

PSYCHOSOCIAL DRAMA AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS CONVICTS

by

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ABSTRACT

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The hypothesis that processing in psychosocial drama can shift attitudes in a positive direction was tested. Processing was defined as non-directive group leadership of audience members following the presentation of a psychosocial drama concerning the stigma faced by a prison convict. Caucasian female college students were divided into three experimental groups after watching a unit of action presentation (role play) involving an offender and his wife. The ensuing manipulations consisted of: (a) discussion led by the presenter, (b) small leaderless group discussions and (c) no interaction following the presentation. A control group participated in pre and posttesting only. Processing following the psychosocial drama method did not effect positive attitude changes. Implications for further study were indicated. Sensitization effects; ego involvement; the educational value of the technique and the make-up of the target audience surfaced as key variables in the appraisal of this approach to attitude change.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

You know it's really amazing you should read books like this, I'm staggered I am. I should've thought you'd read paperbacked thrillers, things with lurid covers, books like that. And here you are with Claud Cockburn, Hugh Klare, Simone de Beauvoir, and Lawrence Durrell!

You know he didn't see this as an insulting remark at all, in fact I think he thought he was being honest in telling me how mistaken he was. And that's exactly the sort of patronizing you get from straight people if you're a criminal. "Fancy that!" they say. "In few ways you're just like a human being!" I'm not kidding, it makes me want to choke the bleeding life out of them (Parker & Allerton, 1962, p. 111).

The public's negative and stereotypic beliefs about criminals adversely affect the offender's opportunities following a period of incarceration. An offender re-enters society with a bus ticket and \$50.--a meager beginning for any person and especially difficult for the ex-offender whose social acceptance is limited by a stereotyped public view. The quotation cited above exemplifies the offender's need to be recognized as a "human being"; his critic insults his dignity on an item as commonplace as his reading list. It is assumed in this

study that changing the public's belief system toward offenders in a positive direction would have a beneficial effect on the self-image and potential opportunities of the ex-offender upon release from prison.

The study presented here was conducted to test the hypothesis that an empathic role-play technique could lead to positive attitude change in the labelers.

The public's perception of offenders and ex-offenders is strangely influenced by media coverage. For example, media headlines often emphasize gruesome details of crime and present a grossly negative image of the alleged offenders. A recent New York Times front page headline read, "Paroled Killer in Jersey is Linked to 5 Slayings." The article enumerated that: "The bodies of 2 teenage girls were unearthed on Staten Island... and authorities linked their deaths and those of three other people to a man who served sixteen years in prison for the murder of a municipal prosecutor in New Jersey" ("Paroled Killer," 1983). This stereotypical image of offenders is pervasive and evokes a lock-em-up-and-throw-away-the-key philosophy. A Newsweek survey (1971) showed that 75% of the respondents felt the criminal justice system's most serious failure was insufficient punishment for criminals.

Public relations has not been a forte of the criminal justice system. With the recent upswing in

prison populations and the move toward community corrections, the need for public awareness has increased. A public survey regarding halfway houses did show a promising and more positive public attitude. The respondents approved of community halfway houses, "But not in my neighborhood" (H. Roll, Doctoral dissertation, 1976).

The personal contact in victim assistance programs between an offender and the victim can bridge this stereotypical gap and allow a victim to meet a person, albeit an offender, and replace the substandard image that was previously held. In the past decade, these programs may have added a measure of accountability to some crime victims. Face-to-face interaction to discuss restitution for the offense may also result in victim satisfaction.

An empathic role play is one method of simulation in the face-to-face interactions discussed above. Role play could be used to increase the sensitivity of criminal justice students, police personnel, correctional personnel, and other professionals to the needs of the offenders.

In the study to be presented, a role-playing approach identified as psychosocial drama was used to test the hypothesis that negative attitudes toward offenders can be changed in a positive direction. A

psychosocial dramatist's goal is to increase awareness by presenting a brief skit or "unit of action." The unit of action presents a "slice of life" panorama. A resolution to the unit of action is intentionally not presented. A discussion follows the unit of action and allows the audience to reflect upon the interactions presented. Discussion leaders draw no conclusions and encourage audience members to express their opinions freely.

In the study presented here, the unit of action presents two characters in the visiting area of a state prison. The offender and his wife are portrayed by actors trained in psychosocial drama (Note 1). It is hypothesized that people who are exposed to a complete psychosocial drama presentation will show a more positive attitude toward offenders than people who participate in other types of interactive sessions following the unit of action presentation.

In what follows a review of the pertinent literature is presented. This includes the development of psychosocial drama and specific examples of its uses; a review of the attitude change literature as it pertains to psychosocial drama; and the criminological theory from which the present study evolved. In Chapter II the experimental design, methodology and results of the study are presented. Chapter III is comprised of a discussion and summary including implications for future research.

Literature Review

Psychosocial Drama

Psychosocial drama developed from the foundations of psychodrama and sociodrama set forth by J.L. Moreno (1972). The technique of psychosocial drama was developed by Million and Mason (Note 2) at The Institute for Human Awareness, in Columbus, Ohio.

Training workshops on the technique and development of psychosocial drama have been conducted by Million and Mason throughout the country. Successful completion of psychosocial drama training has taught hundreds of people to lead psychosocial dramas and to continue training others in the principles and philosophy of this technique (Note 3).

Psychosocial drama combines a brief theatrical role play with audience interaction led by the presenters. The role play is known as a unit of action. A unit of action is 2-5 minutes long and ends at the climax of the drama. This climax presents a conflict or dilemma between the characters in the unit of action. Audience feedback with the psychosocial dramatists immediately follows the unit of action. This is the main emphasis of the psychosocial drama presentation, lasting approximately 20 minutes. This guided group discussion

led by the presenters is known as processing the unit of action.

Psychosocial drama is conducted in this way to give audience members an opportunity to voice opinions and to gain individual insights regarding the unexpressed resolution of the conflict. The purpose of a psychosocial drama presentation is to advocate awareness of an issue, to sensitize others to new developments or to assist in solving problems. The primary use of the psychosocial drama has been in the field of social services, for example advocating an issue such as domestic violence intervention, sensitizing community residents to the concept of a neighborhood halfway house, or problem solving such things as difficulties between agency administrators and staff.

Much time and energy are devoted to the preparation of a psychosocial drama presentation. A general guideline allocates one hour of preparation for each minute in the unit of action production. Preparation is similar to a theatrical production which includes choosing the characters, developing the character's individuality or characterization, deciding on a conflict and, most importantly, writing and rehearsing the unit of action's processing segment. The difference between psychosocial drama and actual theatre is the inclusion of the processing or audience interaction in psychosocial

drama.

Psychosocial dramatists prepare for processing by rehearsing. Troupe members role play possible interactions or audience comments during rehearsals. This practice serves to prepare the psychosocial dramatists for the topics raised in the presentation. Each time a unit of action is processed there is an impromptu audience discussion; however, general themes repeatedly surface.

One member of the psychosocial drama group is selected to lead processing. This person, known as the dominant processor, guides the audience through the discussion. It is the task of the processor to guide the discussion without intentionally inserting personal values or judgments. "The goal of the processor is to coactively and in a non-threatening manner, support audience members to create a learning journey that is relevant to their life" (Mason & Million, Note 2, p. 29). Audience members' ideas are accepted like a patient's feelings are accepted in a non-directive therapy situation. There are no right or wrong answers, no correct or incorrect beliefs. Processing focuses on the audiences' perceptions. The dominant processor guides the discussion rather than leading it.

There are five stages of processing: experiencing, sharing, interpreting, generalizing, and

applying. These create the vehicle for the learning session discussed above. The first stage of processing known as "experiencing," begins the discussion with a question such as "What did you see happening here?" Responses are usually factual statements regarding the scene and the characters.

Stage two is the "sharing stage" which may begin with a question such as, "How did you feel about what you saw?" Or, "Why did you feel that way?" Each stage of processing builds on the information offered by the audience during the previous discussion.

"Interpreting" or stage three begins to focus on the audience's perception of the characters' feelings toward each other. Responses may include a discussion of the subtle nonverbal cues displayed by the characters. This stage allows the audience members to begin developing a conceptual view of the interactions portrayed in the unit of action.

The fourth and fifth stages, "generalizing" and "applying," may only occur once the audience has discussed the information presented in the first three stages of **processing**. The processor focuses on the previously discussed information in the fourth, or generalizing segment. For the audience, this stage may present a clearer overall picture of the patterns the characters would exhibit if placed in other situations.

The generalizing discussion is intended to elicit suggestions from audience members as to how the characters could resolve the conflict presented.

The final stage of "applying" takes the generalizing information further by promoting steps to arrive at a resolution. Whether or not this stage is reached depends on the motivation and involvement of the audience. For instance, if the audience has seen a unit that relates closely to their own life circumstances, applying is considered an integral part of processing and will give the audience an opportunity to suggest relevant action steps. If the unit of action was performed for the general public to sensitize or advocate awareness to a current issue then exposure to the unit and processing through the stage of generalizing may accomplish this goal.

