

Journal of Group Psychotherapy Psychodrama & Sociometry

VOLUME 47, NO. 4
WINTER 1995

19852800 36 CC 9912 001
JAMES SACKS
PSYCHODRAMA CTR OF NEW YORK
71 WASHINGTON PL
NEW YORK NY 10011

Published in Cooperation with the American Society of
Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama

EXECUTIVE EDITORS*

Adam Blatner, MD
Austin, Texas

Linnea Carlson-Sabelli, PhD
Rush-Presbyterian St. Luke's
Medical Center, Chicago

Thomas W. Treadwell, EdD
West Chester University

CONSULTING EDITORS

Alton Barbour, PhD
University of Denver

Monica Leonie Callahan, PhD
Bethesda, Maryland

Priscilla Cody, MSW
Dallas, Texas

Antonina Garcia, EdD
Brookdale Community College

George M. Gazda, EdD
University of Georgia

Claude Guldner, ThD
University of Guelph

Joe W. Hart, EdD
University of Arkansas at
Little Rock

Carl E. Hollander, EdD
Denver, Colorado

Albert M. Honig, DO
Delaware Valley Mental Health
Foundation

Kate Hudgins, PhD
Madison, Wisconsin

Christine Jacobson, PhD
Sherman Oaks, California

David A. Kipper, PhD
Chicago, Illinois

Donna Little, MSW
Toronto, Canada

Jonathan Moreno, PhD
SUNY-Health Science Center at
Brooklyn

Zerka T. Moreno
Beacon, New York

James M. Sacks, PhD
Psychodrama Center of New York

Rex Stockton, EdD
Indiana University

Israel Eli Sturm, PhD
Veterans Medical Center
Lyons, New Jersey

Daniel J. Tomasulo, PhD
Holmdel, New Jersey

Julia Whitney, PhD
San Francisco, California

INTERNATIONAL EDITORS

G. Max Clayton, ThD
Elsternwick, Australia

A. Paul Hare
Beer Sheva, Israel

Marcia Karp, MA
Barnstaple, England

Grete A. Leutz, MD
Uhlandstrasse, West Germany

Founded by J. L. Moreno

Journal of Group Psychotherapy Psychodrama & Sociometry

Volume 47, No.4

ISSN 0731-1273

Winter 1995

Contents

An Issue Devoted to Articles on Sociometry

Thomas Treadwell, guest editor; *Susan Koszalka*
and *Norman Rahn*, assistant guest editors

- | | |
|---|-----|
| Sociometric Intervention in Family Therapy:
A Case Study
<i>Esly Regina Carvalho</i>
<i>Valeria Cristina A. Brito</i> | 147 |
| Sociometric Assessment of Social Integration of
Students From Diverse Backgrounds at a
Nonresidential University
<i>Stephen Dunstone</i>
<i>Angelina Zea</i> | 165 |
| The Use of Sociometry in Teaching at the
University Level
<i>Claude A. Guldner</i>
<i>Penny Stone-Winestock</i> | 177 |
| Book Reviews: <i>Family Reconstruction: Long
Day's Journey Into Light</i> by W. F. Nerin and
<i>Persona and Performance: The Meaning of Role
in Drama, Therapy, and Everyday Life</i>
by R. J. Landy. Reviewed by <i>Adam Blatner</i> | 186 |
| Index to Volume 47 | 191 |

The **Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry** (ISSN 0731-1273) is published quarterly by Heldref Publications, a division of the nonprofit Helen Dwight Reid Educational Foundation, Jeane J. Kirkpatrick, president, 1319 Eighteenth Street, NW, Washington, D.C. 20036-1802 (202-296-6267; fax: 202-296-5149), in conjunction with the American Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama.

Second-class postage paid at Washington, DC, and additional post offices. POSTMASTER: Send address changes to the **Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry**, Heldref Publications, 1319 Eighteenth Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036-1802.

The annual subscription rate is \$64 for institutions and \$40 for individuals. Single-copy price is \$16.00. Add \$9.00 for subscriptions outside the U.S. Allow 6 weeks for shipment of first copy. Foreign subscriptions must be paid in U.S. currency with checks drawn on U.S. banks. Payment can be charged to VISA/ MasterCard. Supply account number, expiration date, and signature. For subscription orders and customer service inquiries only, call 1-800-365-9753. Claims for missing issues made within 6 months will be serviced free of charge.

©1995 by the Helen Dwight Reid Educational Foundation. Copyright is retained by the author where noted. Contact Heldref Publications for copyright permission, or contact the authors if they retain copyright. For permission to photocopy Heldref copyrighted items for classroom use, contact the Copyright Clearance Center (CCC), Academic Permissions Service (508) 750-8400. Copyright Clearance Center (CCC) registered users should contact the Transactional Reporting Service.

The **Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry** is indexed, scanned, or abstracted in *Applied Social Science Index & Abstracts*, *Child Development Abstracts & Bibliography*, *Family Resources Database*, *Health & Psychosocial Instruments*, *Innovation & Research*, *Linguistic & Language Behavior Abstracts*, *Mental Health Abstracts*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *Psych-INFO Database*, *Sociological Abstracts*, and *Social Planning/Policy & Development*.

The **Journal of Group Psychodrama, Psychotherapy and Sociometry** does not accept responsibility for views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions that appear in its pages. It provides opportunities for the publication of materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions.

Reprints (orders of 100 copies or more) of articles in this issue are available through Heldref's Reprint Division. Microform editions of the *Journal of Group Psychodrama, Psychotherapy and Sociometry* are available from University Microfilms, Inc., Serials Acquisition Department, 300 N. Zeeb Rd., Ann Arbor, MI 48106.

HELDREF PUBLICATIONS

Publisher

Walter E. Beach

Editorial Director

Sheila Donoghue

Managing Editor

Helen Kress

Editorial Production Director

Martha G. Franklin

Art Director

Karen Eskew

Typographic Director

Joanne Reynolds

Typographic Assistant

Margaret Buckley

Staff Artist

Carmen Stewart Leon

Editorial Secretary

George Geeva-Ratne

Marketing Director

Barbara Marney

Advertising Director

Raymond M. Rallo

Advertising Coordinator

Stacey R. Reitz

Advertising Assistant

Lara L. Johnson

Circulation Director

Fred Huber

Fulfillment Supervisor

Nate Wooley

Fulfillment Staff

Andrew Turner

Andrea Tuzo

Promotions Director

Kerri Kilbane

Promotions Assistant

Maurita A. Soltis

Business Director

Robert L. Gallagher

Reprints

Lyndon George

Permissions

Mary Jaine Winokur

Accountant

Deborah Frantz

Accounting Assistant

Angela Farquharson

Sociometric Intervention in Family Therapy: A Case Study

ESLY REGINA CARVALHO
VALERIA CRISTINA A. BRITO

ABSTRACT. This is a case study with an alcoholic family in which Moreno's sociometric test was applied with subsequent therapeutic confrontations (Carvalho, 1986). The task was to diagnose the sociometric structure of the family that had been referred to us, pinpoint the areas of conflict and difficulty, and work them through with the use of therapeutic confrontations between family members (Carvalho, 1987). Preliminary results confirm the usefulness of this methodology as an instrument of therapeutic intervention in families. The purpose of this article is to illustrate (a) the speed of application in a family therapeutic setting; (b) the concretizing of family-systems difficulties (conflicts); (c) the format the family can follow when they return home; (d) the concrete "picture" of their own network (sociogram); and (e) the medium for immediate feedback.

MUCH HAS BEEN WRITTEN in the field of family therapy in the last decades and by many different authors—Jay Haley (1976), Virginia Satir (1976), Napier/Whitaker (1978), Salvador Minuchin (1974), and Robert Spitzer (1975), just to name a few. Haley and Hoffman (1967, p. v) made an interesting point when they wrote :

[B]ecause of the variety of ways families are treated, one cannot call family therapy simply a new method of treatment; it is a new way of conceptualizing. . . . If the individual is to change, the context in which he lives must change. The unit of treatment is no longer the person, even if only a single person is interviewed; it is the set of relationships in which the person is imbedded.

Moreno would have agreed with them. He called this "set of relationships in which the person is imbedded" the social atom, or "that nucleus of persons to whom one is connected" (Hale, 1981, p. 17). The individual is born into "a social group, usually the family," that can be referred to as a kind of "social

placenta" (Bermudez, 1970, p. 47). The family can be considered the first identity matrix and possesses the "fundamental task of transmitting the cultural legacy of the group . . . and preparing the individual so that he or she may be incorporated into society" (Bermudez, 1970, p. 47.) The importance and the influence of the family unit cannot be underestimated.

Moreno had treated a couple in the 1920s, and by 1946, he had written about therapy with couples (Moreno, 1977, p. 233). Treating families can be seen as "group psychotherapy," a term he coined in 1934 (Hale, 1981), in which the group is the family. This article describes the first experience we have been able to pinpoint that treats families through the use of sociometry. This is offered as a new way of conceptualizing family therapy—diagnosing family relationships and treating them as a specific kind of "group" psychotherapy. This methodology, described by Carvalho (1986), was used in a more traditional psychodrama/psychotherapy group.

Sociometry and Family Therapy

In this case study involving the family of an alcoholic, the therapists used a sociometric test with subsequent therapeutic confrontations (Carvalho, 1987). The task was to diagnose the sociometric structure of the family according to the methodology (Carvalho, 1987) and, taking it a step further, to work out family relationships through therapeutic confrontations.

The family described came voluntarily to the consulting office with all of its members: father, mother, son, and daughter. The contract with the family required that they be present at all sessions. The sessions were 2 hours long, and the family was required to pay for cancellations. A session did not begin until all of the members were assembled. They could contact us in case of emergencies, if necessary. They were told that this was a kind of brief therapy (usually not longer than 8 to 10 sessions) and that the intrarelations of the family members, along with their strengths and their points of conflict, would be a focusing point. The sessions would also give them the opportunity of discovering new forms of relating to one another.

Criteria

Intimacy (portrayed in this case by sharing secrets) was considered a sign of health or, in sociometric terms, greater group cohesion. It was expected that families would demonstrate greater group cohesion for more superficial relationships (going out) than for the more intimate ones. If the family sociograms portrayed significant results in the more intimate criteria, one would expect better intrarelations in the family. Hale has reported Moreno's explanation of better intrarelations:

Moreno coined the word *tele* to describe that current of feeling which flows between two persons. Tele, an abstraction, is responsible for reciprocity, mutuality and cohesion in groups. . . . Tele exists when the perception one has of another matches the perception that person has of him/herself. (Hale, 1981, p. 11)

The family was tested by using the following sociometric instrument:

1. Whom would I choose from among my family members as the person with whom I would want to go out and enjoy myself? (The perceptual test was: How do I think I was chosen by the different family members?)
2. With whom from among my family members would I choose to share a secret? (The perceptual test was: How do I think my family members chose me?)

Imposing the sociometric criteria on the family instead of letting them choose their own was a means of standardizing data so that, in future studies, these data could be compared to those of other families. It is always interesting to let families choose their own criteria because this brings forth a wealth of information, but for research purposes, this makes it almost impossible to compare results.

The members of the family were required to make positive, negative, or indifferent choices with regard to other members of the family. It was also explained to the family that the choices had hierarchy; for example, the name of the person they placed in the positive column indicated the person that they most wanted to go out with (Criterion 1). To these choices were attributed diminishing values from N-1. The data were tabulated after correction (according to Bustos, 1979), and the sociograms were drawn up. These will be discussed later.

Procedure

Once the test was corrected, the results were shared with the family. The members then read to the others a description of how they had chosen the members of the family according to both criteria, and they reported how they had expected to be chosen. The therapists also shared the sociometric, perceptual, and telic scores for each member, as well as the Family Telic Score (FTS). The mutualities and incongruencies were also shared with the family. The incongruent results and the negative and indifferent mutualities would be worked through in therapeutic confrontations.

