as they concern this problem under study.

Dr. Ostrovsky probes a timely study involving such present-day cases as the widow's family, the divorcee's family, the travelling salesman's family, the phantom father. It seems to the reviewer that the age old primordial problem needs to be explored more in each child; that is, the root need of family protection of love of feeling wanted. The need stems not so much from the child's immediate position in its particular family—as the author seems to stress—but from its feeling of insecurity in its own immature ability to handle its personal problems in a cosmic world—that impinges on its particular family pattern.

In this book the question is also studied on whether "Mom-ism" in view of reduced father participation in the family is capable of projecting and transmitting the father's values to the child.

In the general analysis, each case history is more complex than the situation appears in the classroom—this reviewer feels—and it is therefore important to know more about the tensions relating to other areas in the child's life than just its father-mother relationship. The broader study would include the child's ethnic and physical environments which are of deep importance, his social position, his creative responses, his ability to equate the experiential factors in his environment in his learning and achievement processes, and the biochemistry of his root family inheritance. All are important. These are deep studies.

The book, "Father to the Child," therefore opens up broad areas for further study—especially since there is evidence also apparent in our present-day society—that the mother is capable of and has the ability to carry out the role of transmitting the father's values to the child.

September, 1959

PAULA ELIASOPH

THE NEW PSYCHIATRY. By Nathan Masor, M.D. Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. 148 pp.

The New Psychiatry offers some potential bio-chemical solutions to the treatment of mental disturbance. As the title of Dr. Masor's book implies, there is also an old psychiatry. This once venerable profession, here condemned as being frequently harmful and ineffectual, is attacked, dismantled, slaughtered and left on the field of battle with nary a Freudian wheeze to sustain itself. In its stead we are offered thyroid and vitamins, usually B complex, formerly brewer's yeast. The rigors of analysis (transference, abreaction, understanding of past psychic trauma) can, it is said, give way to a quicker, more effective means of treatment.

Put simply, the theme of Dr. Masor's book is built around the observation that "the origin of affective groups of the more nervous ailments as well as the major neuroses, are chemically motivated rather than psychological; that the latter forces are merely ancillary components that amplify the effects of the disease." There is considerable evidence presented to substantiate that bio-chemical treatment has successfully alleviated symptoms of some emotional disturbances. Whether or not convincing proof exists that the disorders themselves are chemically based is a questionable matter the reader will have to determine to his own satisfaction. The treatment Dr. Masor advocates is occasionally accompanied by a form of ego supportive psychotherapy only after the patient has benefited from the symptom relief afforded him by medical treatment.

Considering that many of the findings pertaining to biochemistry and endocrinology as they relate to mental illness are of very recent origin, the vociferousness of Dr. Masor's criticism of psychoanalysis and allied therapies as treatments of choice is more than audacious. Group therapists will be interested to know that while they are not usually harmful to their patients, they pack the punch of a mildly therapeutic kaffee klatch.

We have had sufficient evidence during the past half century to indicate that a number of methods will be used to treat the mentally ill. Dr. Masor offers us some news about one of the newer approaches which is worthy of our interest.

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THE AMERICAN SOCIETY OF GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY AND PSYCHODRAMA

Annual Meeting, 1960

The Annual Meeting of the American Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama will take place at the Barbizon Plaza Hotel, New York City, from April 27th to April 29th, 1960. Kindly address all papers and communications to Miss Hannah B. Weiner, 1323 Avenue N., Brooklyn 30, N. Y.

Annual Meeting, New York Chapter

The Annual Meeting of the New York Chapter, American Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama will take place on Friday, Saturday and Sunday, November 20, 21, and 22, 1959, at the Henry Hudson Hotel, 353 West 57 Street, New York, N. Y.

A Psychodrama Theater at Berkshire Farm for Boys

In 1955 the first demonstrations of psychodrama with delinquent boys at Berkshire Farm for Boys were held. Since the method seemed to lend itself well to working with this population, regular psychodrama sessions were conducted. The psychodrama program was integrated into the overall clinical treatment program. Increased interest by staff and boys, led to setting up a special room which was also used for group meetings, and staff conferences. In 1959, this room was converted into a psychodrama theater with a semi-circular stage placed at one end of the room, with moveable chairs set up with a capacity for 35 persons.

The psychodrama technique has proven extremely useful for our work with delinquent boys as well as dealing with staff problems. Several staff persons have been trained "in situ" to perform auxiliary therapist roles. Many outside visitors have sat in on sessions, as well as institutional personnel.

In keeping with Berkshire Farm for Boys expanding program, a new clinical building is contemplated in 1962. Plans for this building include a fully equipped psychodrama theater.

Perhaps this represents the first institution for delinquents in which such a program has been adopted, with incorporation of psychodrama into the total program, and with a specially designated theater included in the program set-up.