In summary, psychosocial drama provides a role-play situation defined as the unit of action followed by a guided audience discussion called "processing." Trained troupe members lead the audience discussion as objectively as possible, accepting the opinions that are expressed. Psychosocial drama is an outgrowth of psychodrama and sociodrama. These techniques need to be discussed and contrasted with psychosocial drama.

Psychodrama

Psychodrama is a therapeutic or counseling approach. The patient plays the role of protagonist in a psychodrama performance. This method allows the patient to re-play roles as he or she would have liked them to occur or to re-experience critical events from the past. Moreno (1972) refers to this process as therapeutic or controlled acting-out. "Why not let him act out these hidden thoughts and strivings as an alternate to an 'analysis' of his resistance?" (Moreno, p. ix). The psychodrama is seen as the therapeutic method for the patient in place of other forms of clinical psychotherapy. Proponents of psychodrama see this "controlled acting-out" as therapy, indicated by Moreno's statement above. He refers to a purging aspect or catharsis in psychodrama and "maintained that tragedy tends to purify the spectators and listeners by artistically exciting certain emotions which act as a kind of homeopathic relief from their own selfish passions" (Moreno, 1972, p. 350). Patient participation in the psychodrama encourages a new awareness or insight into previously rationalized perceptions held by the patient.

In psychodrama the patient plays an unrehearsed

or spontaneous role from his or her own life experiences, such as a childhood role. Assistants play the roles of the relevant family members recreating the personalities described by the patient. These ancillary parts are referred to as "auxiliary egos." The focus of psychodrama is on the protagonist (patient) although other patients in the group can benefit by observing others' psychodramas. The director of the psychodrama is a trained therapist. This person is familiar with the problems of the patient and casts the roles in addition to providing the ideas for the performances.

The patient prepares for participation in psychodrama after spontaneity training. This training involves role play rehearsals in which the patient learns to operate spontaneously rather than in a calculated or rehearsed manner. "The protagonist is challenged to respond with some degree of adequacy to a new situation or with some degree of novelty to an old situation....In order to mobilize and shape them, they need a transformer and a catalyst, a kind of intelligence which operates here and now, hic et nunc 'spontaneity'" (Moreno, 1972, p. xii).

Psychodrama and psychosocial drama differ in format, not purpose. The psychosocial drama role play is rehearsed by trained psychosocial dramatists and performed for an audience generally at the request of the

audience group. The psychodrama on the other hand casts the patient as protagonist in a spontaneous role play. Spontaneity exists in the psychosocial drama only after the presentation of the unit of action, during processing. Processing may also promote the cathartic effect Moreno discusses when the audience members express their opinions and participate in a problem solving experience. Increased awareness is the purpose of both psychodrama and psychosocial drama. In psychosocial drama this awareness is promoted through advocating, sensitizing, or problem solving. Each unit of action will not necessarily relate to the viewer's life circumstances as completely as the psychodrama relates to the patient's situation. Although these two techniques share many likenesses, there is a definite distinction between them.

For instance, if a psychosocial drama unit is requested on domestic violence for an audience of abuse victims and therapy is the intent of this request, psychodrama would be more apropos. The psychosocial drama troupe examines each request by gathering data on the audience and on the nature of the request before giving a presentation. In the example given above, the psychosocial dramatists obtain the necessary data and in so doing would realize that the request calls for a therapeutic situation like psychodrama rather than the psychosocial drama as requested. The troupe members take

the responsibility of granting or denying a request based on the information they have gathered. In this case, the troupe would probably deny the request explaining that psychodrama which involves a deeper level of involvement and specialized training would be the treatment of choice. On the other hand, if the request for a domestic violence presentation came from a civic group whose aim is to explore the need for a shelter, psychosocial drama would be a viable format. The intent in psychosocial drama is not therapy, but advocacy, sensitization and problem solving. In every situation where a psychosocial drama is presented it is the responsibility of the troupe members to suggest additional resources available in the community. This precaution is taken so audience members, who may have an immediate need, will become aware of the available resources. On occasion, the psychosocial drama troupe may enlist the aid of a resource person to accompany the group and to offer assistance by answering questions regarding the current status of a project.

As demonstrated in the above example, psychodrama and psychosocial drama have distinct purposes. The responsibility for screening requests is taken seriously by the psychosocial dramatists. They are entering a new situation and working with an unfamiliar group of people. In psychodrama, the director as therapist is very familiar with the group members and will have the added

benefit of regular contact with the group. Psychosocial drama frequently involves only one contact with a particular audience and seeks to accomplish its purpose on the basis of this single contact.

Sociodrama

Psychosocial drama shares more commonalities with sociodrama than with psychodrama. Moreno's (1972) development of sociodrama began with the "living newspaper" technique. These sociodramas focused on news events and elicited individual and group reaction to a specific incident. The participants in the living newspaper sociodramas were psychodrama students and community members who served as audience volunteers. The living newspaper sociodrama is an impromptu role play based on re-playing a current news event. Topic suggestions are offered by a director or by a participant volunteer. These were most often performed in public places and later moved to Moreno's psychodrama studio. Starr (1977) distinguished psychodrama from sociodrama in this way: "There were two lines of development, one in the direction of diagnosis and therapy of the individual, and the other in the direction of the roles presented as the collective image of a social stereotype" (p. 3).

Moreno encouraged interested audience members to take roles in the sociodramas to demonstrate their

intuitions regarding conflicts such as race riots in Harlem or World War II events.

Sociodrama has also been developed as a form of social learning in classrooms, industry, churches, and community organizations. It focuses on solving group problems, with the emphasis on restraining rather than on release of emotional tension. Sociodrama makes it possible to describe, analyze, partially reexperience, and objectively human reaction to social communications as the dynamics of the group structure are explained and treated (Starr, 1977, p. 3).

The above quote could have been written about psychosocial drama. The difference between sociodrama and psychosocial drama is in the extent of audience participation. In sociodrama the audience members participate in the role play; in psychosocial drama, the role play is presented to the audience. Both techniques offer the opportunity for audience interaction following the presentation of the drama. As described previously, the psychosocial drama does not provide a resolution, so theoretically, both psychosocial and sociodrama provide the audience with an opportunity to construct a resolution or ending.

Increased self and social-awareness are the purposes of psychosocial drama, psychodrama and sociodrama. Distinctions between the three procedures are found in the extent of personal involvement invested by the audience member or patient. It has been said of psychosocial drama that each person brings with him or

her a unique accumulation of life experiences. Moreno (1972) said that people's experiences share the common boundaries of social and cultural norms. The actual effects of the psychodrama or sociodrama are documented primarily by case history information and the effects of psychosocial drama have not been empirically assessed. Table one displays comparisons of the techniques discussed.

Table 1

Comparison of Three Role-Playing Techniques

	PSYCHODRAMA	SOCIODRAMA	PSYCHOSOCIAL DRAMA
Purpose	Diagnosis & Therapy	Social Learning	Social Learning
Drama's Protagonists	Patients	Troupe Members, Audience	Troupe Members
Format of Drama	Spontaneous role play directed & cast by psychodrama therapist	Spontaneous role play on an issue of social con- cern	Topic chosen by troupe at audience re- quest; Troupe rehearses then performs unit of action
Level of Audience Participation	Limited to Patient(s)	Openly dis- cussed &/or re-created by partici- pants	Open audience discussion, known as processing
Goal	Patient Catharsis	Collective Catharsis	Increased Awareness; Sensitivity; Problem Solving

Prior Research

There are no published studies on psychosocial drama per se. However, the previous discussion of psychodrama, sociodrama, and psychosocial drama indicates that there are commonalities among the techniques: use of the role play, spontaneity, cathartic effects, and increased awareness. An empirical study by Teahan (1975) on the use of the role play, relative to the criminal justice system, is of some interest. His study provides an introduction to the attitude change literature that affects the present study. An empirical study on psychodrama and audience attitude change (Greenberg, 1968) is also of interest and is in the next section.

Articles published on role playing and psychodrama involve three areas of emphasis: (a) in-service training, (b) treatment, including problem solving and increasing self-esteem; and (c) simulation of real life situations. The element that relates most closely to the present study is simulation of real life situations and will be discussed in some detail after a review of the other areas has been presented.

Role-playing techniques have been studied in police training for crisis situations at the Police Training Institute of Illinois (Note 4). Approximately

400 officers were trained during a nine-month program involving six different role-play situations. Although the program was not empirically assessed, the benefits were thought to be minimal costs; real-life simulations; ease of implementation; and expedience (in two-and one-half hours, 35 officers completed the procedure).

Techniques using role-play simulations are popular police training approaches for crisis intervention. A half-day crisis intervention training program was developed by local police departments and the mental health center in Boulder, Colorado (Wallace & Schreiber, 1977). A similar program was used to increase the skills and understanding of police when working with emotionally disturbed people. This program included training which involved dealing with suicide attempts (Hipple & Hipple, 1976). Halverson and Ledoux (1979) discussed the value of assessing motivational and learning characteristics of police officers. The authors concluded that role playing is an effective training device because adult learners tend to strive for immediate application of training principles. Other benefits cited were the informal nature of the approach and enabling the trainee to apply previously acquired knowledge and experiences during the sessions (See Goldstein, Monti, Sardino, Green, 1979; Huseman, 1972).