In the format for the therapeutic confrontation, the two parties confronting each other sit face to face and read out their answers and reasons for their choices with regard to the other person. They look straight into the other's eyes and explain how they feel about their relationship. Next to each person there should be a cushion or an empty chair where other members of the fam-

ily, or therapists themselves can step in and “translate” the underlying feelings when they are not being clearly expressed. For example, one may say to the other, “I don’t like you. I think you’re worthless.” In truth, what they may really mean is, “You have hurt me so much by what you have done (or said) to me that I just want to get back at you. I want revenge. I want to lash out at you. Because you are very important to me, you have the power to hurt me, and you have used it to do so.”

The “translator” must speak in the first person, as if he or she were the one being interpreted. The “translator” must attempt to express the confronting party’s feelings and not his or her own. The confronting party (let’s say Person A) can agree or disagree with the intervention, and the conversation may continue from there. Once the “translator” has had his or her say, the translator returns to the audience. The confrontation ends when the confronting parties agree that they have said everything they feel they need to say to each other or when the relationship has been cleared up enough so that both parties are satisfied with their comprehension of what goes on between them. Many times, a reconciliation is effected when both parties finally manage to understand the dynamics of the relationship. Other times, past experiences in the individual lives are pointed out as something that is clouding up a person’s present perception and are pointed out as something to be worked on by the individual, perhaps in individual therapy. There are as many endings as there are people to confront.

Case Study

A family contacted the therapists by phone with the complaint that the family was facing difficulties, especially between the father and the son. The mother made the initial contact and appointment for the first interview with the whole family. The family was made up of four members: father (aged 46), mother (46), son (21), and daughter (19). The entire family came to the first interview. Because of space limitations, only the first, second, and seventh sessions will be presented. The complete manuscript is available on request from the authors.

First Session

The consulting room has two movie-director type chairs for the two therapists (director and auxiliary ego), a rectangular stage in the center of the room, and large and small cushions spread around the room, to be used for sitting by the family members. The cushions are in many different sizes, shapes, and colors so that they can also be used in the structuring of images, that is, emotional “photographs,” “pictures,” or “sculptures” onstage.

The mother and the father came in and sat on one side of the room, with about one meter between them. The children sat on the opposite side of the stage, in a similar form. The therapists asked them the reason for their visit, and the mother made the initial presentation: They were having a series of difficulties in the relationship between the father and the son, and she believed that therapy could help them. We then interviewed each member regarding his or her reasons for coming. The father said he had a "bohemian" lifestyle, liked to go out and have his beers with his friends, and thought that this made him an "absent father" (his words). He acknowledged the difficulties that existed and was willing to cooperate in the therapeutic process, especially because his own therapist had recommended it. (He had agreed to interrupt individual therapy while he was in family therapy, as requested by the therapists.)

The son spoke in similar fashion, as did the daughter. However, the son avoided all contact with the father, never directed his words or eye to him. Among the many complaints that the son had about his father (he described several incidents), the sharpest complaint was that the father did not listen to the son and always insinuated that he acted like a child. The father answered that he was very worried about his son, whose birth had been very difficult. (The mother was asked about some of these details.) While the father spoke, the son interrupted an endless number of times. This behavior was eventually pointed out by the therapists.

All were consulted about their willingness to participate together in a therapeutic process and were agreeable to proceeding once the process had been described. The appointment was made for the next session. The son made a fuss about the hour that had been established but finally capitulated and agreed to come at the appointed time.

Second Session

When the family arrived for the second session, they split up into two "couples" and arranged themselves as before; however, the mother and son sat next to each other, and the daughter and father sat next to each other. The father was facing the mother at the far end, and the siblings faced each other, closer to the therapists.

After some brief introductory words, the therapists explained her proposal to do a short test that would help all proceed with therapy. The son complained that if it was "one of those tests that you have to write a lot, I'm not interested." The mother retorted that because "we've already come for help, we might as well do as they say." When the son realized that it was a simple test, he agreed to it.

Sheets of white, letter-size paper were distributed to all of them, folded in three columns, with a positive, a negative, and a positive/negative sign (which

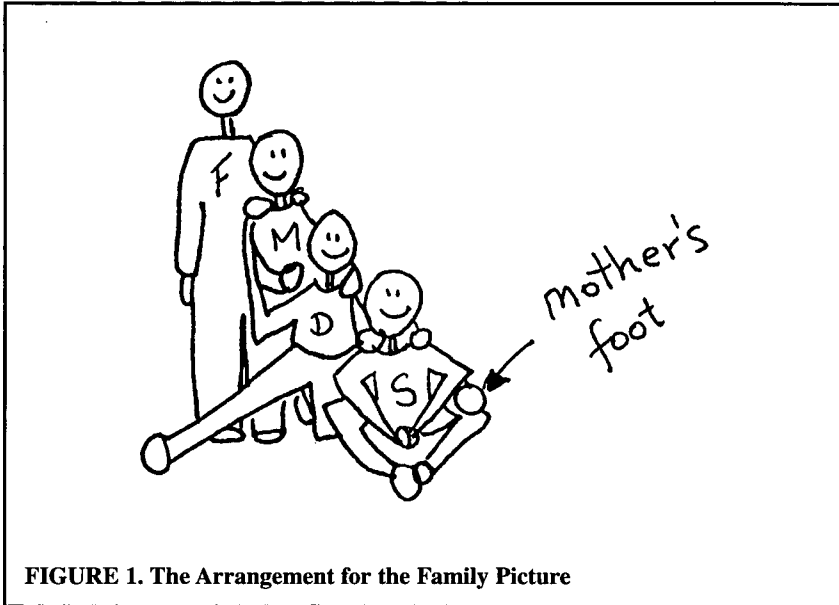
signifies literally “more or less” in Portuguese, a symbol of indifference) at the top (+, -, + -) of each column. On the outside of the sheet, each member was asked to write his or her first name and the word *sociométric*. The members were instructed to fill each column according to the criterion: With which person in my family would I choose to go out? They were to justify their choices in a short phrase beside each name, according to the column chosen. Some explanations were given: First choice in the positive column indicated the person that one would most like to go out with; first choice in the negative column was the person that one would most not want to go out with; a choice in the indifferent column meant it did not matter one way or the other. We emphasized that all members of the family had to be placed in one of the columns along with a the short explanation for the choice.

The same procedure was used for the perceptual test (How do I think the other members of my family chose me? positive, negative, or indifferent). The whole procedure was repeated, using the sociometric and perceptual tests for the second criterion about the family member with whom one would share a secret. All of the sheets were taken up for correction and tabulation. The results can be found in Appendix A and Appendix B.

Because there was still half a session left, the therapists proposed a socio-dramatic complementary exercise in which the family was to make believe that they were to be photographed for the family album and should arrange themselves accordingly. The daughter immediately said, “I know that whatever we do here would be different than if we did it outside the office. I know that we are going to be analyzed as to where each one of us goes.”

The therapists explained that, yes, that was true, but that the location would be taken into consideration. In spite of all the possible “contamination” of the therapeutic situation, the therapists believed that something useful could come out of it. They told the family that they were to do the best they could until all of the family members were in agreement about their positions; each one had the power of veto if he or she was not satisfied with the arrangement. The family members were to work on the arrangement until they arrived at a unanimous agreement on how they were to be arranged for the family picture. In a little more than a minute, they had arranged themselves for the picture (Figure 1).

All family members were smiling. (This fact was so unusual that it elicited a comment from one therapist to the other that it was the first time they had seen the son smile.) Because some of the family members were maintaining a very precarious balance in order to keep the picture as it had been originally envisioned, they soon asked if they could undo the image. We asked them to keep it a bit longer (so that they could feel the precariousness of their positions, especially the women.) We then asked each one to leave the picture, and the other members were to feel what changes occurred with each leave-taking. Finally, we asked each one to come out of his or her place, one at a time,



so that the auxiliary ego/therapist could take up that position. This way they could see the picture from the “outside” as the therapists saw it. The son asked for extra time to observe it when it was his turn because he enjoyed looking at photographs. It was the only moment since the beginning of therapy that he was not agitated and seemed calmed down (a fact that he confirmed while we were discussing the image).

As the family members came out of their positions in the “photo,” we noted their comments and observations:

1. The father made mention of the fact that when he left the picture, very little was altered; the mother just tried to support herself on her children with his exit. He was relieved on one hand, yet saddened to see that he apparently was not so important in the family structure.

2. When the mother left, the link between father and children was undone. (This image confirms the sociometric structure of alcoholic families as studied in previous families [Carvalho, 1987] in which the mother’s role is to serve as the sole channel of communication and linkage between father and children.) The splitting of the family in two was perfectly clear to all. The daughter lost one of her points of support and had to lean more on her brother. Her situation became even more precarious. The situation of the son was little altered, except that the distance was maintained between father and son, but without the mother’s linking presence.

3. When the daughter left, the mother felt an enormous emptiness but continued to maintain her link with the son through her foot. She would have liked him to have come closer. (He did not move.)

4. As one watched from outside, it seemed that the exit of the son would cause the whole "pyramid" to come tumbling down. There really had been many significant modifications: The mother had to look for another point of support for her foot (that had been on his leg). She put it on top of the other foot, as she herself hurried to point out. The daughter lost another of her support points and had to struggle to maintain her position.

Speaking to the family, the therapists made the following observations:

1. The mother was the link between children and father.
2. The children "cooperated" with the mother so as not to have to form a direct link to the father (because they had had the chance to establish this link and did not pursue this possibility).
3. The balance in the "feminine wing" was extremely precarious. The men served as the support points (the father for the mother, the son for the mother and daughter). When the daughter commented that women are always being discriminated against, one of the therapists observed that these had been the positions that they themselves had chosen for themselves.
4. It was very clear that the father-son communication problem was not the only problem. Other relationships were in trouble, and the very structure of the family became a matter of discussion.

The therapists concluded the session by stating that they would correct the test and return the results at the next session. The family left with a much lower level of tenseness than they had had the time before, and they agreed to think over what they had perceived from the "family picture."

Results of the Sociometric Test

When the test was corrected for both criteria, the results indicated that the family definitely was in need of therapeutic intervention. For Criterion 1 (going out), the family telic score (FTS) was 50%, borderline between critical and adequate. On Criteria 2 (secret), the FTS was 41.5%, within the critical zone (Bustos, 1979). We also found there were two incongruencies: between mother (+ -) and son (+), and daughter (-) and son (+ -). There were also a negative mutuality between father and son and an indifferent mutuality between daughter and father. The results of the queries are shown in Table 1.

As a result of the answers to the questions, the therapists decided that therapeutic confrontations would be needed between the father and daughter, the mother and the son, the son and the daughter, the father and the mother, and

TABLE 1
Results of Criteria 1 and 2

Mutualities	Incongruencies
<i>Criterion 1</i>	
+ Father/Mother	Mother (+ -)/Son (+)
- Father/Son	Son(+ -)/Daughter (-)
+ - Father/Daughter	
<i>Criterion 2</i>	
- Mother/Son	Father (-)/Mother (+)
+ Mother/Daughter	Father (+)/Son (-)
	Father (+ -)/Daughter(-)
	Son (+)/Daughter (+ -)

the father and the son. From these incongruencies, it was clear that the problem between the father and the son, as was originally presented by the family, was not the only problem.

Seventh Session (Final)

All the family members arrived late; first the son, and then the other three. The mother explained that they had not been certain that the son would come because he had been traveling. She also reported that the other members had decided that this would be the last session, whether or not he arrived in time. The son explained that he came directly from a farm where he had been spending a few days, and that he had gone to a lot of trouble to make it. He made it very clear that he thought this session was very important. The mother and the father sat on the same side as before but now sat close together. The relationship between the siblings seemed less tense.

The therapists asked about their homework, and the family described the "pseudo-fulfillments." The father, mother, and daughter went out together on the mother's birthday, and the son ran into them by chance and stayed to talk with them at the bar. The father and mother went to a show with the daughter and her boyfriend. ("But my father and I sat together and talked—that counts, doesn't it?")

The mother described some of her difficulties in attending to the request made by the therapists in a previous session that she not serve as the go-between for father and children. However, twice during the week she caught herself falling into the old pattern. She reported that she decided to continue to make an effort to change this pattern of being the family mediator and that

she wanted to return to her individual therapy, which she had interrupted to do family therapy.