Academy of Psychodrama and Group Psychotherapy

The Program for 1960 will run as follows:

IIInd, Christmas Academy: December 27, 1959 through January 9, 1960—A Two Week Period.

IIIrd, Easter Academy: April 16 through 29, 1960—A Two Week Period.

IVth, Independence Academy: July 2 through 22, 1960—A Three Week Period.

Vth, August Academy: August 6 through 26, 1960—A Three Week Period.

Registration Fee: \$5.00 (not refundable, but credited towards the enrollment fee).

Enrollment Fee:

Three-day Workshop (the first three days of a current Academy)	\$ 75.00
One-week Seminar	140.00
Two-week Seminar	260.00
Three-week Seminar	350.00

General Information: Participants may enroll for any period. To assure admission the registration fee should be mailed with the enrollment blank. Enrollments taken now. Registration cannot be assured without remittance in full at least two weeks prior to start of Academy. Write to Academy of Psychodrama and Group Psychotherapy, Moreno Institute, 259 Wolcott Avenue, Beacon, New York.

Psychodrama Course

This is to be an eight weeks course on Psychodrama commencing January 11th, 1960 through March 1st, 1960. The place is the Moreno Institute, 106 East 41st Street, New York, N.Y. and the time is Monday evening from 7:45 to 9:00 p.m. The fee is \$50 per person payable before January 4th. There is a registration fee of \$5.00 not refundable but credited towards enrollment. Kindly send registration fee to Moreno Institute, P.O. Box 311, Beacon, N.Y.

MINUTES OF THE COUNCIL MEETING OF THE NEW YORK SOCIETY OF GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY AND PSYCHODRAMA

Held at the Hotel Commodore, New York City on April 25, 1959
at 5:30 P.M.

A meeting of the New York Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama was held at the Hotel Commodore in New York City on April 25, 1959 at 5:30 P.M.

Present:

Dr. Robert S. Drews, President
Dr. Lewis Yablonsky, President-elect
Dr. Joseph I. Meiers, Council Member
Dr. Wellman J. Warner, Council Member
Dr. Helen Hall Jennings, Past President, by invitation
Zerka T. Moreno, Treasurer
Hannah Weiner, Secretary
Marguerite Parrish, Council Member
Henry Feinberg, Public Relations, by invitation
J. L. Moreno, Past President

The meeting was called to order by Dr. Drews. The Secretary and Treasurer's minutes were waived to the business meeting to be held the next day at the New York Institute of Psychodrama and Group Psychotherapy.

Items on the agenda were:

1. Whether or not to maintain membership status in the World Federation for Mental Health.
2. Location and theme for the annual conference in 1960.
3. The appointment of members to fellowship status.
4. Amendments to the constitution.
5. The condition of the journal.

Dr. Drews opened the meeting by recognizing Dr. Meiers who presented an amendment to the constitution, that there be two vice presidents appointed to office. There was considerable discussion concerning the advisability of the addition of the office of first and second vice president to the society.

After the discussion Dr. Warner made a motion that Dr. Meiers, Dr.

Moreno and Dr. Yablonsky study the advisability of having one or two regionally located vice presidents. He suggested they make recommendations to the council by mail. Marguerite Parrish seconded the motion. All were in favor and the motion was carried.

Dr. Moreno expressed the idea that the present constitution does not suit the needs of the society now that the group is larger. Miss Weiner called to the attention of the council members the fact that the constitution is outmoded, outdated and ineffective. She suggested that copies of the amended constitution be set up and sent to the membership at large. Dr. Yablonsky explained that he plans to have a committee study the matter and bring conclusions to the next meeting; the committee to be concerned with the constitution will be appointed at a later date. Dr. Drews suggested that Dr. Moreno be on the committee. It was suggested that the past president and an attorney also be present.

Dr. Warner reported on the developments on the international level. Representatives from each country having group psychotherapy are being brought together to plan for the next international congress which will be in Paris in 1961.

Programming for the next meeting was then discussed. It was suggested that the program should be more definite and that letters to the participants should definitely indicate the time allotted to them to present their paper. It was also suggested that the Program Chairman should have more help and that more responsibility should be given to the chairmen of each section. The final program shall be mailed by February 1st. The place of the meeting shall be New York City. The time of the meeting was not definitely indicated but it was recommended that it be not too close to the American Psychiatric Association meeting held in April.

Fellowship status was then discussed and the following recommendations were made:

Calvert Stein, M.D.—Hannah Weiner
Paul Johnson, Minister—Dr. Moreno
Jack Ward, M.D.—Dr. Yablonsky
Eugene Eliasoph—Dr. Moreno
Frederick Pearls, Ph.D.—Dr. Moreno
Goodwin Watson—Dr. Warner
Cecelia Wells—Dr. Drews

Miss Weiner reminded the council that fellowship status is now an award based on contribution and outstanding merit in the field of group psychotherapy and psychodrama and not an automatic choice.