Role playing has also been used to acquaint

school students: (a) to the criminal justice system; (b) to rural crime problems; and (c) on legal processes from arrest to arraignment for selling marijuana (Gill, Dunn, Turner, Sanabria, Holley, & Weiss, 1978; Davison, 1975; Wurschmidt & Phillips, 1979; Judicial Process Commission, 1976).

A role-play format utilizing treatment and problem-solving approaches was used to train prospective probationers to deal with the system of probation (Golden, Twentyman, Jensen, Karan, Kloss, 1980). Other treatment methods included: a program to help parolees adjust to society (Veillard-Cybulska, 1967); interpersonal skills training for male offenders (Bornstein, Winegardner, Ryhtarik, Paul, Naifeh, Sweeney, Justman, 1979), and psychotherapy and counseling of juvenile and adult offenders (Gray & Gray, 1977; Haskell, 1974; Wathney, 1979).

Wathney (1979) used psychodrama with delinquent adolescents in conjunction with other treatment approaches such as Transactional Analysis, Gestalt Therapy, and Behavior Modification. Advantages of the psychodrama technique were seen as: a focus on spontaneity rather than other patterns which result from peer pressure; role playing encouraged active rather than passive therapy participation; and, increased development of empathy and social skills. Wathney also believed it

was beneficial to use psychodrama as an introductory therapy method, then moving on to move intense involvement. The simulations initially used "safe" secure topics, then allowed the adolescent to explore more pertinent personal problems combining psychodrama with other therapeutic techniques.

In addition to these treatment programs, some correctional facilities now encourage offenders to participate in in-house or travelling theater groups. The benefits thought to be derived from these procedures include increased self-esteem, and interpersonal skills training (Ryan, 1976; Wandres, 1981).

The studies previously cited on psychodrama and other role-play techniques place an emphasis on role training or therapy. The dramas' directors chose a form of role playing in place of other counseling techniques. The advantage of role-playing approaches are: (a) roles can be rehearsed in a non-threatening, non-crisis counseling environment; (b) real life simulations provide cognitive preparation for future encounters by encouraging the development of independent problem solving skills.

Of psychodrama, Greenberg (1968) states:

Basically, it may be surmised, psychodrama is nothing more than a grand extension of the clinical interview, with the main difference being that instead of the patient established in a one-to-one relationship with the psychotherapist, he finds himself removed from the privacy of the consulting-

room and placed in a position where he is given the opportunity to act out and thus experience in a larger-than-life dimension various aspects of his problems (p.96).

Lewis Yablonsky (1974) similarly gives his impressions of the psychodrama technique:

1. There are certain key roles and situations which are difficult. This is especially true of individuals who have been institutionalized.
2. Although it is recognized that preparation for these roles through psychodrama may not significantly shift personality structure and dynamics, its application can enable the individual to remain in the open community.
3. Functioning in these roles gives the subject an opportunity to receive therapeutic benefits from "normal" interaction conditions.
4. This type of role training has usefulness not only with people who have been institutionalized. It offers a possibility for "cutting through" into new spheres of social relations which had been closed to the individual because of his inability to function adequately in the "key" roles and situations (pp. 347-348).

A consideration of the psychodramatic techniques is the ease with which they could be exploited. Moreno (1972) warned of occurrences of socio- and psychodramas used to advocate communist propaganda. A psychodrama study by Greenberg (1968) employed a propaganda technique to change people's attitudes and will be discussed in the section on attitudes.

Another key component of the effectiveness of the psychodrama or sociodrama is the expertise of the director or group leader. It is this person's responsibility to act clinically as a therapist deciding

upon the subject of the role plays and carefully casting and directing the drama. Training should encompass a knowledge of human relations, counseling techniques, a thorough understanding of group dynamics and identification of patient problems. The psychosocial dramatist shares many of these same responsibilities. The effectiveness of psychosocial drama is derived from the processing skills of troupe members and a clear understanding of the aim of each presentation.

The focus in the present study is on psychosocial drama or role play as a simulation of real-life situations. A study examining the effectiveness of mock jury deliberations lends support to the hypothesis that role-play simulations justify further study.

Kerr, Nerenz, & Herrick (1979), studied whether mock juries and simulated trials could be used to study actual jurors' behavior. Participants were 228 college students recruited to participate in a "Jury Project." Students were randomly assigned to six-person juries. Half of the juror groups were told they were participating in an experimental role-playing situation while the other half believed they were participating in real student discipline cases. The experimental procedures for the Jury Project were run in several sessions during a single day to prevent subject groups from discussing the experimental procedures among

themselves.

Results of the jury study indicated that actual and mock juries delivered nearly identical verdicts; made similar sentence recommendations; deliberated under the same decision scheme for the same length of time; and applied the same criterion of reasonable doubt. Of interest here is the idea that it is likely that attitudes expressed following a unit of action simulate the actual attitudes of participants.

The jury study (Kerr, et al., 1979) used a 2 (role) x 2 (sex) design. The analysis of variance yielded only one significant effect for sex. This was on the probability of guilt variable and showed that males felt it was more likely the defendant committed the crime than did females ($p < .01$).

In the Jury Project, sex of subject was a determining factor in only one of the variables analyzed. However, sex was not thought to be an important contributor to the obtained effect. A study by Reed and Nance (1972) on the stigma of convictions yielded a similar result when the sex variable was isolated. Although chi-square values fluctuated substantially, when females were eliminated from their sample, it was found that male and female respondents differed only in the kind of rights they felt an ex-offender should receive. On the other hand, significant differences in

granting rights were found in occupation, and locality. Teachers on the whole were more liberal than maintenance men or farmers in granting ex-prisoners rights. In conclusion, the young, the urbanite, and more educated granted more amenities in the Reed and Nance study. People under age 30 were the most liberal group in granting the specific amenities of room, intimacies, and voting.

Characteristic differences were also found by Simmons (1965) in a study on the tendency to stereotype deviants. Simmons concurring with Reed and Nance found a strong inverse relationship between education and tendency to stereotype. In a series of studies on stereotyping behavior Simmons (1965) asserted: "Sex, age, and other background variables bore no significant relationship to (the) tendency to stereotype deviants" (p. 230). The previously discussed studies indicate education of respondent as the most critical variable.

An experiment by Janis and King (1954) compared subjects' overt participation in role playing to that of passive controls: the control group read and listened to the same communication. They found that subjects who actively participated were more influenced by the communications than passive subjects. In addition to the finding that "saying is believing," there seemed to be evidence of a satisfaction factor by those who

participated orally. The study by Janis and King supports the idea that when subjects are given an opportunity to discuss their feelings, the discussion will change their attitudes more than subjects not afforded this opportunity.

Another study using group experience and role play yielded interesting results. Teahan (1975) researched attitude and value changes among black and white police officers. His study consisted of police cadets from three classes who were randomly assigned and divided into control and experimental groups. A fourth class of cadets was randomly assigned to a group known as a control-control (C-control). This C-control group received only pre- and posttesting and was not involved in any other aspects of the experiment. Although program participation was voluntary, the introductory statement indicated the police department would look favorably upon those who participated in the study.

Teahan's 10-member experimental groups met for one-and-one half hour weekly sessions for twelve weeks. Role playing was used as the vehicle to stimulate group interaction. Volunteers from the experimental groups were assigned to the roles of officer or suspect and were given written instructions as to their particular circumstances. The cadets acted out their roles while the other group members observed. Group members were also

free to re-play the roles. The procedure described is sociodrama as previously defined. The role play or sociodrama procedure was followed by a group discussion. Initially, the experiment followed this role play and discussion format. After several weeks, the "role play was often seen to be unnecessary." During the last few sessions, role playing was abandoned (Teahan, 1975). At this point the experimental procedure resembled processing in a psychosocial drama as earlier defined. The group members read the role play and rather than acting out the parts, they discussed the conflict and resolution of the drama.

Instruments for Teahan's (1975) study were (a) The Rokeach Value Survey, (b) Social Survey Questionnaire, and (c) Police-Community Attitude Assessment. The Rokeach Value Survey contained two groups of 18 items to be rank-ordered by respondents in terms of relative life importance. One group of items included value choices such as equality-freedom; the second group of items was made up of character values such as courageous, helpful, forgiving. The Social Survey Questionnaire was a 39-item instrument. Respondents rated items about blacks, foreigners and authoritarian attitudes on a 6-point scale. The third instrument, a police-community attitude survey, contained 35 items. This instrument assessed the individual's perception of

black-white relationships within the police department and between the department and the community. Most items on this attitude questionnaire were rated on a 5-point scale.