We asked the group for an evaluation of their experiences in therapy. We knew this would be the last session, not only because the family had expressed it but also because the auxiliary-ego therapist was going on maternity leave in the next few days.

The son said that he had not thought much about it but that he had perceived a whole lot of new things about himself, about the other family members, and about his relationships. The mother expressed a certain dissatisfaction because she did not achieve her basic goal (implicit: changes in the father's behavior). She mentioned that she saw her children as growing closer, and they confirmed this, although they were quite surprised at her observation. The daughter said that her relationship with the brother had really improved, but, other than that, she had not seen any great changes. For her, the therapy only clarified what she already knew. The father said that he had gained a better comprehension of the family and that "now I am absent by choice."

The director therapist made her evaluation of each one, confirming what each one had shared and giving her perception of it. To the father, she noted that he now has the option of being absent, that he can now make the conscious choice to drink instead of interacting with his family. We then told the family that they would have to respect his right to choose drinking instead of the family. The therapists told the son that they observed a noticeable increase in his capacity to listen to other people. (During this final session, he had interrupted the mother at one point. When he realized that he had done so, he asked her to continue what she was saying.) The therapists empathized with the mother's suffering and encouraged her to return to her individual therapy as the mother had proposed to do. The director also pointed out to the children the importance that these perceptions can hold for future marital choices and the subsequent family they may come to have. Finally, she observed that it had been worthwhile working together and that she felt privileged for having been entrusted with their confidence.

The auxiliary-ego therapist made a similar evaluation, adding that she admired the mother for her effort to stop changing others and to have invested so much time and effort in her family. She also said that she supported the mother in her desire to invest more in herself now and in the future so that she could relieve some of her frustration with her family, which had not helped her to grow as a person. She also pointed out the similarities between the mother and daughter and noted that what the father called absence was a sign of his difficulty in establishing more profound and intimate personal relationships. She suggested that he could return to his individual therapy and work on this issue. She underlined the importance of having a more realistic and truthful perception of the family as a form of change.

The therapists ended the session by asking for a follow-up session in 4 months. Both therapists asked for permission to publish a report of this case study, guaranteeing the family's privacy. All members agreed to this request.

Therapists' Comments About the Sessions

Some real changes had already occurred among some of the members: The mother had expressed her desire to change her mode of interaction and had taken concrete steps toward this goal. The son had shown changes in his family-interaction patterns even within the structure of the therapeutic session. Paradoxically, the family's resistance to change was observed. Between the fifth and sixth sessions, when the mother called the auxiliary-ego therapist to cancel an appointment, she shared with the therapist the information that her son was thinking of going to live with a girlfriend who was pregnant by someone else. This issue was never raised in the session and therefore not mentioned by therapists because the agreement was to work on things brought to the therapy sessions. This report, however, was a sign of the "family secrets" and evidence of the difficulty in managing some very real issues. One aspect of therapy is that it should help members make more conscious choices about how they wish to live. This was obviously accomplished with the father, who now realized that he could continue to drink, but that his doing so had become a conscious choice.

Discussion

At the time this article was being written, the family had not returned to group therapy. Our goal is to repeat this test with another family group and compare the results. At this point, we feel that one can presume from both the therapists' and the family members' evaluations that the tests had been a worthwhile endeavor that helped to clear up the family situation. The family members regained their options of changing or not changing.

The therapists firmly believe that now that the dynamics of these relationships have been exposed, the family cannot go back to living, as before, in its "unconscious bliss." They cannot return to not knowing. The therapists were also able to perceive that the living situation among them had improved: The children were getting along better, the father had made his choice for "absence," and the son learned to listen to other people and respect them even when they think differently from the way he does.

The therapists' initial conclusion is that this manner of intervention can be useful to unveil family relationships. As the therapists explained to the family, this phase of therapy was basically diagnostic. If they wished to achieve further changes, that could become a new goal for therapy. It was pointed out

to them, however, that such changes had not been their final choice. It was possible for everyone involved to see that the sociometric test had been useful for the family's therapy and that the therapeutic confrontations clarified the family relationships and made some changes possible.

Discussion of Data

Criterion 1

The family perception score (PS) was below 50% (49.5%), and only the daughter perceived other family members with clarity (her PS being 100%). She confirmed this at the final session by saying that therapy "only clarified what I already knew." On the other hand, only the messages emitted by the father were clear, something that was also confirmed by the family: "He is absent." The other members' emissions were obscure (33%), which makes relating very difficult. If a person does not emit clear messages, the other person only comprehends him or her with great difficulty. The mother and the son presented the lowest telic scores (average of perception plus emission scores). They, however, were the ones who presented the greatest changes during the therapeutic process.

The family telic score (FTS - the average of all the family members' telic scores, which is a measure of group cohesion) was borderline only because of the inclusion of the daughter's PS (100%) and the father's ES (emission score = 100%). Otherwise, it would have fallen within a critical limit, even on Criterion 1, as a more superficial relationship.

It was very surprising to note that the sociometric star (largest number of mutualities) in this sociogram was the father, a finding that leads us to think that he performed an organizing function in the family. Such an observation we felt confirmed previous studies by Steinglass (1976) about the organizing function of alcohol in alcoholic families and the use of this function in group cohesion.

Criterion 2

The information from Criterion 2 was more discriminatory. Here, a zero score was present (mother, PS; father, ES). The father was well perceived in the more casual relationship but was very poorly perceived in the more intimate one. He demonstrated great difficulty in emitting clearly what it is he really feels. The others had great difficulty in perceiving what it was that really went on inside of him because his emission was so poor or incongruent with what he felt. The mother perceived everyone poorly; the father perceived them much better (PS = 67%). However, the mother emitted very clear messages that were well perceived by all (ES = 100%).

The FTS (41.5%) justified a therapeutic intervention (group cohesion was poor). There was no well-defined sociometric star. The mother and the son had two mutualities each. In this instance, we could propose that the "parentalized" son was the star, but that would have been only as a possibility for investigation because the family group was so small that one could not speak of statistical value. Once again, these data confirmed the data investigated by one of the authors in her thesis (Carvalho, 1987) on alcoholic families and their sociometric structure.

Conclusion

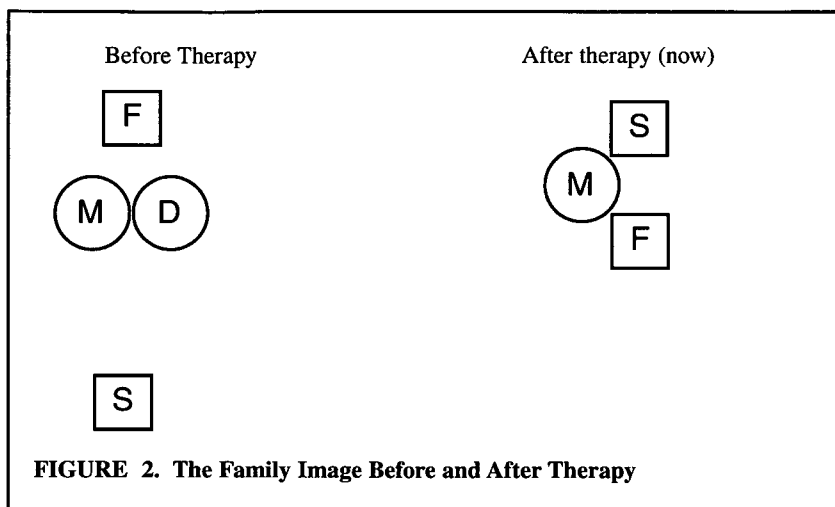
We concluded that the sociometric test can be used as a diagnostic instrument and that the preliminary results seem to confirm the advantage of its use as an instrument of therapeutic intervention in families, to be used in conjunction with therapeutic confrontations.

Epilogue

After submitting this article for publication, the second author was able to interview the family in this case study 3 years after these sessions had been held. The family was more than glad to oblige her in the follow-up interview, which lasted about 2 hours. The daughter had married about 1 year before the interview and had gone to live in a distant town. The wedding had been held on the parents' 25th wedding anniversary. The father had retired and was enjoying every minute of being retired. He stated that now he was better able to give more time to his family. The mother was calmer and less anxious. The son had finished his college degree, had a job in his field, and was living at home.

The therapist asked the three members of the family to put together an image, using the cushions in the consulting room, that would express their perception of what the family was like before and after the therapy of so many years ago. Because the daughter had married and moved away, she was not included in the "after therapy" image (Figure 2).

The family informed the therapist that they now felt better but that they did not attribute this to the family therapy. They felt that the improvement was the result of the crises they went through as a family, which knit them closer together: the daughter's marriage and the son's arrest for giving cover (naively?) to a friend who broke into a car. After the son's arrest, the family appropriately perceived their need to change some aspects of how they related. The father developed a closer relationship with his son, requiring more accountability from him. This change in their relationship helped the son avoid subsequent problems.



The son still complained of personal difficulties and was seriously considering going for individual therapy. The mother missed her daughter and was sometimes annoyed by the fact that her husband was at home all the time. She also confessed that she was a bit jealous of the close relationship that the father and son have now developed. The father's drinking no longer seemed to be a problem, although the mother was still taking medication for anxiety, and the father had been on lithium at one point. This information is something that would be worth pursuing if the opportunity should arise.

We two therapists have concluded that the sociometric confrontations helped open up channels of communication that led to the possibility of better resolutions of the crises. The presenting problem—the father/son relationship—was obviously resolved, and the family became freer to come and go. The daughter was able to get married. The son did not marry the pregnant girlfriend as a means of getting away from home, although he did finally get his father to come around by getting himself arrested. The father's problem drinking had cleared up. Most of the feelings expressed in this interview seem to be congruent with their circumstances.

The fact that the family was able to make the necessary changes at appropriate times makes one think that there is now greater flexibility in the family. The mother is mourning the loss of her "control" over the children and probably has a bit of empty-nest syndrome because she and the daughter were especially close.

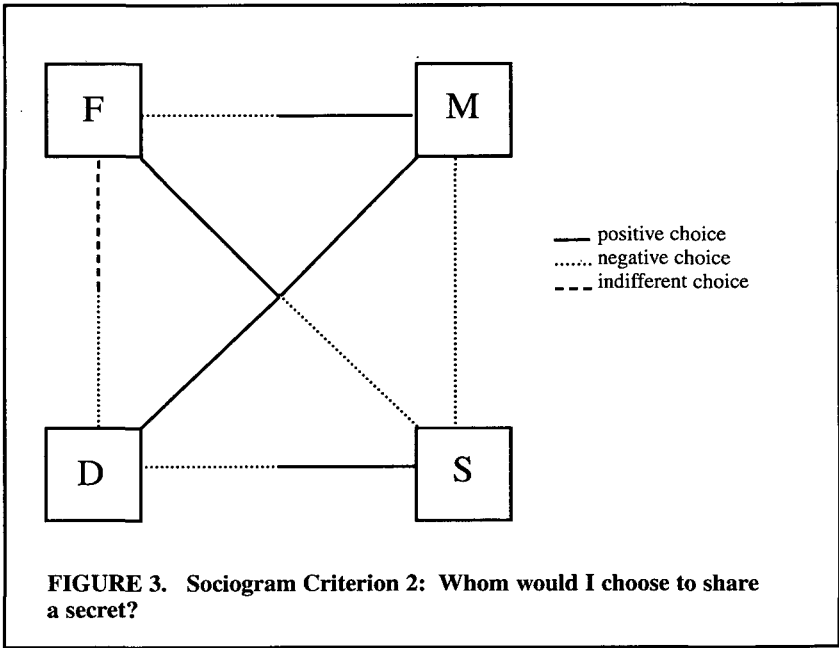
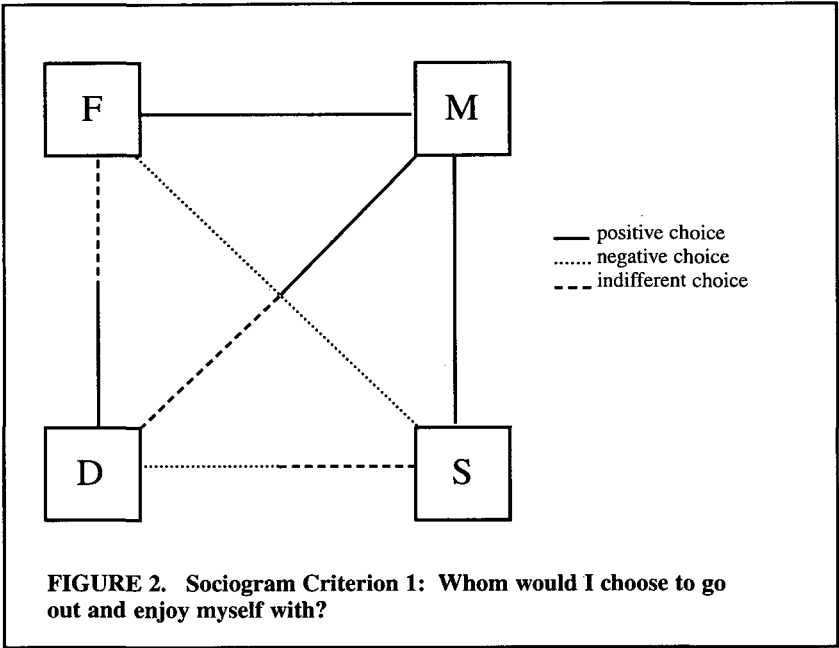
The authors believe that the preliminary results of using Moreno's sociometric test in conjunction with therapeutic confrontations are promising enough to justify further research and investigation.