It was recommended that the names not be voted on at this time and that action be completed by the new president. Dr. Drews suggested that there be some type of ceremony at such time as the fellowships are conferred.

Dr. Moreno recommended that the group establish an honorary award. Miss Weiner pointed out that such an award is technically in the constitution but has not been put into effect for the past five years. It was decided that criteria be established for making decisions in this area and that the names be submitted prior to meeting time.

The journal was discussed and it was felt that a special section in each journal should be devoted to the organization.

The importance of press conferences and public relations was discussed. It was agreed that the society should send a delegate to the annual meeting of the American Psychological Society and the American Psychiatric Association.

It was moved and seconded that the council meeting be adjourned.

Minutes respectfully submitted by Hannah Weiner and Marguerite Parrish, for Hannah Weiner.

NEW BOOKS IN THE FIELD OF SOCIOMETRY, GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY AND PSYCHODRAMA

Sociometry, Experimental Method and the Science of Society, by J. L. Moreno, in Russian translation, with a special introduction by Professor M. Baxumov, published by the USSR Dept. of Foreign Literature, Moscow, 1958, pp. 292.

About A "Newest New" Social Utopia, Critical Notes about Microsociology and Sociometry, in Russian, by M. Baxitof, published by The Department of Socio-Economic Literature, Moscow, 1958, pp. 152.

Gruppenpsychotherapie und Psychodrama, by J. L. Moreno, in German, published by Georg Thieme Verlag, Stuttgart, Germany, 1959, pp. 340. Forthcoming in French translation to be published by the Presses Universitaires de France, Paris, 1960. English translation to be published by Grune & Stratton, New York.

The Sociometry Reader, Edited by Jacob L. Moreno, with Robert R. Blake, Merl E. Bonney, Joan H. Criswell, Helen H. Jennings, Leo Katz, Charles P. Loomis, Jane S. Mouton, Jiri Nehnevajsa, Mary L. Northway, Charles Proctor, Renato Tagiuri, The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois, 1960.

ACADEMY OF PSYCHODRAMA AND GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY

ANNOUNCES

A Special Meeting to take place on Sunday, May 8, 1960 Preceding the Annual Meeting of the American Psychiatric Association, May 9-13, 1960, Hotel Traymore, Atlantic City.

Program Chairman: Zerka T. Moreno

A morning, luncheon, afternoon and evening program is in preparation.

For information and participation in the program, write to: P.O. Box 311, Beacon, N.Y.

PSYCHODRAMA AND GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY MONOGRAPHS

- No. 2. Psychodramatic Treatment of Performance Neurosis—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 3. The Theatre of Spontaneity—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$5.00)
- No. 4. Spontaneity Test and Spontaneity Training—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 5. Psychodramatic Shock Therapy—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 6. Mental Catharsis and the Psychodrama—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 7. Psychodramatic Treatment of Marriage Problems—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 8. Spontaneity Theory of Child Development—J. L. Moreno and Florence B. Moreno (List Price—\$2.50)
- No. 9. Reality Practice in Education—Alvin Zander, Ronald Lippitt and Charles E. Hendry (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 11. Psychodrama and Therapeutic Motion Pictures—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 13. A Case of Paranoia Treated Through Psychodrama—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 14. Psychodrama as Expressive and Projective Technique—John del Torto and Paul Cornyetz (List Price—\$1.75)
- No. 15. Psychodramatic Treatment of Psychoses—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 16. Psychodrama and the Psychopathology of Inter-Personal Relations—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$2.50)
- No. 17. Origins and Development of Group Psychotherapy—Joseph L. Meiers
(List Price—\$2.25)
- No. 18. Psychodrama in an Evacuation Hospital—Ernest Fantel
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 19. The Group Method in the Treatment of Psychosomatic Disorders—Joseph H. Pratt (List Price—\$1.75)
- No. 21. The Future of Man's World—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 22. Psychodrama in the Home—Rosemary Lippitt (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 23. Open Letter to Group Psychotherapists—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 24. Psychodrama Explores a Private World—Margherita A. MacDonald
(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 25. Action Counseling and Process Analysis, A Psychodramatic Approach—Robert B. Haas (List Price—\$2.50)
- No. 26. Psychodrama in the Counseling of Industrial Personnel—Ernest Fantel
(List Price—\$1.50)
- No. 27. Hypnodrama and Psychodrama—J. L. Moreno and James M. Enneis
(List Price—\$3.75)
- No. 28. The Prediction of Interpersonal Behavior in Group Psychotherapy—Timothy Leary and Hubert S. Coffey (List Price—\$2.75)
- No. 29. The Bibliography of Group Psychotherapy, 1906-1956—Raymond J. Corsini and Lloyd Putzey (List Price—\$3.50)
- No. 30. The First Book of Group Psychotherapy—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$3.50)
- No. 31. Ethics of Group Psychotherapy and the Hippocratic Oath—J. L. Moreno et al.
(List Price—\$2.50)
- No. 32. Psychodrama, Vol. II—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$7.75)
- No. 33. The Group Psychotherapy Movement and J. L. Moreno, Its Pioneer and Founder—Pierre Renouvier (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 34. The Discovery of the Spontaneous Man—J. L., Zerka and Jonathan Moreno
(List Price—\$2.25)
- No. 35. Group Psychotherapy and the Function of the Unconscious—J. L. Moreno
(List Price—\$2.00)