Pretesting was done during the first week of the police academy. Posttesting followed the experiment by 13 weeks. Respondents were assured confidentiality and told that no individual's report would be submitted to the department.

The results of the experiment showed contradictions among the analyses of attitudes of whites and blacks. The author concluded that the assessment of the white officers' results yielded no positive attitude changes. A sensitization to the existence of black-white issues within the department and between the community was established, by posttesting in which respondents readily admitted to the black-white problems. However, this awareness was accompanied by an increase in negative feelings toward blacks.

On the other hand, black officers participating in the experimental groups showed increased sensitivity regarding equality, and felt that relationships between black and white officers were better than they had been at the onset of the academy training.

Random group assignments were made in selecting the subjects and in assigning them to the experimental

groups. However, once selected, the subjects were strongly encouraged to remain in the study, (i.e. the department would look upon study participants favorably; they would be paid time-and-a-half for all experimental participation. These incentives may have biased Teahan's (1975) results.

Another shortcoming of the experiment is the twelve-week time period involved. Demand characteristics and contamination from extraneous factors during the course of the experiment were limitations of this study. Teahan attempted to control for these variables by choosing a control group from within each academy class in addition to a C-control group from a separate class.

Attitude Change

Classic studies on attitude change need to be reviewed. Elements common to attitude change research such as group conformity, the communication, the communicators, and individual characteristics have implications for attitude change research. A discussion of an empirical study on psychodrama and audience attitude change (Greenberg, 1968) concludes this section.

Group conformity is one aspect to consider in the assessment of attitude change. Conformity means "going along with" the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of a

group. Results of prior research indicate two levels of conformity: (a) private acceptance is defined as a level of conformity in which individuals adopt the values and behavior of the group, (b) compliance results in following the pressures of the group without changing privately held attitudes and beliefs (Morgan & King, 1971).

Experiments by Sherif (1935) and Asch (1956) studied group conformity. In Sherif's work subjects were placed in a group and asked to judge the distance a point of light appeared to move. The group members did not initially agree, but eventually conformed to the group by giving distance estimates which fell within the range of group responses.

Asch (1956) placed a naive subject among a group of confederates who had been coached to vary their responses from a standard. The task was a simple one: estimate the length of a line given one standard line for comparison.

Subjects tended to conform with the group about 33% of the time and conformed most often when the majority of the group could hear the subject's response. No generalizations could be made since some subjects conformed on almost every trial, while others almost never yielded. Conforming responses under public conditions seemed to indicate compliance rather than

private acceptance.

Group conformity needs to be considered in a discussion of psychosocial drama because audience members of a psychosocial drama are free to respond publicly during the processing which follows the unit of action presentation. Empirical studies suggest that group conformity, (compliance and private acceptance) occur more readily when responses are made public, and audience members may adapt or conform their views to those stated orally during the processing segment.

A prominent attitude change variable in psychosocial drama is conclusion drawing. Should communicators state the conclusion or should they allow the conclusion to be decided upon by the audience? Studies by Sherif and Asch presented questions with concrete, measurable responses like distance or length. In a psychosocial drama presentation, the conclusion is an abstract concept and the relationship between these two types of conclusions is unknown.

Psychosocial drama promotes conclusion drawing by the audience. Processing is a carefully thought out undertaking, allowing for full expression of opinions by the viewers. In psychosocial drama, no right answers or wrong answers exist since people are expressing beliefs and opinions. Hovland et al. (1971) has said:

The extent to which the topic produces "ego involvement" might also be a factor that determines the relative effectiveness of explicit conclusion drawing. On topics where the individual is less inclined to be dependent on others and more likely to resist the influence of others, implicit treatment may be more effective (p.70).

A discussion of individual attitudes fits neatly into Hovland's paradigm. The ego involvement discussed is a key component of the psychosocial drama. Hovland et al. (1971) emphasized individual conclusion-drawing through implicit treatment. The quotation cited identified a non-directive approach counseling. The reflective nature of processing in psychosocial drama exemplifies this implicit conclusion-drawing by the audience, rather than by the communicators or processors.

Although processors in a psychosocial drama strive to accept each comment objectively, no human interaction in an experimental situation is completely free from bias. Prior to the presentation, the psychosocial dramatist acting as processor has been involved in rehearsing the unit of action and also in rehearsing the processing segment. Therefore, the processor has certain notions regarding the interaction in a preparatory sense. From a negative standpoint the processor also has some preconceived notions about the unit and processing which may be communicated to the audience verbally or nonverbally.

Another aspect of conformity is obedience to

authority. Although the processors are not applying pressure to conform ~~as~~ to elicit certain responses, they appear to the audience as communicators or as knowledgeable individuals who may have subtle effects upon the audience by virtue of ascribed status.

Psychosocial dramatists do not fall into the category of persuaders as given by Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1971): "When a communicator attempts to persuade people to adopt his conclusions he usually employs arguments and appeals which function as incentives" (p. 67). Reflection and non-directive techniques used by psychosocial dramatists place them in the role of ostensible observers rather than in one of authority figure or persuader.

Another consideration of communication which effects attitude change is individual differences. Hovland, et al. (1971) purport that persons with higher intellectual ability learn quicker and draw appropriate inferences more effectively. This same group will also be more likely to be critical in accepting arguments and conclusions. Janis and King (1954) divided undergraduates into groups based on persuasability. The data and statistical tests supported the hypothesis that individuals with low self-esteem are predisposed to be highly influenced by persuasive communications. Students who showed the greatest opinion change exhibited

characteristic of social inadequacy, inhibition of aggression and depressive tendencies.

Irving Greenberg (1968) set out to change peoples' attitudes on the Draft and related concepts using a variety of psychodrama presentations. Psychodrama involves a patient protagonist, however, prior to the experiment Greenberg chose students with acting experience to play the psychodramatic roles. Greenberg played the role of director during the experimental procedures and it would seem that this is a study in psychosocial drama rather than psychodrama.

Subjects were college students in two political science classes. Students were encouraged to participate by their classroom professors. Greenberg designated the morning class as the control group (30 subjects) and the afternoon class served as the experimental group (34 subjects).

The control group was given a lecture by Greenberg on the use of psychological experimentation by political scientists in evaluating the political behavior of individuals. He illustrated this discussion with descriptions of a cognitive dissonance study, and Asch's work using confederates to elicit conforming responses.

Greenberg's experimental group viewed three psychodramas, one following the next. He describes the first as an anxiety-provoking psychodrama. It focused on

a pregnant college student contemplating suicide. This first presentation was unrelated to the other psychodramas which focused on the draft and related topics.

Greenberg hypothesized that the Experimental Group would show greater change in attitude toward the Draft and related concepts than the Control Group. He noted that this change should be from negative to positive. Rank ordering of the difference scores for the two groups was hypothesized to result in a standard score that would be significantly greater than chance.

Two pretest measures were administered: a semantic differential scale and the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale. Posttests administered immediately after the experiment consisted of the semantic differential and a Likert opinion scale of twenty-five items developed for the study.

Results supported the hypothesis that subjects would show a positive attitude change on the concept, the Draft. Hypotheses of attitude change on the other draft related concepts were not supported. Greenberg explains these findings by citing demand characteristics in the study and the small sample size as limitations of his experiment.

Greenberg (1968) based his hypotheses on the element of cathartic effects. He purposely began the experiment with an unrelated tension-producing psychodrama. He then hypothesized attitude changes would result from the audience's natural tendency or need to reduce anxiety through a catharsis. In his discussion of the results, Greenberg states: "For this reason, there was to be found in the changing of one's attitude toward the concept, The Draft, a step toward achievement of catharsis, and this would thereby tend to help diminish the amount of anxiety endured by each member of the audience" (p.227).

In addition to the small sample size cited by Greenberg as a limitation of his study, no random assignment procedures were used. As a matter of convenience, members of one political science class served as the control group, the other as the experimental group. Prior to the experiment, several pilot sessions were held. Poor overall attendance precluded an analysis of the studies. Although the experimental procedures solved this problem by pretesting and posttesting immediately before and after the experiment, random assignment to groups should have been used.

Greenberg did not control for anonymity of subject participation: students signed their pre- and

posttests. This may have contributed to the demand characteristics of the experiment and could have biased the results.

The ethical issues this study raises need to be reviewed. Although Greenberg is a trained psychodramatist, the study did not emulate therapy with consenting individuals as a psychodrama would have required. The purpose of the study appears to be: improve students' attitudes toward the draft. However, upon closer examination, the methodology included derisive techniques to achieve this goal. Greenberg, (a) invoked a need for anxiety reduction; (b) presented the issues rationally which he sought to assess; then (c) succeeded in changing attitudes toward one main concept. Positive attitude change toward the concept The Draft resulted from viewing an anxiety-producing psychodrama unrelated to this topic. Is psychodrama then an attitude-changing method? Greenberg's study does not appear to answer this question. His study seems to indicate that attitude change occurs through catharsis and deception.

Greenberg included a semantic differential instrument in his study to assess attitude change. The instrument was used for both pre- and posttest measures of attitudes. Through an analysis of pre- posttest difference scores the attitude change scores were obtained.