APPENDIX 1 – CRITERION 1

These are the choices made by each family member on Criterion 1 for the sociometric and the perceptual test described earlier.

Appendix A Choices Made by Each Family Member on Criteria 1 and 2 of the Sociometric and the Perceptual Tests Described Earlier

Sociometric	Perceptual	
<i>Criterion 1</i>		
Father chose/mother	1+	1+
/son	1-	1+ -
/daughter	1+ -	1+ -
Mother chose/father	1+	1+
/son	1+ -	2+ -
/daughter	2+	1+ -
Son chose/father	1-	1-
/mother	1+	1+
/daughter	1+ -	1+ -
daughter chose/father	1+	1+ -
/mother	1+ -	1+
/son	1-	2+ -
Mutualities (when the sociometric choices between two members coincide): F = 3, M = 1, S = 1, D = 1.		
Incongruencies (when the sociometric choices do not coincide): F = 0, M = 2, S = 2, D = 2.		
<i>Criterion 2</i>		
Father chose/mother	1-	2+
/son	1+	1+
/daughter	1+ -	1-
Mother chose/father	2+	2+ -
/son	1-	1+ -
/daughter	1+	2+ -
Son chose/father	1-	1-
/mother	2-	2
/daughter	1+	1
Daughter chose/father	1-	1-
/mother	1+	2+
/son	1+ -	1+
Mutualities: F = M = 1, S = 1, D = 1.		
Incongruencies: F = M = 1, S = 1, D = 2.		



Appendix B
Individual and Family Perceptual and Emission Scores,
Shown in Percentages

	F	M	S	D
<i>Criterion 1</i>				
PS (%) ^a	33	33	33	100
ES (%) ^b	100	33	33	33
TS (%) ^c	67	33	33	67
FTS ^d = 50%.				
<i>Criterion 2</i>				
PS (%) ^a	67	0	33	67
ES (%) ^b	0	100	33	33
TS (%) ^c	33	50	33	50
FTS ^d = 41.5%.				

^aThis percentage (perceptual score) is calculated by the coincidences between the individual's perceptual choice with the other person's sociometric choice for him or her. ^bThis percentage (emission score) is calculated by the coincidences between the individual's sociometric choice and the other person's perceptual choice for him/her. ^cThis percentage (telic score) is the average of each individual's perceptual score (PS) and the emission score (ES). ^dFTS is the average of all family members' telic scores.

REFERENCES

- Bustos, D. (1979). *O teste sociométrico*. São Paulo: Editora Brasiliense.
- Carvalho, E. (1986). The use of sociometry/therapeutic confrontations in the resolution of intra-group conflicts: Consequences for human relationships. Unpublished manuscript.
- Carvalho, E. (1987). *A estrutura sociométrica de famílias: Alcoolatras*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Brasília.
- Hale, A. (1981). Conducting clinical sociometric explorations: A manual for psychodramatists and sociometrists. Roanoke: Royal Publishing House.
- Haley, J. (1976). *Problem-solving therapy*. New York: Harper Colophon Books.
- Haley, J., & Hoffman, L. (1967). *Techniques of family therapy*. New York: Basic Books.
- Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and family therapy*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Moreno, J. (1977). *Psychodrama (Vol. 1.)* Beacon, NY: Beacon House.
- Napier, A., & Whitaker, C. (1978). *The family crucible*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.
- Rojas-Bermudez, J. (1970). *Introdução ao psicodrama..* São Paulo: Editora Mestre Jou.

Steinglass, P. (1976). Experimenting with family treatment approaches to alcoholism, 1950-1975: A review. *Family Process* (Basel)15: Bio 7-123.

ESLY REGINA CARVALHO, currently residing in Colorado Springs, is a psychodrama and sociometry trainer in Quito, Ecuador, and in Santa Cruz, Bolivia. She is the international coordinator of Eirene, the Latin American network that trains family counselors. VALERIA CRISTINA A. BRITO is a clinical psychologist and a certified psychodramatist who is in the graduate clinical psychology program at the University of Brasilia. To reach the authors, readers should write to Esly R. Carvalho, Box 7000, Colorado Springs, CO 80933.

Sociometric Assessment of Social Integration of Students From Culturally Diverse Backgrounds at a Nonresidential University

STEPHEN DUNSTONE
ANGELINA ZEA

ABSTRACT. First-year dentistry students performed a series of structured sociometric activities. The purpose of these exercises was to facilitate social integration of these groups. Because of the high level of cultural diversity in the student groups, the initial activities were designed to address this issue of diversity and difference. The subsequent activities addressed cultural similarities and then progressed to address social differences and similarities at more personal and intimate levels. The effectiveness of the intervention was assessed by measuring sociometric differences between the experimental and control groups, using a computerized sociometry program named COMP-SOC. With the measures used, the therapists determined that there was no significant difference between the groups on measures of social, gender, cultural or academic integration, or persistence/withdrawal behavior. Although there was not a greater number of relationships among the students, there were suggestions of a stronger quality in these relationships.

THE LIKELIHOOD OF STUDENTS' PERSISTING with their studies at postsecondary, nonresidential institutions has been described in terms of a person-environment fit by Spady (1970) and Tinto (1975). This model suggests that matching a person's background characteristics (e.g., family, educational, cultural, individual attributes, secondary-school achievement, academic aptitude) to the characteristics of the teaching institution (environment) influences the student's initial commitment to the institution and to his or her academic and social integration. Other things being equal, the higher the level of academic and social integration on the part of the student, the greater the student's subsequent commitment to the institution and the goal of graduation. In other words, this integration has a positive influence on persistence.

Later investigations by Pascarella and Terezini (1985) found that an even more significant factor in persistence behavior was the quality of the students' interactions with the college environment subsequent to enrollment.

The Aim of This Research

The purpose of our research was to assess whether an intervention of structured sociometric activities assists social and cultural integration of tertiary students at a commuter educational institution. The significance of this research is that as social integration correlates positively with persistence behavior in students, it might then be established that certain structured activities can improve social and cultural integration. These procedures could be of significance in the improvement of the resource efficiency of tertiary institutions and their attractiveness to students, both local and overseas.

Overview of the Research Plan

Social and multicultural interventions were carried out with 1st-year dental students during the first two teaching sessions in 1991. This group was compared with the 1992 3rd- and 5th-year dental students by means of a sociometric analysis of each group.

The sociometric analysis was performed by using a computerized program for processing sociometric data. The program, called COMPSOC, originally was written in 1975 by J. R. Naugher, modified in 1983 by R. E. Martin and T. W. Treadwell for a main frame computer, adapted in 1988 by J. Steinberg, L. Bert, and T. W. Treadwell for use on an IBM PC, and rewritten in 1993 in DOS version by T. W. Treadwell and M. Saxton.

Method

The Intervention

The structured sociometric intervention was designed to assist students to become progressively better acquainted with one another. The progression involved four hierarchical stages of social interaction in the following order: stereotypical, typical, personal, and intimate. These stages were developed from a framework presented by G. Parry and T. Williams (1990). The presentation of the structured interactions in their hierarchical order provided an opportunity for safe exploration at these different levels and assisted the students in their transition from one stage to the other. Each level must be explored in some depth before progression to the next stage can be made. Because of social shyness or lack of confidence, many people never make the

progression to the intimate level and may remain at the more superficial levels. The task of the facilitator is to assist social curiosity by giving an official stamp of approval to it and to provide a safe environment for it to take place. The purpose of assisting students to progress to the deeper levels of social engagement is to increase the rate and level of social integration within the group.

The topics of cultural diversity and similarity were addressed within this framework in order to promote learning and appreciation of the social skills within the various cultures. Bochner (1986) established that coping with unfamiliar cultures is essentially a learning process.

The Four Stages of the Intervention

During interaction at the stereotypical social level, the focus was on a person's superficial or most obvious characteristics, for example, his or her cultural background, gender, age, and socioeconomic status. When people interact at this level, their focus is on these physically obvious attributes, and they relate to each other as representatives of a group and not as individuals. A conversation at the stereotypical level would involve questions such as: What country do you come from? Are there many dentists in your country? Structured activity focusing on this level provided students with the opportunity to explore their cultural differences and similarities.

At the next level, typical social interaction, the focus narrows a little to include topics that relate to the individual's way of life, and in particular, to a person's thought level and not to his or her emotional level. For example, at this level, the students' conversations involve queries about occupation, location of living quarters, marital status, means of getting to work, hobbies, and type of car. In a typical conversation at this level, the questions might be phrased thus: What work do you do? Where do you live? What sort of car do you drive? Where do you go for holidays?

During personal-level social interaction, the focus is on the expression of feelings as well as the thoughts about various aspects of the lives of the people involved in the interaction. For example, the conversation might revolve about such questions as: How do you feel about being a dentist, or what is it about your favorite movies or books that you enjoy? How do you typically behave when you have a deadline approaching? What, at the present time in your life, are you doing well?

At the level of intimate social interaction, both parties express their feelings about each other to each other, and their conversation is focused on the present moment. Exchanges might include comments such as: I am really enjoying hearing you tell me about your great holiday; thank you for telling me

about your struggle with your studies; or I feel a lot closer to you now that I know you better.

Procedure of the Intervention

Session 1: The Stereotypical Level. The students were asked to state the culture with which they primarily identified. The therapist explained that, considering the newness of Australian society and the diversity within it, it was too difficult to define what constituted Australian culture. Therefore, in this exercise, the students' identities would be more accurate if they identified themselves with the dominant culture of their families. For example, although Anglo-Celts are the predominate group in Australian society, they tend to have cultural values that are different from those of the people who have a Greek cultural origin. Therefore, it would be appropriate for those of Anglo-Celtic origin to identify themselves as such and for those of Greek origin to identify themselves as having the Greek cultural values. The Aboriginal students in both the 1991 and 1992 groups, when invited to nominate their cultural heritage, preferred the title of Aborigine to Australian. Even among the Anglo-Celts, the Irish preferred to identify themselves as Irish rather than Anglo-Celts. In the groups, there were representatives of 15 different cultures: Aboriginal, Anglo-Celtic, Argentinian, Chinese, Dutch, Fijian, Greek, Indian, Irish, Italian, Malaysian, Nepalese, Polish, Sri Lankan, and Vietnamese.

Once the students identified their primary culture, they were asked to form groups around the perimeter of the room. Each group was then asked to divide into two and to decide which half would move around the room to meet other groups and which half would stay in place and receive the rotating visitors from other cultures. In this way, each cultural group met all the others. In the case of a single representative, he or she was given the choice of moving or staying put.