SOCIOMETRY MONOGRAPHS

- No. 2. Sociometry and the Cultural Order—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$1.75)
- No. 3. Sociometric Measurements of Social Configurations—J. L. Moreno and Helen H. Jennings (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 6. The Measurement of Sociometric Status, Structure and Development—Bronfenbrenner (List Price—\$2.75)
- No. 7. Sociometric Control Studies of Grouping and Regrouping—J. L. Moreno and Helen H. Jennings (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 8. Diagnosis of Anti-Semitism—Gustav Ichheiser (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 9. Popular and Unpopular Children, A Sociometric Study—Merl E. Bonney (List Price—\$2.75)
- No. 11. Personality and Sociometric Status—Mary L. Northway, Ester B. Frankel and Reva Potashin (List Price—\$2.75)
- No. 15. Sociometric Structure of a Veterans' Cooperative Land Settlement—Henrik F. Infield (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 16. Political and Occupational Cleavages in a Hanoverian Village, A Sociometric Study—Charles P. Loomis (List Price—\$1.75)
- No. 17. The Research Center for Group Dynamics—Kurt Lewin, with a professional biography and bibliography of Kurt Lewin's work by Ronald Lippitt (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 18. Interaction Patterns in Changing Neighborhoods: New York and Pittsburgh—Paul Deutschberger (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 19. Critique of Class as Related to Social Stratification—C. P. Loomis, J. A. Beegle, and T. W. Longmore (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 20. Sociometry, 1937-1947: Theory and Methods—C. P. Loomis and Harold B. Pepinsky (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 21. The Three Branches of Sociometry—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$1.25)
- No. 22. Sociometry, Experimental Method and the Science of Society—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$7.75)
- No. 23. History of the Sociometric Movement in Headlines—Zerka T. Moreno (List Price—\$0.40)
- No. 24. The Sociometric Approach to Social Casework—J. L. Moreno (List Price—single issue, \$0.25; ten or more, \$0.15)
- No. 25. The Accuracy of Teachers' Judgments Concerning the Sociometric Status of Sixth-Grade Pupils—Norman E. Gronlund (List Price—\$2.75)
- No. 26. An Analysis of Three Levels of Response: An Approach to Some Relationships Among Dimensions of Personality—Edgar F. Borgatta (List Price—\$2.75)
- No. 27. Group Characteristics as Revealed in Sociometric Patterns and Personality Ratings—Thomas B. Lemann and Richard L. Solomon (List Price—\$3.50)
- No. 28. The Sociometric Stability of Personal Relations Among Retarded Children—Hugh Murray (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 29. Who Shall Survive?, Foundations of Sociometry, Group Psychotherapy and Sociodrama—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$12.50)
- No. 30. Sociometric Choice and Organizational Effectiveness—Fred Massarik, Robert Taannenbaum, Murray Kahane and Irving Weschler—(List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 31. Task and Accumulation of Experience as Factors in the Interaction of Small Groups—Edgar F. Borgatta and Robert F. Bales (List Price—\$1.50)
- No. 32. Sociometric Studies of Combat Air Crews in Survival Training—Mario Levi, E. Paul Torrance, Gilbert O. Pletts (List Price—\$1.50)
- No. 33. The Validity of Sociometric Responses—Jane Srygley Mouton, Robert R. Blake and Benjamin Fruchter (List Price—\$1.50)
- No. 34. Preludes to My Autobiography—J. L. Moreno (List Price—\$2.00)
- No. 35. Group Training vs. Group Therapy—Robert R. Blake (Ed.) (List Price—\$3.50)
- No. 36. Role Playing in Industry—Ted Franks (List Price—\$3.50)
- No. 37. The Methodology of Preferential Sociometry—Ake Bjerstedt (List Price—\$3.50)
- No. 38. The Sociometry of Subhuman Groups—J. L. Moreno, Ed. (List Price—\$3.50)
- No. 39. Definitions of Sociometry—Ake Bjerstedt (List Price—\$2.00)