Measurement of Attitude Change

The semantic differential as a technique for measuring meaning is a frequently used instrument in attitude assessment. Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1969) state:

The semantic differential is essentially a combination of controlled association and scaling procedures. We provide the subject with a concept to be differentiated and a set of bipolar adjectival scales against which to do it, his only task being to indicate, for each item (pairing of a concept with a scale), the direction of his association and its intensity on a seven-step scale (p. 58).

The semantic differential uses bipolar adjectives placed on a continuum, i.e. HOT__ __ __ __ __ __ __ __ __COLD, to assess meanings of the concept presented. Scales for semantic differentiation include Evaluation, Potency and Activity. A crucial aspect of the semantic differential method lies in selecting the descriptive polar terms (Osgood, et al., 1969). Some of the most frequently used adjectives includes good / bad, clean / dirty, valuable / worthless, large / small, strong / weak, heavy / light, active / passive, fast / slow, and hot / cold (Messick, 1969).

When administered as both pre- and posttest measures, analysis of the difference between measures yields an attitude change score. Available research studies suggest that the instrument has several

advantages such as ease of administration; simple scoring procedure, and ease with which it can be integrated with other types of analyses (Messick, 1969).

Stereotypes

In a study by Simmons (1965) homosexuals were described as sexually abnormal, perverted, mentally ill, and maladjusted. These characteristics describe the homosexual as socially deviant. Simmons hypothesized that these are prejudicial stereotypes. One hundred and thirty-four subjects chose those adjectives with "sexually abnormal" chosen by 72% of the respondents; "perverted" by 52%, "mentally ill and maladjusted," by 40%. A more positive characteristic, "sensitive," yielded 10% acquiescence. A negative stereotypical view of the term homosexual was the consensus. Simmons (1965) explains the stereotyped conceptions of deviants:

The "overcategorization" of objects seems to be a necessary and ubiquitous aspect of human thought processes--a necessary means of organizing the infinite detail and complexity of the "outside" world. But such coding is necessarily a simplification of incoming stimuli, a selective simplification in which information is lost, and misinformation may be added. It must be emphasized that such stereotypes about people and things often contain some freight of truth. But they lead to distorted appraisals because they overestimate within-group similarity and between group differences, and they tend to be unresponsive to objective evidence (p.225).

One of the key phrases here is "objective evidence." The subjects in the Simmons study were presented a list of traits and asked to choose all that applied to the nondescript label homosexual. Simmons' description suggests in order to simplify the task, a majority of subjects chose negative stereotypical traits. After all, the task of assigning characteristics to such a global term called no particular human being to mind, but rather a "selective simplification" of group characteristics.

A psychosocial drama presents a slice of life which allows the audience to encounter a situation on a more personal level. Rather than presenting the term homosexual as Simmons did, a unit of action on this topic would present a more detailed view of a person also seen as a homosexual.

Stigma is defined as an attribute which is deeply discrediting. Once a stigma is attached, there is a need to return to a balance or consistency of character definition (Goffman, 1963) and it is likely that stigmatized individuals are also viewed as deviants. Furthermore, deviance is perpetuated by members of a group, community, or society which (a) interprets behavior as deviant, (b) defines persons who behave differently as deviant and (c) accords them treatment appropriate to deviants (Kitsuse, 1968, p. 20).

Therefore, if society defines homosexuals as deviant, the stereotyping referred to above is a result.

In a study by Kitsuse (1968), individuals were asked if they had known someone who they subsequently learned was a homosexual. The respondents who had known a homosexual indicated that their previous perceptions of the person were changed when they became aware of the person's homosexuality. They interpreted past behaviors in a new light. Once the label or stigma was perceived, the individual lost his or her individuality and was seen in stereotypical ways, becoming a "homosexual." The application of a single identifying characteristic has been defined by Becker (1968) as "master status," one which takes precedence over all other statuses. For example, in the case of a white Anglo-Saxon Protestant male physician, master status is his position as a doctor. In the study by Kitsuse mentioned above, master status changed to "homosexual" or "homosexual doctor."

An offender faces legally imposed sanctions and a stigma upon release from prison. Reed & Nance (1979, 1972) addressed the stigma of conviction when they studied the deprivation of civil rights, commonly known as civil disabilities. The investigators found that students were more conservative in granting prisoner rights than teachers, maintenance men, or farmers. In the analysis of student responses the key seemed to be

conviction rather than the type of crime such as conventional or white collar crime. An adaptation of Reed's questionnaire, "Rights and amniti. while in prison," was administered as a posttest.

Summary

In this chapter, three areas of literature were reviewed; psychosocial drama and its history, attitude change research studies, and literature on stereotyping and deviance.

Teahan's (1975) attitude study of value changes among groups of black and white officers over a 12-week experimental period showed a distinction between attitude change and sensitization or problem awareness.

The literature on attitude change reviewed findings from group conformity studies in addition to variables relating to communication. The role of the processors in the psychosocial drama was found to be relevant to the discussion of communicators, ego involvement of **the** participants (audience! and experimenter bias. Processors do not fit the description of intentional persuaders because they have a different goal, i.e. guiding the discussion. Processors appear to be participating discussion leaders, guiding the audience through the five stages of the processing segment. During

processing, the audience members tend to process the information globally rather than in a logical or sequential fashion. This kind of processing calls upon ego involvement and may be related to research conducted on stereotyping.

Integrating the prior literature with the hypothesis to be tested it was concluded that psychosocial drama combines a brief theatrical unit of action with an interactive audience discussion known as processing. Different kinds of processing segments needed to be included in the present experiment to assess the effects of processing and the impact this variable has on attitude change. Subsequently a large audience viewed the unit of action, following the presentation the audience was separated into three experimental groups.

The unit of action developed for the experiment was based on several factors. Literature on corrections and the criminal justice system provided the background. This literature included: the writings of Clemmer (1970) on prisonization and inmate groups; the work of Sykes (1970) on the pains of imprisonment; studies of institutional corrections (Fogel, 1975; Hawkins, 1976; Mitford, 1974; Murton, 1976; Orland, 1975); the recent studies of congeal visits and diversion programs as prison alternatives; and an article by Bardozo-Freeman (1983).

In the unit of action the inmate is first seen in the prison visiting area, ten months after his arrival at prison. Incarceration was warranted for the armed robbery he committed. This particular crime was selected because it was considered a serious one; it was rated as the ninth most serious offense in a survey of 140 crimes (Rossi, Waite, Bose, & Berk, 1974). It would appear that a serious crime should be chosen so as not to confuse the issue of attitude change with that of the need for punishment. For example, white-collar criminals are perceived differently from the common criminal, as are offenders of so-called victimless crimes. Thus a serious crime, armed robbery, punishment as a serious offense.

Once the crime was selected, the character of the offender was developed. He was portrayed as a statistically normal offender, eighth or ninth grade education, married with two children. His temperament and tough guy status were seen in the visiting room interaction with his wife. Emphasis was also placed on the offender's separation from his wife, his ill father and two children growing up without his guidance.

A conflict arises when his wife asks the offender, "Why'd you do it?" The unit of action ends with the offender repeating this question:

Why did I do it, anyway? She can't take care of herself let alone those kids, and my old man's gonna die on me 'fore I ever see him again. A lousy gun and a lousy bank. Sure it would have been great to

take it easy . . . some . . . bucks, but I went and ruined it for everybody. NOW LOOK AT ME! (Appendix C, Unit of Action Script).

The unit of action was presented to allow the audience an opportunity to see an offender as a person with feelings and needs. This study is distinguished from those that present a faceless entity. In addition processing, as previously defined should result in an attitude shift that allows the audience to develop a more positive attitude towards offenders in general.

Hypothesis: It is hypothesized that a group led in processing by psychosocial dramatists will experience a positive attitude shift.

CHAPTER II

METHOD AND RESULTS

Population

Subjects for this experiment were students at the Branch Campus of Kent State University, located in Ashtabula, Ohio. The experiment was conducted during March of 1983 when the campus served 1,000 students.

Ninety-four percent of the students attending the university lived in Ashtabula County which has a population of 100,000 people. Of the total student population, in 1983, female accounted for 60% (n=612); 55% of the students attended on a part-time basis; 99% of the students were Caucasian; and the mean age was 24.

Permission to conduct the experiment was handled by written correspondence to the Assistant Dean at the Branch Campus. Following an explanation of the experimental procedures the need for further investigation by the University's Human Subjects' Committee was not deemed necessary.

Procedure

Pretesting Procedures

The students participating in the experiment were enrolled in an Introduction to Business course, or a Child Psychology course. Students were requested to participate in the study by the experimenter who read the following instructions.

This class has been selected as one of the classes requested to participate in a study being conducted by a graduate student in partial completion of a master's thesis.

You may choose to participate. The study will look at some new ways to assess areas of concern to the general public. You will be asked, via questionnaires, to answer some questions regarding your feelings on certain topics.