The facilitator then asked the mobile half of each group to move and join the adjacent cultural group. He provided them with questions to ask each other that were designed to be at the stereotypical level and arranged in a hierarchy from the general to the more specific and from a focus on differences to a focus on similarities. After each question had been discussed by the small cross-cultural groups, the facilitator asked several of the students to introduce their partners to the larger group, stating the person's name, culture, and what they had learned about the other culture. After each question, the mobile half of the groups moved on to talk with the next group, where introductions were facilitated and new questions were provided. The questions, in order of presentation, involved these topics: food, music, pastimes, literature, sports, schooling, birthdays, weddings, families, parents, siblings, a significant teacher, something the student particularly valued about his or her culture.

(The order of these topics is designed to address stereotypical topics, to move to more typical topics, and then to begin to introduce personal topics.)

Session 2: Sociometric Linking Exercises. The purpose of the second session was to further the process of social integration by assisting the students in relating to each other at a personal level and then briefly at a more intimate level.

The 48 students were divided initially into two groups of 24. Then each of these subgroups of 24 was physically arranged into concentric circles of 12 pairs. Each time the facilitator provided the group with a new topic, the students in the outer circle moved to interact with the next person in the inner circle, moving in a clockwise direction. In this way, each person in the inner circle interacted with each person in the outer circle. The students introduced themselves to their partners and repeated their partners' names back to them. Then they were asked to discuss the following topics, which were given one at a time, that is, one for each new interaction:

1. Where do you live?
2. How did you travel to the university today?
3. What was your first impression of the university?
4. What experiences did you have in locating the dental school?
5. What do you like and dislike about the dental school?
6. What have you been doing during Orientation Week?
7. What are your spare-time interests?
8. Who is a significant dentist for you and why?
9. Where do you see yourself in 10 years?
10. What things do you do best?
11. How do you typically behave when a deadline is approaching?
12. What was your first impression of me?

Assessment of the Effectiveness of the Intervention

Six months after the intervention with the 1st-year students, the facilitator assessed the effectiveness of the intervention in producing increased social integration of the students by using various measurements of the sociometry within the class for each year. These sociometric measurements indicated whether the students in each year's group chose to associate with each other in a way that joins individuals with other individuals and subgroups and whether the variables of gender and culture affected these sociometric choices. The researcher gathered the sociometric data by asking the students to indicate up to five other students in their year with whom they would prefer to work first on a research project and second in a clinical/laboratory exercise. The students also indicated their gender and the culture with which their family identified.

To assess their academic integration, the sociometrist asked the students to comment on two statements, developed by Pascarella and Terenzi (1980), that were measured on a Likert-type response scale. The statements were: I am satisfied with the extent of my intellectual development since enrolling in this university; and My academic experience has had a positive influence on my intellectual growth and interest in ideas.

To carry out the sociometric analysis, the researcher employed a computerized sociometry program, the revised DOS version of COMPSOC by Treadwell and Saxton (1993). The COMPSOC analysis provides six pieces of information: (a) an analysis of choices made by each person; (b) an analysis of the choices received by each person; (c) a list of people in rank order by the number of choices received; (d) a summary analysis of up to three variables; (e) an analysis of the group structure; and (f) a sociogram layout, a visual picture of the analysis. Along with these profiles, this computerized analysis also illustrates six matrices that display the raw data, choices made, mutual choices, degree of mutuality, total choices received, and subgroups for the sociometric question.

Results

There were no statistically significant differences between the experimental group (1st-year dental students) and the control group (3rd-year dental students) on any of the various measures of social, cultural, gender, and academic integration. There was a tendency for the 1st-year group to score higher on all the various measures, but this may have been because of a bias resulting from a higher participation rate for the 1st-year group.

Social Integration Measures

Social integration was assessed as positive if students received two or more choices from other students or were involved in a mutual choice (a mutual choice occurs when two persons choose each other, Bill chooses Joe and Joe chooses Bill). The COMPSOC Program indicates the inverse of social integration by providing a measure of "the number of persons receiving one or no choices" and "the number of persons with no mutual choice." There was no significant difference between the various groups of students on either of these parameters ($p > .05$, chi-square test for independent samples).

Degree of Mutuality

This parameter refers to the strength of choice as measured by a weighting scheme ranging from a weight of five for first choice to a weight of one for

fifth choice. If Bill chooses Joe as his first choice (weighting of five), but Joe chooses Bill as his third choice (weighting of three), then the degree of mutuality is 15. There was no significant difference between the student-year groups in terms of the ratio of the number of mutual choices made and the sum of the degrees of mutuality (see Table 1).

Group Structure

The number of subgroups in the student-year groups was very similar for Years 1 and 3, being nine and seven, respectively. For year-5 students, there were only three subgroups, which probably reflected the smaller group size. A "subgrouping" included all persons who were connected by mutual choice on a question. Thus, each subgrouping was mutually exclusive. Some subgroupings had a further subdivision called "a reciprocal set" that consisted of a group of persons in which each chose and had been chosen by each of the others in the set (thus all were mutuals).

These group structures indicated a high level of social integration because there was only a low percentage (approximately 16%) of each group that was not included in any subgroup by mutual choice (see Table 2).

Other Measures of Social Integration—Gender and Culture.

There was no significant difference between the year groups in terms of gender or cultural integration. This was assessed by comparing the proportion of students who made and received cross-gender or cross-culture choices and the number of cross-gender or cross-cultural choices made and received.

Within the gender and cultural group, integration was high, with at least 70% of the students choosing a cross-category in each year group. For the construction of Table 3, the percentage of students was based on the number of participants rather than on the total number in the group.

TABLE 1
Students' Mutual Choices and Mutuality Scores

	Year		
	1	3	5
No. of students making mutual choice	40	28	16
No. of mutual choices	84	58	36
Total mutuality scores	1,186	768	396

TABLE 2
Measure of Students' Social Integration

	Year		
	1	3	5
No. of subgroups	9	7	3
Total no. of students	44	34	18
No. of students with no mutual choice	4	5	3
Percentage of students with no mutual choice	9	15	16

Academic Integration

There was no significant difference between the year groups on the measure of academic integration. There was a significant ($p < .01$) intragroup tendency to score high (50%) for all student groups, indicating satisfactory academic integration for the majority of the students as assessed by this index. There was no significant relationship between low academic integration and low social, gender, and cultural integration for the student group as a whole. As for the 18 students who indicated low academic integration, only 1 received either a single choice or no choices, 3 made no cross-cultural choices, and 6 made no cross-gender choices.

Persistence—Withdrawal Behavior

Because of the small number of students in this study who dropped out, it was not possible to assess the data for significant differences between the Year Groups 1 and 3 in terms of persistence-withdrawal behavior or to explore if there was a relationship demonstrated between social integration and persistence.

Nonrespondents

Students who did not reply to the questionnaire were significantly ($p < .01$) more likely to be socially isolated than the responding students (criterion of social isolation being: receiving one or no choices from other students). That is, 61% of the 23 nonresponding students were judged to be socially isolated, compared with 15% of the 96 respondents from Year Groups 1, 3, and 5. Summary information of categorized variables for 1st-year students and 3rd-year students, respectively, provided the data for the statistical analysis that was carried out by employing the nonparametric chi-square test for indepen-

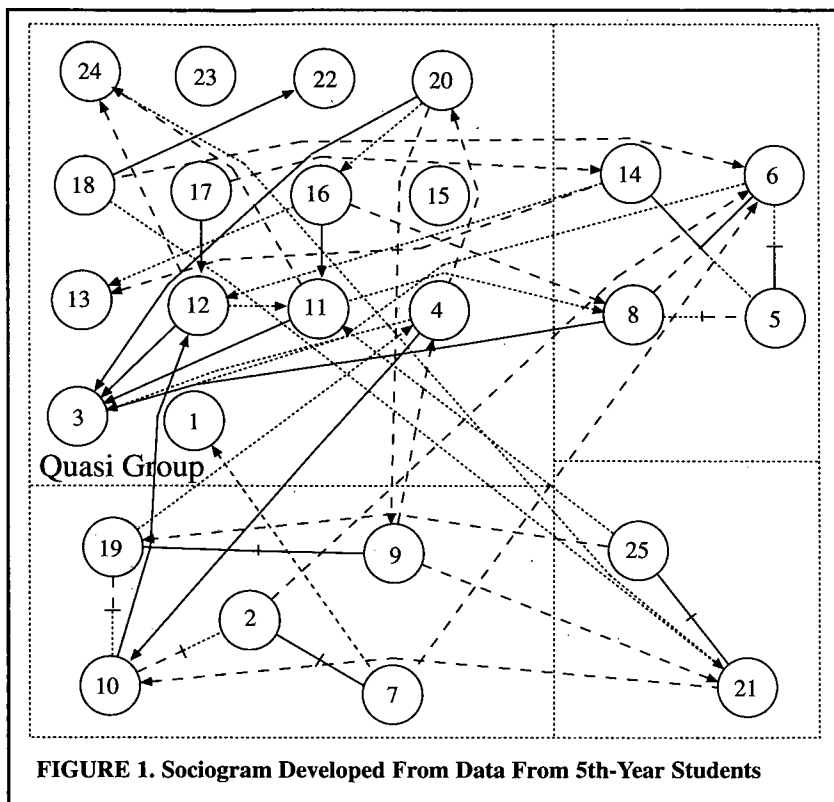
dent samples. The profile listed the number of persons in a group, total number of choices made and received, the individuals who received only one choice or no choices, the persons with no mutual choices, the number of choices made that were cross-category, the persons who made cross-category choices, the number of choices that were received that were cross-category, and the individuals who received cross-category choices. A sociogram was developed from the data gathered from the 5th-year students (see Figure 1).

Discussion

With the assessment employed, there was not a statistically significant indication that the social integration intervention brought about a greater level of social, gender, and cultural integration in the 1st-year students when compared with the control group of 3rd-year students. Although there was not a measurable increase in the number of relationships, there was anecdotal evidence of a higher quality of relationship. This took the form of spontaneous comment by 1st-year students to several lecturers about how pleased they were with their warm peer relationships and comments to the dental faculty that they felt they experienced far friendlier peer relationships than did their fellow medical students. Some possible explanations for these comments are that (a) the social integration intervention was of no benefit, (b) the intervention was of benefit because the social integration of the 1st-year group was not lower than that of the 3rd-year group, which had the advantage of 2 extra years contact in which to develop social integration [if this were the case, the intervention was a positive one in that it accelerated the social integration of the 1st-year group], (c) the instrument used to assess the intervention was too insensitive to measure the change, (d) the level of social integration in small groups of students (approximately 50) is likely to be high, as a function of group size and with little room for improvement by any intervention, (e) a hopeful naiveté regarding sociometric possibility existed in the 1st-year students because of their lack of experience. The only statistically significant

TABLE 3
Percentage of Students Making Cross-Gender
and Cross Cultural Choices

Choice	Year		
	1	3	5
Percentage of students choosing cross-gender	84	70	77
Percentage of students choosing cross-culture	86	70	94



finding was that persons who did not participate in the questionnaire tended to be social isolates.

General Comment on All Year Groups

There was a high level of social integration displayed in all the year groups assessed (Years 1, 3, and 5) as measured by the nature of the group structure and the measures of social, gender, and cultural integration. The finding that cultural integration was as high as gender integration suggests that cultural integration was attained at as high a level as possible. This may have been the result of a positive social culture generated at the Adelaide University Dental School by the capable staff. If that is the case, they are to be congratulated. It may also have been a function of the nature of dental training, for dental students have the highest number of contact hours of all university courses (up to 37 hours per week). Such contact may serve to assist the socialization

of both students and staff. The high level of socialization may also reflect the nature of the dental profession and of those who choose to serve in it. Because the practice of dentistry requires substantial social skills, an element of self-selection may predispose dental students to form well-socialized groups.

COMMENTS ON THE COMPSOC PROGRAM

I found the COMPSOC Program easy to use, and it provided excellent summary tables that enabled detailed assessment of the effect of up to three variables to be visualized on one page, something that greatly assisted in the analysis of the data.