Your participation is strictly voluntary and all of the time spent on this study will be done during or in place of your class time. All information contained on the questionnaires will be confidential in that individual responses will remain anonymous. As participants, you will be assigned an identification number to protect your identity. At no time will you be asked to place your name on a questionnaire. Your name will not be recorded (at any time) during this study. Your identification number will be used only to code responses, and at no time in this study will your name be linked to your responses.

Your desire to participate is completely up to you. Participation in this study will not influence your grade or standing in this class either positively or negatively.

Thank you for your time and consideration. At this time I will pass around a bowl containing numbers. If you wish to participate in this study, please pick one number from the bowl. Thank you again.

A confederate then walked around the classroom carrying a bowl of tag numbers assuring that each potential subject chose only one numbered tag. No further information was given, students who chose not to participate were simply passed by. After each student had an opportunity to choose a tag, the experimenter said, "I will now pass out questionnaires. Everyone who has taken a number will receive a questionnaire. Please keep these face down on the desk until I read the instructions."

Confederates passed out the pretest questionnaires to those who had chosen tag numbers. The pretest contained one page of instructions on the use of the semantic differential; two pages of semantic differential concepts (8 items); and, a page of 9 questions on the demographic characteristics of the respondent. These four pages were stapled together and appeared in the order cited above.

The experimenter addressed the class again and read the following statement:

As you were told, we are not able to identify you and the questionnaire you are about to complete. You have chosen a number tonight and you will be placing your number on these forms in two locations. I would like to ask that you record the number in a safe and available location. Place the numbered card in your wallet or write the number on the cover of a notebook you carry to class. You will need to know the number on March First, when we will be meeting again. Now turn over the questionnaires.

I will read over the instruction page; please follow along. The last page in the packet asks questions about you and is easily understood.

Please, do not omit any items.

The experimenters read aloud the instruction page which appeared as the first page of the questionnaire packet. These instructions discuss the procedure for completing the semantic differential items) (See Appendix A, Semantic Differential Instruction Page.

When students completed the pretests, they were collected by the confederates. When all the pretests were collected, the experimenters left the classroom. Pretesting procedures were performed independently by the confederate experimenters in each of the classes.

Experiment

Before the actual experiment began, random assignments of tag numbers to color groups were made, and rooms were reserved at the University for the experimental procedures.

Randomization was used to assign the 140 tag numbers to each of the four experimental (color) groups. The last three digits from a five-digit random number table were used to determine number-to-color-group assignments. The pairing of numbers to color groups were assigned in this order: first -- Red, second -- Yellow, third -- Blue, fourth -- Green; then repeated until all

numbers were assigned. For example, the first random number 32033 assigns the tag number 033 to the first group--Red, the next random number 04105 assigns 105 to the Yellow or second group. This procedure was used to assign each tag number 1 through 140 to the four experimental groups.

Several sets (four pages each) of number-color assignments were available to student subjects on the day of the experiment. This allowed the student subjects to check the number-color charts individually, thus protecting confidentiality and anonymity. A sample page of the number-color chart appears as Appendix B.

Four rooms were reserved for the night of the experiment, three classrooms for posttesting, and the Blue/Gold Room. The Blue/Gold Room was used throughout the experiment. It is approximately 60 feet long and 30 feet wide. This room was arranged with three six-foot tables near the entrance. A podium with a microphone was placed at the opposite end of the room in one corner. The area adjacent to the podium was designated as the performing area, a stage was not used. Four feet away from the performing area, five rows of chairs were situated in a semicircle extending across the width of the room. There were eighty chairs in all, angled to allow maximum observation by the subjects.

Colored signs designating the experimental groups

were hung in the Blue / Gold Room. These were placed so subject groups could form with the assigned color group immediately after locating their color assignments.

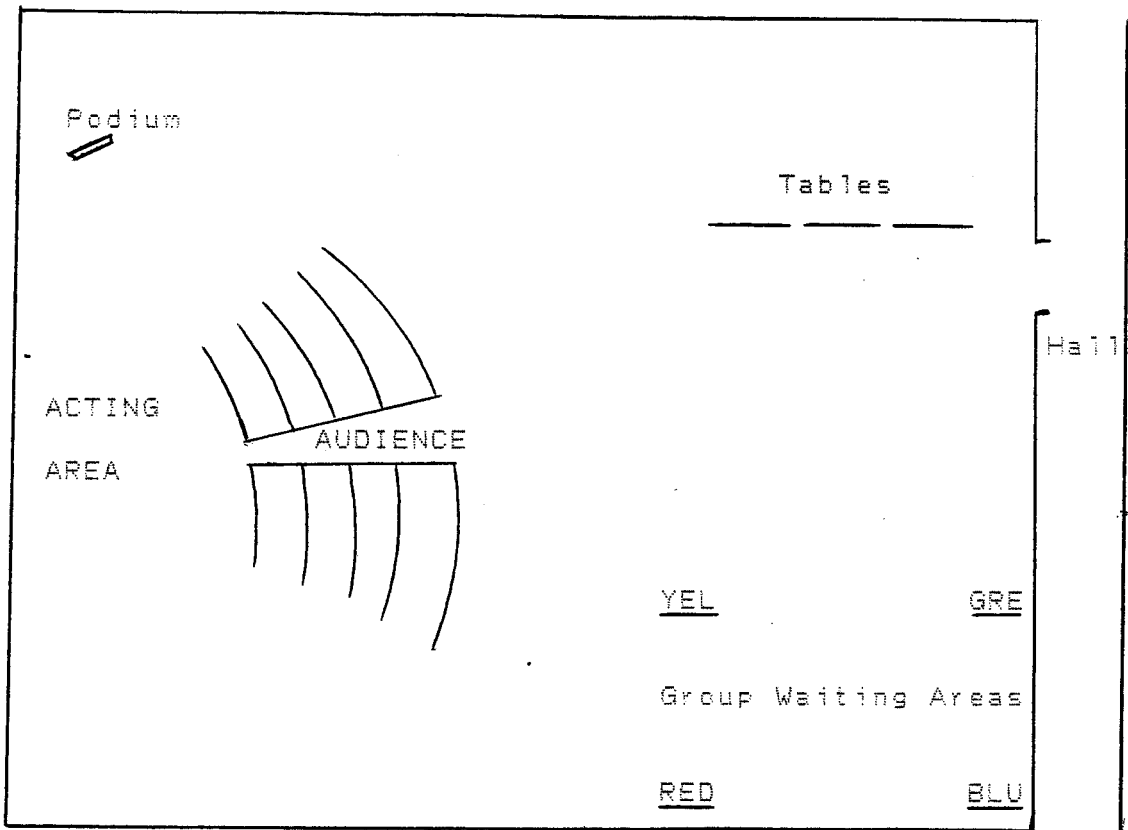


Figure 1. Blue/Gold Room lay-out for the experiment.

Classroom instructors agreed to allow students to participate in the experiment in lieu of holding class. Instructors were requested to exclude themselves from the experimental session. Prior to the experiment, the experimenters and the psychosocial dramatists met, received final instructions and the necessary posttesting materials.

The experiment began after two of the confederates went to the classrooms of the introductory business and child psychology courses to collect the student subjects. Students who participated were dismissed from the classrooms and followed the experimenters to the Blue/Gold Room. Those who did not participate were dismissed from their class session and were allowed to leave the classroom.

Student subjects lined up in the hallway outside the Blue/Gold Room and were asked to enter the room in groups of ten. When students entered the room they were guided to the number-color charts arranged on the tables inside the door. Instructions on the number-color charts informed the subject to match their number assignment to the corresponding color, and pin on the appropriate color tag. Red, yellow, blue and green colored tags the size of a name tag, were placed on the table along with pins. When the colored tag was in place on the student the confederates instructed the students to go to the area of

the room designated for their particular color group. Assignment to groups was conducted in a prompt and efficient manner. When all the students were in place, the confederates assigned to the Yellow and Blue groups gathered with the members of their group. At this point the confederates with the Red and Green groups went to the front of the room. The confederate for the Red group spoke into the microphone: "Good evening and thank you for coming tonight. We are set to begin. Will all the members of the Green Group please follow Sue," Green (Control) Group's confederate, "Stay together and move quietly and quickly."

Members of the Control Group followed the confederate to a classroom where the posttests were completed. The remaining confederates followed written instructions identical to those prepared for each of the other three experimental groups. These instructions and posttest procedures are presented in their entirety at the conclusion of this section.

With the Green Group absent from the Blue/Gold Room, the Red Group's confederate continued:

Now you may be seated as close to the front as possible. Please sit next to someone you do not know very well. (Students were seated.)

In a few minutes you will see a short skit. The subject of the skit was chosen because it pertains to an issue of concern to the general public. It has been requested that you sit next to someone you do not know very well. (Pause.) Later this evening, you will be asked to answer some questions on paper. Remember that your responses can not be traced to

you since we do not ask your names be placed on the questionnaires. You will be recording the numbers you chose last week on your paper. We appreciate your attention. Please remain as quiet as possible during this presentation.

Two chairs and a large metal frame were the only items in the performing area. The psychosocial dramatist who played the character of Roy took his seat in the performing area. The large metal frame, used to portray a window was placed directly between the two chairs. The psychosocial dramatist playing the role of Alice entered the performing area and sat in the chair opposite Roy. At this point the unit of action presentation began.

The exact dialogue used by the actors in the unit of action (See Appendix C, Unit of Action Script) varied slightly from the previously rehearsed script. All changes were documented during the unit of action presentation. The altered dialogue did not substantially change the intention of the experimenter with regard to the experimental hypothesis.

Immediately after the performance, all three confederates (Red, Yellow, and Blue) approached the performing area, and the Red Group's experimenter read the following statement from the podium:

Each of you is wearing a color-coded tag. This large group will be divided into smaller groups. Those of you with Yellow tags will follow Sandy, (Yellow Group Confederate). Those of you wearing Blue tags will follow Cassie (Blue Group Confederate). The Red Group members will remain in this room. Please make this transition now as quietly and quickly as possible. Thank you.

Next, members of the Yellow and Blue Groups followed their confederates to the classrooms reserved for the post-experimental procedures. As was mentioned, the posttesting procedure will be discussed later in this section.

The experimenter for the Red Group approached the audience members (Red Group only) and asked the students to move closer to the front of the room sitting next to someone they did not know very well. Once the Red Group was resituated, the psychosocial dramatist who played the character of Alice in the unit began processing the unit of action. The processing segment lasted approximately twenty minutes.

Each of the confederates received written instructions outlining posttesting procedures. An additional instruction sheet was included in the materials packet for the Yellow Group's Confederate. The confederate for this group followed special instructions: YELLOW GROUP ONLY: (As soon as all group members enter the room, tell them to remain standing. Now say:)

You are to form small groups of four or five people. Please form your groups with people you do not know very well and pull your chairs together in a circle. (Allow groups to form).

Please take about 15 or 20 minutes to discuss with your group members the skit you just saw. Share your thoughts and feelings regarding the characters of Roy and Alice. Also, think about how these feelings may apply to other life circumstances. You may begin.

(NOTE: They may be slow in getting started. Do not

worry. You may repeat the instructions to the groups if they wish. IMPORTANT: Do not participate in the discussions and do not appear to be listening. After the time is up, see the Instructions and pass out questionnaires).

Each of the four confederates representing their designated color groups had an identical copy of Instructions with their packet of posttests. The four groups were handled in the following manner: members of the Red Group stayed in the Blue/Gold Room after the processing segment and completed the posttests immediately afterward. Members of the Yellow Group completed the posttests in the room used for their small group discussions immediately after these discussions. Members of the Blue Group proceeded with the posttesting procedures immediately after the unit of action performance in a third classroom. Members of the Green Group (Controls), completed posttesting in another classroom as soon as all group assignments had been made (prior to the unit of action presentation). The Experimenter's Instructions are printed below in their entirety:

BLUE _____
 RED _____
 GREEN _____
 YELLOW _____
 (Posttesting room assignments were indicated in these spaces.)

(These are the instructions for completing the questionnaires. You will be passing out the single copy separately first, then the stapled copy. Read the instructions over to yourself beforehand.)

"I will now pass out a questionnaire. Do not

begin until I review this with you." (Pass out the single copy at this time. 1--Rights and Amenities) IMPORTANT: "Please put your tag number at the top of this sheet now. (Pause.) Then read over the paragraph about Mr. Eldridge; the instructions; and answer the questions below. When you are finished, please turn your papers over and place them here on the desk. Be sure your tag number is at the top of this paper. You may begin now."

When it appears that everyone is finished say: "Is anyone still working?"

When everyone is finished say: "I have one remaining set of questions. The first pages are similar to those you completed before, so I will not read the instructions to you. Please leave these sheets face down until I ask you to turn them over." (Pass out the stapled copy here--face down.)

"Did everyone receive one questionnaire? (Pause) Turn over your questionnaire and place your tag number at the top. Remember, we are not able to identify individual responses by any means. The numbers are being used to code the information we receive. All questions on these pages will be answered using your individual opinions. The last set of questions are general statements. You will have four categories from which to respond. They are Strongly agree; Agree; Disagree; and Strongly disagree. Please move through these questions quickly marking one response for each. Do not skip or omit any items. Do not look back and forth throughout this questionnaire. Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Work at a fairly high speed, without puzzling or worrying over an individual item for a long period. It is your first impressions that we want. Thank you for your time on this project. When you complete these questions place your paper on the desk and you are free to leave. Your regular class will not be meeting tonight."

Debriefing

Debriefing sessions were held four weeks later. Time was allotted by each of the professors so the two classes were debriefed individually during their regular class meeting period. Each session included a debriefing statement read to the class, then an open-ended question

and answer period regarding the experiment. The debriefing statement read as follows:

Some of you have been involved in a group of students who have given opinions on many . . . As you were informed, all the information received from this study will remain completely anonymous--no names have been recorded.

The emphasis in this study has been on looking at attitude change, especially in regard to offenders. Results of this study will be made available to you. If you are interested, please leave your name and address with Professor _____

You will be contacted when the report is completed. This master's thesis will be available at the library. Thank you again for your time and cooperation. Most sincerely, Kathleen Anderson Schmidt.

Instruments

Posttesting instructions given by experimenters to the students were handled as follows: first, the Rights and Amenities checklist (single page) were administered; next, Semantic Differential questionnaires were stapled to the Opinion Scale and handed out after the completion and collection of the first instrument.

Two changes were made in the Rights and Amenities Questionnaire used by Reed in his 1979 study: a demographic paragraph was added to describe Mr. Roy Eldridge, and the item "get married" was omitted from the list of rights. The Rights and Amenities checklist included ten items assessed by a 2-point scale (Yes/No), (See Appendix D, Rights and Amenities Posttest).

The second packet distributed included in part, the Semantic differential questionnaire with instructions

that were identical to the pretest. Eight Concepts were presented: each contained six semantic differential scales and were assessed by a 4-point Likert scale. The six semantic differential scales for each concept included two evaluation scales; two potency scales; and two activity scales. The terms used for the evaluation, potency and activity scales remained consistent throughout the instrument. However, the order of presentation of the six scales varied, and some terms were reversed (See Appendix E, Semantic Differential Pre- and Posttest).

The third instrument (attached to the semantic differential), in the second packet of posttests was a 25-item opinion scale developed for this study. These items dealt with general beliefs about crime and criminals: rehabilitation, the prison system and were interspersed with items regarding the personality of the participants. A 4-point Likert scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) was used (See Appendix E, Opinion Scale).

Results

The original sample (N=96) contained male and female subjects. Caucasian female students were selected for analysis and all other results were discarded leaving a sample size of 66. Six cases were randomly removed to

equate cell sizes for exact determination of mean differences leaving a final sample size of 60, 15 subjects per cell.

Students ranged in age from 18 to 42; with a range of 23 - 27 years of age. Eighty five percent of the subjects were younger than 28. Student status was full-time 46.7%; part-time 53.3% (See Table 3). Grade point averages ranged from 1.5 to 4.0 on a four-point scale with a mean of 2.7. Major course of study was evaluated then divided into four categories: social science, 10%; business, 22%; nursing, 45%; other, 23% (See Table 4).

One-way analyses of variance were conducted to determine if there were differences between the four experimental groups on the age variable, number of college credit hours, and grade point average. No significant differences were found. Table 2 displays the group means.

Table 3 displays the results of a chi-square analysis conducted to determine if there was a difference in student status (part - time vs. full - time) and assignment to experimental conditions. Results of this test were not significant. A chi-square test conducted over student major by experimental condition yielded no significant difference (Table 4).

Table 2

Means Comparing the Ages, Number of College Course Hours Completed and Grade Point Averages of Female College Students

Means Group	\bar{X} 1 (RED)	\bar{X} 2 (YEL)	\bar{X} 3 (BLU)	\bar{X} 4 (GRE)	F
Age	3.07	3.73	3.07	3.60	0.55
Course Hours	3.20	2.73	2.40	3.13	0.57
GPA	28.53	28.67	25.54	27.77	0.63

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSES

Table 3

Student Status by Condition
Frequency of Occurrence

Condition	1 (RED)	2 (YEL)	3 (BLU)	4 (GRE)
STATUS				
Full-time	8	5	6	9
Part-time	<u>7</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>6</u>
TOTALS	15	15	15	15

NS Raw chi-square = 2.67857; df = 3

Table 4

Major by Condition
Frequency of Occurrence

Condition	1 (RED)	2 (YEL)	3 (BLU)	4 (GRE)
MAJOR				
Social science	3	2	0	1
Business	3	2	0	5
Nursing	6	7	9	5
Other	<u>0</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>4</u>
TOTALS	15	15	15	15

NS Raw chi-square = 6.37688; df = 9

Semantic Differential (Attitude Change) Score Computation

Before analyzing the semantic differential all appropriate scales were reflected to equate positive terms with a rating of four and negative terms with a rating of one. Reflections were accomplished by subtracting the negatively coded values from five. This aligned all scales by assigning a new value of four to the previously coded value--one, for the positive term "Nice." This procedure was followed for all negatively worded semantic differential items listed below.