The 1993 version provides an additional sociogram that draws on the connections between group members and thus provides an almost instantaneous picture of group structure indicating clearly the various subgroups, reciprocal sets, and the connections between them.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We wish to thank Professor Thomas Treadwell of the Department of Psychology at West Chester University, West Chester, Pennsylvania, for providing the COMPSOC program and for assistance in using it; Professor Grant Townsend of the Department of Dentistry, University of Adelaide, for support and assistance; Professor Ian John of the Department of Psychology, University of Adelaide, for assistance with data analysis; and Dr. G. Max Clayton and Dr. Peter Rennie for their advice about this article.

REFERENCES

- Bochner, S. (1986). Coping with unfamiliar cultures: Adjustment or culture learning? *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 38, 347-358.
- Parry, G., & Williams, T. (1990). Levels of communication. Unpublished manuscript.
- Pascarella, E. T., Duby, P. B., & Iverson, B. K. (1983). A test and reconceptualization of a theoretical model of college withdrawal in a commuter institution setting. *Sociology of Education*, 56, 88-100.
- Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (1980). Predicting freshman persistence and voluntary dropout decisions from a theoretical model. *Journal of Higher Education*, 51, 60-75.
- Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. *Review of Educational Research*, 45, 89-125.
- Treadwell, T. W., & Leach, E. A. (1987). An introduction to the COMPSOC system: A computerized approach to processing sociometric data. *Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry*, 40, 124-129.
- Treadwell, T. W., & Saxton, M. (1993). New Prototype for COMPSOC developed in Turbo-Pascal: DOS version [Computer program]. West Chester, PA: Authors.

[illegible]

Publication Name JOURNAL OF GROUP PSYCHOLOGY, PERSONALITY AND SOCIETY		14 Year Issue or Cumulative Data Spanning 1994-2007		Actual or Approximate Range of Years Covered by the Issue or Cumulative Publication Name in Filing Data	
Event and Nature of Circulation					
a. Total No. Copies (Net Print Run)		1,405		1,300	
b. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
c. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
d. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
e. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
f. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
g. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
h. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
i. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
j. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
k. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
l. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
m. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
n. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
o. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
p. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
q. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
r. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
s. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
t. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
u. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
v. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
w. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
x. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
y. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
z. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
aa. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ab. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ac. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ad. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ae. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
af. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ag. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ah. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ai. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
aj. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ak. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
al. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
am. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
an. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ao. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ap. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
aq. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ar. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
as. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
at. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
au. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
av. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
aw. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ax. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ay. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
az. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ba. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bb. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bc. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bd. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
be. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bf. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bg. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bh. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bi. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bj. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bk. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bl. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bm. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bn. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bo. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bp. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bq. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
br. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bs. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bt. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bu. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bv. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bw. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bx. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
by. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
bz. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
ca. Total Number of Copies (Net Print Run)		-		-	
cb. Total Number of Copies (Net Print					

Complete this and file one copy of this form with your practitioner on or before October 1, annually. Keep a copy of the completed form for your records.

2. Include in Items 1 and 2, in cases where the stockholder or security holder is a trustee, the name of the person or corporation for whom the trust is acting. Also include the names and addresses of individuals who are stockholders who own or hold a percentage or more of the total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities of the publishing corporation. In Item 3, if none, check box, Use. See Instructions at the end of this form.

3. Be sure to furnish all information called for in Item 15, regarding circulation. Free circulation must be shown in Items 15A, and C.

4. If the publisher had second-class authorization as a general or separate publication, the Statement of Ownership, Statement of Financial Condition, and Statement of Circulation must be filed. If you have never filed these statements, you must file them with this Statement of Ownership. If the publication is not published during October.

5. In Item 16, indicate dates of the issue in which this Statement of Ownership will be printed.

6. Item 17 must be signed.

Failure to file or publish a statement of ownership may lead to suspension of second-class authorization.

The Use of Sociometry in Teaching at the University Level

CLAUDE A. GULDNER
PENNY STONE-WINESTOCK

ABSTRACT. This article contains a brief review of the literature related to the use of sociometry within university education. It includes a report of a study in which the participants were students from a 4th-year undergraduate course involving the use of small groups as a primary learning method. The experimental groups were formed through the use of a sociometric procedure; the control groups were randomly assigned by the instructor. The results of correlational and multiple regression analyses indicated that, based on small-group evaluation measures, sociometry increased the students' learning satisfaction and their academic standing.

DURING THE PAST 15 YEARS, I (CAG) have been teaching a 4th-year undergraduate course entitled Dynamics of Group and Family Functioning. Faculty members in the department believe that a course of this type is beneficial for students nearing completion of their degree program. The focus of the course is on the integration of personal awareness and professional growth and competence. To achieve this goal, I emphasize the following key themes in personal/family functioning: system boundaries; power and control; affective issues; communication; negotiation issues including problem solving, decision making, and conflict resolution; contextual issues of space, time, and energy; task performance issues; self-concept and self-in-relationship; and beginnings and endings within systems. The students process these issues within the context of a small, interactive group. Graduate students in the department's marriage and family therapy graduate program serve as facilitators for these groups.

Because this class has 90 to 150 participants, I decided that the small groups would be determined through the process of sociometry. During the first 3 weeks of the course, the group is divided into three smaller units of approximately 35 to 50 members, depending on total class size. During these

3 weeks, I conduct all group activities, which facilitates interaction at both the verbal and activity level. At the end of the 3rd week, the students complete a sociometric form that is based upon the criterion of sharing together in a small, dynamic discussion group.

The graduate-student facilitators and I became curious about the impact of the sociometric selection process upon the students' satisfaction with the group and also with the grade that they attained in the course. Our curiosity led us to begin a research project in 1983 and to repeat our investigative efforts about the process every other year during the 10 years since then. In the article, we briefly review some of the theory and research on sociometry, especially as it applies to university-learning contexts. We also review the design of the current research project and discuss its outcomes and implications.

Sociometric Theory

Sociometry was conceived by J. L. Moreno (1956) as one of the primary components of his psycho-cosmology; a complex, action-oriented theory of universal creativity. Moreno's first definition of sociometry, published in 1923, was in accordance with its Greek and Latin etymology, that is, *metrum*, meaning measurement and *socius*, meaning social, so that the word referred to social measurement (Moreno, 1956). Bain (1943) speculated that sociometry was a generic term used to describe all measurements of societal and interpersonal data. The word has also been defined as a "sociological investigation of the smallest social aggregate" (Moreno, 1953, p.17) and the mathematical results obtained by application of quantitative methods that inquire into the organization of groups and the positions of individuals within them (Moreno, 1953).

According to Moreno, the external reality of society consists of visible, overt, and observable groups, whereas the sociometric reality is composed of the interpenetration of numerous, less visible dynamics and factors, and both of these structural levels influence the overall social reality (Hale, 1981).

Interpersonal attraction or nonattraction is the basis of sociometric structure (Jennings, 1947), and sociometrists have addressed the question of what this attraction process is and how it occurs. The term *tele* was coined by Moreno to describe the flow of feelings that exists between individuals such that they are either drawn to or repelled by each other (Hale, 1981). Moreno further defined *tele* as "insight into, appreciation of, and feeling for the actual make-up of another person" (Moreno, 1946, p. 247).

The core of sociometric structure, then, is *tele*, or the personal attractions and repulsions among individuals. It promotes dyadic and group cohesion, which in turn influences all other aspects of group and societal life (Moreno, 1953).

Sociometry in University Education

Since the middle of this century, theory on and research into the process of learning and education have included the assumption that there is an important relationship between the learning process and the social adjustment of learners. The following comments support this assumption: "Educators are generally agreed that social adjustment is essential to any large measure of success in academic achievement" (McClelland & Batliff, 1947, p. 147). Sociometric concepts and tools have been used, though not extensively, to examine and test the relationship between social factors and learning. Elementary-level students, junior-high and high-school students, and to a lesser extent, university students have served as subjects for sociometric research.

In this article, we focus on the limited research on sociometry conducted with college and university students. Most of the studies have been concerned with social factors unrelated to actual learning or academic achievement. For instance, the relationship between interpersonal judgment and sociometric status in a college group has been examined (French & Menseh, 1948), social rejection in a men's college residence was studied through the use of sociometry (Kidd, 1951), and noneducational determinants of sociometric structure in a university class have been measured (Hashmi, 1967).

In some cases, such as Trasher and Kerstetter's (1947) study of a sociometry and activity program at the university level, the learning factor is assumed, despite the lack of empirical evidence, to be correlated positively with positive sociometry.

A study by Lyles (1966) was designed to test the hypothesis that sociometrically determined group participation leads to increased learning and class performance. The participants were 188 undergraduate college students in eight co-ed classes, half of whom were divided into groups according to their sociometric choices while the other half were assigned to groups arbitrarily by the instructor according to the instructor's subjective evaluation of which students would work well together. The results of the study, which indicated that the so-called sociometrically structured groups achieved higher academic standing in the course than did the arbitrarily structured groups, might be more accurately attributed to the group members' mutual interest in a certain topic than to positive sociometric connections.

In a study more truly sociometrically designed that was conducted by Bonney, each student in a class of 38 was instructed to "write his/her first, second and 'other' choices of students with whom s/he would prefer to work on a class project, a committee, or any form of small group which might be formed as part of the class work" (Bonney, 1956, p. 532). Although this was sound sociometry, the major drawback of this criterion is that it lacks specificity. The more specific the criterion, the more clarity there is likely to be in

the meaning of the data (Hale, 1981). Very little current research has addressed the use of sociometry in college or university education. Our endeavor was an attempt to address this gap.

Research Methodology

Our objective was to examine the relationship of sociometric factors to learning at two levels: the subjective level of satisfaction with one's personal and professional learning through the small-group process and the students' academic grade standing in the course. The participants were 4th-year students in a dynamics-of-group-and-family-functioning course that lasted 13 weeks. Over the years the course has been conducted, the class has, because of its large size, been divided into three large sections of approximately 35 to 50 members. Within these sections, the members of two of the sections were further divided on the basis of sociometry. Those in the third section were randomly assigned by the instructor to small groups. Each small group, whether divided by sociometry or random assignment, contained 8 to 10 participants.

We designed a limited sociometric instrument to enable the students in the sections using sociometry to make choices about the people who would participate in a small, dynamic discussion group. The instrument consisted of an eight-item form on which each student recorded first and second positive and negative choices for both peers and leaders for his or her small group. The students were also asked to indicate their first and second choices of greatest significance. That is, if an individual's first priority was to be with his or her most positively chosen peer, with a second priority to be without a negatively chosen leader, she or he was to circle the former item and underline the latter on the sociometric form. In the final session of every small group, both the experimental and the control groups in the study were asked to fill out a more comprehensive sociometric form. On this form, participants recorded a positive, negative, or neutral choice for every member, including the leader, of his or her small group and listed those choices, in the positive and negative categories, in order of importance. The criterion remained the same, sharing in a small, dynamic discussion group. A 31-item questionnaire, designed to assess students' subjective evaluation of certain aspects of their small groups and of their learning experience, was administered at the end of the group experience. This questionnaire consisted of three sections: (a) an assessment of the students' experience of cohesion in their small groups; (b) a rating of the effectiveness of the group as a learning environment for themselves and, in their perception, for other group members; and (c) responses to questions about how or if some sociometric factors were perceived as having an influence on students' learning experiences.

Final grades in the course were based on the students' responses to four dif-

ferent assignments. Twenty-five percent of each student's grade came at the end of the group from peers and the leader and was based on a 10-point rating scale, with each member contributing and with the average of the totals used as the final mark. Twenty percent was based on an essay that was to contain both theory and personal reflections related to a topic of the course. This was graded by the instructor. Another 20% was based on a process journal of session-by-session analysis of the group and the members, contributions to that group process. This was graded, based on a 10-item guideline, by the instructor. The final 35% was obtained through a final examination covering content of the entire course. This examination consisted of true/false and multiple-choice questions and was graded by machine.

It should be noted here that weighted scores were used in this study. Weighting in sociometry refers to the scoring of sociometric choices according to their strength. For example, if Students A and B both received five positive choices from fellow group members, both would have a score of 5 on the sociometric measure of "positives received." However, if Student A was chosen as a first positive choice by all five of those who chose him or her positively, whereas Subject B's positive choosers all ranked him or her 10th, the two scores for "weighted positives received" would differ a great deal. A scale in which first choices scored 10, second choices 9, and so on, as was used in this study, would result in a score of 50 for Student A and a score of 5 for Student B for "weighted positives received." As this example makes clear, it can be difficult to determine, before statistical tests are conducted, whether or not weighted and unweighted scores will be highly correlated. In sociometric literature, the use of weighted scores has been both advocated (Northway, 1940) and criticized (Gronlund, 1953). Because of the divided viewpoint, we looked at both weighted and unweighted scores in this study.

Results

The first hypothesis—that positive sociometric structure is correlated positively with the mean learning satisfaction of the group—was supported. Correlation coefficients were calculated to express the direction and the extent of relationship between the groups' mean learning satisfaction and 14 different measures of sociometric structure. Of the 14 correlations, 4 were significant, and all 4 were positive correlations (Table 1). Those facets of sociometric structure that were significantly correlated with learning satisfaction were all measures of positiveness within groups. Apparently, the more positive the sociometric connections between members of learning groups, the greater the learning satisfaction experienced by the groups' members. This conclusion supports Newark's (1962) and Shoobs's (1947) findings that students enjoyed their studies more when learning with positively chosen peers.

TABLE 1
Significant Correlations of Sociometric
Structure With Groups' Mean
Learning Satisfaction

Measure of sociometric structure	Pearson <i>r</i>
Positive mutuality	.56*
Weighted positive mutuality	.59*
Total positiveness	.60*
Weighted total positiveness	.62*

*Significant at the .01 level.

The second hypothesis was that a combination of predictor variables that constitute the measures of the sociometric status of an individual will account for a significant proportion of the variance in academic achievement. Total-course grade for the small group and the exam grade were examined separately as criterion variables in three multiple regression analyses. Because none of the studies examined in our literature review had employed multiple regression techniques in the analysis of sociometric data, we made no predictions about the order in which variables should be entered. The importance of using multiple regression analyses is related to the fact that individual sociometric factors in groups are not isolated from each other but exist within the complex whole of a social context. Unlike simple correlations, which deal with relationships between two factors only, multiple regression analyses indicate which factors are significant explainers of variance, given the presence of other factors.

No significant results were obtained that related to exam grade. Two sociometric status variables were significant in explaining 9.5% of the variance in the small-group grade. These two variables—weighted positives received and neutrals received—were significant at the .05 and .01 levels, respectively.

When total-course grade became the criterion variable, a full 14.9% of the variance was explained by two significant sociometric status predictors: weighted positive mutuality ($p < .0001$) and weighted positives given ($p < .01$). The fact that sociometric status measures accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in total-course grade provides clear support for the second hypothesis.

Discussion

The finding that four measures of positive sociometric structure were significantly correlated with group mean perceived cohesion speaks to a well-

debated issue in group dynamics. Cartwright and Zander's (1968) claim that positive sociometry cannot be equated with high group cohesion and Powell's (1982) position that positive sociometry is a good indicator of high group cohesion are both supported here. In other words, the high correlation between positive sociometric structure and perceived group cohesion is impressive, but the two are not perfectly correlated.

Because of the long-standing confusion and controversy in the group-dynamics field over the phenomenon of group cohesion (Evans & Jarvis, 1980), it appears that no standardized instruments for measuring this factor have been developed. For this study, cohesion scores were calculated from the questionnaire items pertaining to the students' subjective experiences of the following aspects of their groups: general sense of comfort, ease of decision making, range and intensity of affect expression, boundaries, and degree of self-disclosure. Thus, group-cohesion composite scores on these factors and the measures of sociometric structure were significantly correlated with these scores. The higher the levels of positive sociometry in the groups, the easier it was to make collective decisions and the greater was the range and intensity of feelings expressed and the degree of self-disclosure.

The correlation of sociometric structure and the mean learning satisfaction of the groups showed that positiveness and positive mutuality were significantly and strongly related to learning satisfaction. When group cohesion and various aspects of individual sociometric status were examined in context with each other, that is, through multiple regression analysis, group cohesion was found to be the strongest predictor of variance in learning satisfaction. Another impressive result in showing the influence of positive sociometry on learning satisfaction was obtained by comparing the experimental and the control groups. Mean learning-satisfaction scores were significantly higher in the groups structured according to sociometric data than they were in the groups structured randomly (EG—38.0918; CG—33.8814, $p = .05$). The significance of this result is particularly impressive considering the limited amount of sociometric data that was used to structure the experimental groups. It was not practically or mathematically feasible to use sociometric data extensively in that structuring. The large size of the class made it unworkable for the students to make a positive, negative, or neutral choice for everyone, as a more complete sociometric exploration would have required.

With regard to learning satisfaction, we obtained some unique and significant results. In summary, positive sociometric choices were the factors most strongly related to higher learning satisfaction. Clearly, educators who wish to improve their student's satisfaction with the learning process have a powerful tool to do so if they know and implement simple sociometric methods. The skills involved in accommodating and facilitating productive sociometry in learning environments can be acquired through professional training in

sociometry and can be supplemented by Hale's (1981) manual of applied sociometry.

In terms of the students' academic standing in courses, we found, when experimental and control groups were compared in terms of mean academic achievement, a significant difference in favor of the experimental groups only for small-group grade. It seems that the effect of the sociometric structuring was limited to academic achievement, which was specific to the small groups, and did not carry over to the other course grades. When grades were determined by a well-balanced combination of subjective and objective measures and when the sociometric instruments were designed to capture accurately the issue under investigation, there was indeed a significant relationship between sociometry and academic achievement.

Conclusions

The main practical implications of this study lie in the potential that exists for the sociometric method to improve learning environments and thereby increase learning satisfaction and achievement. From the simple maneuver of allowing students to choose their seats instead of assigning them places according to some other criterion, to the more involved process of conducting complete sociometric explorations, educators can use sociometry to enhance learning. With economic trends indicating that large university classes will be the future norm, sociometry can be well used to break the large classes into productive seminar groups. The particular sociometric factors that have emerged as most influential in this study are the measures of positive choices and positive mutuality. Grouping students according to these positive measures provides a relatively simple beginning point at which a fledgling sociometrist can make use of the method.

We wish to put forth a major recommendation for the practical use of this study's results. Training in sociometric theory and methods should be made available by educational institutions to the teachers in their employ. In this way, sociometry's potential to enhance students' learning experiences could be expanded.

This study on sociometry and learning at the university level has constituted one step in the process of learning about group functioning and about learning itself. Results of our study contribute to the evidence that the sociometric connections between people, the sociometric structure of groups, and the sociometric status of individuals are significantly related to learning.

REFERENCES

- Bain, R. (1943). Sociometry and social measurement. *Sociometry*, 6, 38-46.
Bonney, M. E. (1956). A study of constancy of sociometric ranks among college stu-

- dents over a two-year period. In J. L. Moreno (Ed.), *Sociometry and the science of man*. Beacon, NY: Beacon House.
- Cartwright, D., & Zander, A. (1968). *Group dynamics, research, and theory*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Evans, N. J., & Jarvis, P. A. (1980). Group cohesion, a review, and reevaluation. *Small Group Behavior, 11*, 359–370.
- French, R. L., & Mensh, I. N. (1948). Some relationships between interpersonal judgments and sociometric status in a college group. *Sociometry, 11*, 335–345.
- Gronlund, N. E. (1953). The relative stability of classroom social status with unweighted and weighted sociometric choices. *Sociometry, 16*, 345–353.
- Hale, A. E. (1981). Conducting clinical sociometric explorations—A manual for psychodramatists and sociometrists. Roanoke, VA: A. E. Hale (private printing).
- Hashmi, H. (1967). Determinants of the sociometric pattern in an educational group. *Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry, 26*, 49–61.
- Jennings, H. H. (1947). Leadership and sociometric choice. *Sociometry, 10*, 32–49.
- Kidd, C. (1951). The use of sociometry in college residence placement. *Sociometry, 14*, 49–61.
- Lyles, W. K. (1966). An adaptation of a sociometric technique in college teaching. *Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry, 25*, 62–78.
- McClelland, F. M., & Batliff, J. A. (1947). The use of sociometry as an aid in promoting social adjustment in a sixth-grade home room. *Sociometry, 10*, 147–153.
- Moreno, J. L. (1946). *Psychodrama, Vol. 1*. Beacon, NY: Beacon House.
- Moreno, J. L. (1953). *Who shall survive?* Beacon, NY: Beacon House.
- Moreno, J. L. (Ed.). (1956). *Sociometry and the science of man*. Beacon, NY: Beacon House.
- Newark, N. L., & Garry, S. (1962). Sociometry in the classroom. *Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry, 21*, 62–78.
- Northway, M. L. (1940). A method for depicting social relationships obtained by sociometric testing. *Sociometry, 3*, 144.
- Powell, E. R. (1982). Sociometric semantic differential assessment. *Small Group Behavior, 13*, 43–52.
- Shoobs, N. E. (1947). Sociometry in the classroom. *Sociometry, 10*, 154–167.
- Trasher, F. M., & Kerstetter, L. M. (1947). Sociometry and an activity program on the university level. *Sociometry, 10*, 178–185.

CLAUDE A. GULDNER is a professor in the Department of Family Studies and director of the Marriage and Family Therapy Graduate Program & Centre at the University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, N1G 2W1, Canada. PENNY STONE-WINESTOCK is a family therapist and psychodramatist in private practice in Toronto.

Book Reviews

Family Reconstruction: Long Day's Journey Into Light. William F. Nerin. 1986. New York: W. W. Norton. 225 pp.

William F. Nerin is a psychotherapist with over 20 years experience, and in this book he describes his use of Virginia Satir's approach to family reconstruction. It is largely a quasi-psychodramatic approach, and I am reviewing this book for a reading audience that is primarily psychodramatic in nature.

Apparently, in her later years, Satir, an internationally recognized leader in the field of family therapy, developed this more systematic approach that integrates psychodramatic methods with her concepts of individual and family psychodynamics. I am saddened to have to note that Ms. Satir, who wrote the foreword to this book not long before her death, made no mention of her debt to psychodrama literature. Indeed, I found only four references in this entire book (aside from Satir's foreword).

In the first chapter, Nerin presents his approach, which seems to me to be pretty close to what occurs in many psychodrama training workshops. Mr. Nerin notes that this approach is a blend of "gestalt [therapy], communications, psychodrama, body work (sculpting), hypnosis, accessing the unconscious, and fantasy" (p. xvi, p. 4)—but the description of most of what follows is in fact a derivative of psychodrama. Family sculpting, for example, is hardly "body work" but rather Satir's term for applying the psychodramatic technique called "action sociometry," described in Barbara Seabourne's article in *Group Psychotherapy* in 1963.

Terminology has been changed. What in psychodrama are called "auxiliary egos" become "role players" in family reconstruction. The director is renamed "the guide"; and the designations "star" (Satir's term) or "explorer" (Nerin's term) are used for what in psychodrama is called the "protagonist." Moreno's social atom diagram is called "the circle of influence." (Nerin also uses the geogram without crediting its origins with the earlier work of Murray Bowen and the family chronology without noting its roots in the classical work of Adolf Meyer, the dean of American psychiatry.)

Some rules again, harken back to Morenean principles: Family members do not play themselves in the reconstructions (p. 65). Indeed, it seems that the

real family members do not ever have an opportunity to explore their perceptions of the relationship with the protagonist in an actual encounter with a therapeutic facilitator, using the process of a "full role reversal."

On page 68, Nerin describes the action portion of the workshop. After preparing participants by having them make various aforementioned diagrams, the guide introduces some action experiences that psychodramatists know to be "warm-ups." The rationale for this series of activities is presented over the next few pages, along with examples.

On page 72, Nerin begins to warm up the group, though that term is not used. He describes how he talks about roleplaying. I was a bit startled to read how the auxiliaries ("role players") are "enrolled,"—that is, warmed up to their parts: After being placed in a family sculpture, "by staying frozen for a minute or two, the role player begins to get feelings and thoughts." It was at this point that I sensed that those who use this approach would be able to enrich it significantly by learning about the principles of psychodrama.

As the process continues, it shifts away from the principles of authentic psychodrama and explores a variety of fantasized or "reconstructed" scenes as improvised by the guide and the role players, based on inferences but with minimal real evidence of actual truth. For example, on page 96, an enactment of the birth of a paternal aunt is described. The idea, of course, is to help people become more compassionate and understanding of their parents or other significant persons not just by imagining what the circumstances of their early lives had been.

As we might imagine, the dramatization of key events in the lives of one's ancestors becomes the course of affect-laden associations. For example, on page 97, on witnessing a family sculpture in which the role player of the grandfather found himself patting the "aunt" (as a child) on the head, "Ann blurted out with great exclamation that her dad treats her in a way that keeps her helpless so that he feels important about himself. 'He must have learned that from his dad. Grandpa McConnell also treated me the same way.'" Yet these are patently projections, and often rather far-fetched ones.

The problem is, of course, that these rich and moving quasi-sociodramas tend to have the force of reality. As such, they receive the collective projections of all concerned, and they function in a fashion similar to those of the "recovered memories" that are now such a controversial problem in the mental health field. The question of the accuracy of these reconstructions seems to be ignored.

What seems ironic to me is that a similar degree of rich imagery, experience, and insight can be elicited from more conventional psychodramatic enactments of the protagonist in relationship with people in his or her actual social atom, which would reflect to some degree a greater accuracy of the

events. yet even then we should be careful to have these "insights" designated as hypotheses that deserve to be checked out with the people concerned.

Also, it is clear that each protagonist is offered a number of enactments and that on a given weekend only one, or at the most two, protagonists ("explorers") will receive the full attention of the group. The desire to act felt by the others who are asked to play supporting roles goes unmet. Nevertheless, it might be of value to some psychodramatists to view another, related (though derivative) approach. Nerin spells out many of his principles (pp. 130-137), but I tend to find them a bit simplistic, although quite noble in intention.

Apparently, this approach has become part of the self-help network associated with such groups as Al-Anon and Adult Children of Alcoholics. There may be a growing network for this synthesis of marathon encounter weekend, psychodrama, Satir's type of humanistic family therapy, and "personal mythology" work. In the long run, I expect to see more of this in the community, the church, and the general self-help movement. But I am uneasy, in the same way I was uneasy with the explosive growth of the encounter group of the 1970s. Basic principles of therapy and group dynamics were ignored back then (such as failing to have people in conflict role reverse), and I suspect an equal number of principles are being ignored in this work.

Although *Family Reconstruction* is intriguing, I find myself confirmed in my belief that psychodrama is indeed a highly complex process requiring all the training the current certification process demands. However, I am reminded that (a) there are lots of people out there leading psychodramas, sometimes under that name, sometimes by a different name—not that this is anything new; and (b) it is not unlikely that the quality of these enactment processes are several cuts below the standards of practice in our field.

My strategy is to encourage such practitioners not to call their craft psychodrama (which, thankfully, this author does not do) but to go on to learn about psychodrama, especially its underlying principles. I would be interested in readers' ideas regarding the best way to cope with this inevitable dilution of our craft.

ADAM BLATNER

Austin, Texas

Persona and Performance: The Meaning of Role in Drama, Therapy, and Everyday Life. (1993). Robert J. Landy. 278 pp. Hardcover, \$23.95.
Available from Guilford Publications, Inc., 72 Spring St., NY 10012.

This book is relevant for psychodramatists as well as drama therapists because it deepens and extends the theoretical foundations of role theory,

which lies at the basis of psychodramatic work. The author is the director of the graduate drama-therapy program at New York University, one of two such programs in the United States, and is an eminent leader in his field and the author of previous books on drama therapy.

Landy explores the varieties of roles, using allusions to theatrical roles or those derived from myths and fairy tales. Most of these references would be familiar to any educated person, but a fair number require some acquaintance with the literature of the theater.

After an overview of the origins of the role concept and its developmental psychology, Landy explain his "role method," which involves his having patients imagine themselves in various roles derived from the cultural conserve of stories in which they are able to improvise and explore those roles as metaphors for aspects of their own dynamics. It is an approach that would seem to require a fair amount of intelligence and at least a moderate degree of imaginativeness and spontaneity. The middle part of the book presents an example of his work with one young man over an extended period of time.

Landy then finishes the book by presenting his taxonomy of a wide range of social roles. This descriptive approach seems closer to the work of the social psychologists, and although it may give psychodramatists an overview, it is more aimed at offering drama therapists or dramatists a listing and description of the variety of available characters.

I had a number of minor concerns: The book omitted reference to a fair number of workers in the area of role theory, ranging from George Kelly's "personal construct theory" to the classical texts by Bruce Biddle. Landy's ideas about archetypes being somewhat equivalent to role types is, in my opinion, an inadequate reading of the numinous, mysterious, and somewhat more primal nature of archetypes. For example, the father archetype, which expresses a sociobiological instinct along with its associated imagery, can be expressed in a wide range of social roles that function as vehicles for this archetype—supervisor, teacher, model, governor, policeman, and so forth. (Of course, other archetypes often affect these roles, also.)

I thought the author also misunderstood Moreno in several aspects: First, as a matter of fact, Moreno was not specially trained in psychiatry. He was a general physician with special interests in philosophy, social reform, and the revitalization of the function of theater in culture. It was out of his experiements with the Theatre of Spontaneity and after he came to the United States in the late 1920s that he began to increase his work in the general area of psychiatry. And even then, Moreno never confined himself to this more conventional socioeconomic role of psychotherapist—he always maintained that his work applied far beyond the context of the medical model.

Even more significant, I think Landy's appreciation of Moreno's contribution to role theory misses its real essence: The psyche functions simultane-

ously on multiple levels, and its ability to be helped to play the “meta-roles” of “co-director” or participant-observer of its own activity allows the person to become liberated from the cultural conserve or personal habits that defined his or her roles (Blatner, 1991).

Thus, *Persona and Performance* may serve as a useful supplement in the library of the psychodramatist, but it cannot be said to be either comprehensive or definitive in presenting the kinds of theoretical material that explains how psychodrama operates. It is more adapted to his own method of drama therapy, which, it should be noted, is not the only approach in this relatively recent field (Emunah, 1994).

Psychodrama and drama therapy have areas of overlap and also ways that they are distinct. Yet each can be informed by the other. The literature in drama therapy belongs also in the library of training programs in psychodrama, and I would suggest that the training of drama therapists should incorporate more use of the literature in the field of psychodrama.

REFERENCES

- Blatner, A. (1991). Role dynamics. *Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama & Sociometry*, 44, 33–40.
- Emunah, R. (1994). *Acting for real: Drama therapy theory and practice*. New York: Brunner/Mazel.

ADAM BLATNER
Austin, Texas

INDEX TO VOLUME 47

(Spring 1994 Through Winter 1995)

- Adams, Gary A., Tina C. Elacqua, and Stephen M. Colarelli. The Employment Interview as a Sociometric Selection Technique. Fall, p. 99.
- Adams, Gerald R., and Jaipaul L. Roopnarine. Physical Attractiveness, Social Skills, and Same-Sex Peer Popularity. Spring, p. 15.
- Barbour, Alton. A Reexamination of the Tele Effect. Fall, p. 114.
- Blatner, Adam. Reviews of *Family Reconstruction: Long Day's Journey Into Light* by W. F. Nerin and *Persona and Performance: The Meaning of Role in Drama, Therapy, and Everyday Life* by R. J. Landy. Winter, p. 186.
- Breen, Michael D. Applied Sociometry. Summer, p. 52.
- Carvalho, Esly Regina, and Valeria Cristina A. Brita. Sociometric Intervention in Family Therapy: A Case Study. Winter, p. 147.
- Dunstone, Stephen, and Angeline Zea. Sociometric Assessment of Social Integration of Students From Culturally Diverse Backgrounds at a Nonresidential University. Winter, p. 165.
- Gazda, George, and Jerry A. Mobley. Multidimensional Scaling: High-Tech Sociometry for the 21st Century. Summer, p. 77.
- Guldner, Claude A., and Penny Stone-Winestock. The Use of Sociometry in Teaching at the University Level. Winter, p. 177.
- Hagborg, Winston J. Sociometry and Educationally Handicapped Children. Spring, p. 4.
- Johnson, Jeffrey, Marsha Ironsmith, and G. Michael Poteat. Assessing Children's Sociometric Status: Issues and the Application of Social Network Analysis. Spring, p. 36.
- Polley, Richard B., and Jarlie Eid. First Among Equals: Leaders, Peers, and Choice. Summer, p. 59.
- Treadwell, Thomas, Susan Koszalka, and Norman Rahn, guest editors for Volume 47. Comments About the Series on Sociometry. Spring, p. 3; Summer, p. 51.
- Williams, Antony. Clinical Sociometry to Define Space in Family Systems. Fall, p. 126.

У
м
...
н
с
с
м
н
с

■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■

☐ \$40.00 individuals ☐ \$64.00 institutions

SUBSCRIPTION ORDERS 1 (800) 365-9753

INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

The *Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry* publishes manuscripts that deal with the application of group psychotherapy, psychodrama, sociometry, roleplaying, life-skills training, and other action methods to the fields of psychotherapy, counseling, and education. Preference is given to articles dealing with experimental research and empirical studies. The journal continues to publish reviews of the literature, case studies, and action techniques. Theoretical articles are acceptable if they have practical application. From time to time, the journal publishes theme issues.

The journal welcomes practitioners' short reports of approximately 500 words. This brief reports section is devoted to descriptions of new techniques, clinical observations, and results of small surveys and short studies.

1. Contributors should submit two copies of each manuscript to be considered for publication. In addition, the author should keep an exact copy so the editors can refer to specific pages and lines if a question arises. The manuscript should be double spaced with wide margins.

2. Each manuscript must be accompanied by an abstract of about 100 words. It should precede the text and include brief statements of the problem, the method, the data, and conclusions. In the case of a manuscript commenting on an article previously published in the JGPPS, the abstract should state the topics covered and the central thesis, as well as identifying the date of the issue in which the article appeared.

3. The *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 4th edition, the American Psychological Association, 1994, should be used as a style reference in preparation of manuscripts. Special attention should be directed to *references*. Only articles and books specifically cited in the text of the article should be listed in the references.

4. Reproductions of figures (graphs and charts) may be submitted for review purposes, but the originals must be supplied if the manuscript is accepted for publication. Tables should be prepared and captioned exactly as they are to appear in the journal.

5. Explanatory notes should be avoided by incorporating their content into the text.

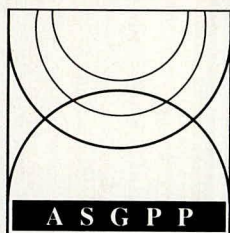
6. Once a manuscript has been accepted, its authors will receive information about supplying a diskette of the article.

7. Accepted manuscripts, usually published within 6 months of acceptance, are edited for style and readability. Normally, proofs are not sent to authors. Each author receives two complimentary copies of the issue in which the article appears.

8. Submissions should be sent to the managing editor, *Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry*, Heldref Publications, 1319 Eighteenth Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036-1802.

For more information, call 202-296-6267, X213 or send fax to 202 - 296-5149.

The American Society of Group Psychotherapy & Psychodrama



FOUNDED IN 1942

*For more information,
call or write:*

ASGPP

**6728 Old McLean Village Drive
McLean, VA 22101
(703) 556-9222**

The American Society of Group Psychotherapy & Psychodrama is dedicated to the development of the fields of group psychotherapy, psychodrama, sociodrama, and sociometry, their spread and fruitful application.

Aims: to establish standards for specialists in group psychotherapy, psychodrama, sociometry, and allied methods; to increase knowledge about them; and to aid and support the exploration of new areas of endeavor in research, practice, teaching, and training.

The pioneering membership organization in group psychotherapy, the American Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama, founded by J. L. Moreno, MD, in April 1942, has been the source and inspiration of the later developments in this field. It sponsored and made possible the organization of the International Association on Group Psychotherapy. It also made possible a number of international congresses of group psychotherapy. Membership includes subscription to *The Journal of Group Psychotherapy, Psychodrama and Sociometry*, founded in 1947 by J. L. Moreno as the first journal devoted to group psychotherapy in all its forms.