NICE__ __ __ __ AWFUL
 STRONG __ __ __ __ WEAK
 ACTIVE__ __ __ __ PASSIVE
 CLEAN __ __ __ __ DIRTY
 HOT __ __ __ __ COLD
 LARGE __ __ __ __ SMALL

because . . . of the eight concepts had been assigned to two scales for evaluation, two for potency, and two for activity, scores measuring the same construct, were summed to yield one score for each construct (E,P,A).

E, P, A posttest scores were subtracted from pretest scores to compute the change scores. The difference or change score was computed for each of the

three scales. (See Appendix G, Coding Variables.) A one-way analysis of variance was used to determine differences between the groups.

ONE-WAY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE

Table 5

Semantic Differential Change Scores from Pre- to Posttest

Means Group	\bar{X} 1	\bar{X} 2	\bar{X} 3	\bar{X} 4	F
Item / Scale					
1 / Potency	.40	.20	.80	.60	.20
Activity	.40	.20	.80	.27	.47
Evaluation	.73	.53	.87	.27	.81
2 / Potency	.27	.67	.67	.67	.13
Activity	1.13	.87	.20	.20	.45
Evaluation	.93	.33	.60	.13	.71
3 / Potency	.20	.27	.40	.27	.44
Activity	.60	.73	.20	.07	.42
Evaluation	.20	.00	.20	.40	.71
4 / Potency	.33	.33	.80	.60	.26
Activity	.13	.20	.47	.13	.95
Evaluation	.20	.27	.20	.67	.78
5 / Potency	.07	.20	.40	.07	.73
Activity	.07	.47	.20	.07	.47
Evaluation	.00	.47	.06	.27	.40
6 / Potency	.00	.40	1.00	.13	.31
Activity	.40	.07	.40	.40	.71
Evaluation	.47	.20	.47	.07	.74
7 / Potency	.07	.13	.13	.20	.68
Activity	.20	.27	.27	.07	.69
Evaluation	.07	.07	.07	.07	.41
8 / Potency	.07	.20	.20	.13	.51
Activity	.40	.20	.20	.13	1.64
Evaluation	.20	.00	.13	.13	1.73

Table 6
Rights and Amenities Checklist

Means Group	\bar{X} 1	\bar{X} 2	\bar{X} 3	\bar{X} 4	\underline{F}
Item Number					
1	1.53	1.67	1.60	1.87	0.25
2	1.33	1.13	1.27	1.20	0.62
3	1.93	1.93	1.73	1.73	0.24
4	1.80	1.67	1.67	1.60	0.71
5	1.40	1.40	1.00	1.53	0.01*
6	1.13	1.13	1.27	1.07	0.50
7	1.36	1.33	1.40	1.33	0.98
8	1.47	1.27	1.47	1.40	0.66
9	1.53	1.40	1.40	1.40	0.86
10	1.67	1.60	1.60	1.47	0.74

* $\underline{F} < .05$

Table 7
Opinion Scale

Means Group	\bar{X} 1 (RED)	\bar{X} 2 (YEL)	\bar{X} 3 (BLU)	\bar{X} 4 (GRE)	F
Item Number					
1	2.00	1.67	1.73	1.87	0.73
2	2.60	2.93	3.00	2.80	0.66
3	2.53	2.80	3.00	2.73	0.40
4	1.67	1.87	2.00	2.13	0.30
5	3.20	3.13	3.20	2.93	0.75
6	2.07	1.93	2.40	2.00	0.31
7	2.67	2.47	1.93	2.33	0.15
8	1.33	1.53	1.53	1.53	0.74
9	2.80	2.87	2.67	3.00	0.70
10	2.67	2.80	2.80	2.80	0.95
11	2.73	2.60	2.60	2.73	0.87
12	2.87	2.87	2.73	3.20	0.36
13	3.00	2.87	2.80	2.60	0.51
14	2.53	2.33	2.60	2.60	0.81
15	2.13	2.53	2.33	2.00	0.30
16	2.93	3.20	2.87	3.07	0.85
17	2.13	1.80	2.40	2.40	0.22
18	2.13	2.27	2.20	2.73	0.50
19	2.27	2.33	1.73	2.73	0.09
20	1.53	1.60	1.73	2.47	0.13
21	2.13	1.93	2.00	2.47	0.61
22	1.60	2.33	1.60	1.80	0.49
23	2.73	2.53	2.60	3.07	0.47
24	2.53	2.60	2.40	2.60	0.97
25	2.47	2.60	2.60	2.87	0.80

NS

CHAPTER III

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

In our society, people are often treated with disdain after release from a penal institution. Perpetuating stereotypic attitudes about the offender creates barriers in the major life areas of employment and housing: this is coupled with a general lack of socialization opportunities. News media often influences these negative attitudes about the ex-offender. To restore the public's opinion of an inmate's worth and dignity upon those who have paid their societal debt by serving prison sentences, an attitude change approach known as psychosocial drama was studied.

Psychodrama and sociodrama (Moreno, 1972) provided the basis for the psychosocial drama technique [See Chapter I]. A major distinction among these methods is the extent of audience participation. In psychosocial drama, the audience is not involved in the role play or unit of action. Cathartic effects are thought to result from the second stage, processing the unit of action. Psychosocial dramatists present the unit of action with no resolution, then elicit audience participation in the

processing discussion.

In order to build or create a unit of action, one begins with a topic and then creates believable characters around that idea. In this study, the characters were an inmate and his wife. The next step was to formulate a script which ended at a point of conflict.

The unit of action prepared for the study served as the vehicle for the interaction or level of processing which followed. It was hypothesized that people who viewed in a psychosocial drama unit of action and processing would experience significantly more positive attitude change regarding the offender than those who did not process the unit of action.

"Processing" from a psychosocial-drama viewpoint is a discussion guided by the presenters. It allows the audience members to express their feelings and opinions. Since the psychosocial drama unit of action ended at a conflict, processing considered the resolution of the conflict. Processing involves five stages: experiencing, sharing, interpreting, generalizing and applying.

Prior research has focused on the extent of stereotyping and the people who are likely to stereotype (Goldstein & Blackman, unpublished; Read, 1979; Simmons, 1969). In the present study, "offenders" were defined as a deviant group, thus they are thought to be negatively stereotyped.

In addition to a description of psychosocial drama and a review of the literature on stereotyping and attitude change the effect of active versus passive group participation needed to be considered in attitude conformity. Individual personality traits of the subjects added to the complexity of assessing attitude change. Role playing as a simulation of true-to-life experience was also discussed.

Findings

The research method consisted of three experimental groups who viewed a psychosocial drama unit of action. Each group was then isolated for the following experimental manipulation:

- (1) one group was led in processing by psychosocial dramatists;
- (2) the second group participated in small group discussions;
- (3) the third group experienced no discussion following the presentation;
- (4) a fourth or control group which experienced pre and posttesting only was included.

The dependent variables consisted of three measures.

- (1) Semantic Differential; eight concepts, 4-point scale, pre and post measure.
- (2) Rights and Amenities checklist including a demographic paragraph about Mr. Roy Eldridge; ten items, 2-point scale, post measure.

(3) Opinion statements; twenty-five items, 4-point scale, post measure.

Pretesting also collected demographic information on the respondents (See Appendix H).

The dependent variables were analyzed by a one-way analysis of variance. A chi-square test was also used to analyze demographic variables.

Semantic Differential

Attitude change scores for the experimental groups, analyzed by a one-way analysis of variance yielded no significant differences with significance set at the .05 level of probability.

Rights and Amenities Checklist

One variable on the rights and amenities checklist yielded significant differences: "Receive unlimited mail." Using pooled variance estimates, the a posteriori contrast procedures yielded significant differences between groups 1:(Red) and 3:(Blue), with a T-probability value of .009, ($N = 15$; $df = 14$). One-way analysis of variance results for this variable also reached a significant level with significance set at .05. Group means follow:

(a) Red = 1.40; (b) Yellow = 1.40; (c) Blue = 1.00; (d) Green (control) = 1.53. Each member of the Blue Group responded positively in granting this amenity to Mr. Eldridge (N = 60; df = 3 / 59).

Opinion scale

No significant differences were found on the opinion scale.

The level of processing following a psychosocial drama unit of action yielded no statistical differences in attitude change among the experimental groups and the hypothesis that processing would result in attitude change was not supported. The principal goal of the experiment was not achieved: subjects in the experimental group with processing did not change their attitudes about the offender in a positive direction relative to the control group. A discussion of the study's limitations follow.

Limitations

The initial sample size, ninety-six students was reduced to sixty Caucasian females. The original sample included twenty males and six Negroes. Random group assignment procedures had not considered the male /

female or Caucasian / Negro ratios. The sex of subject variable could have been analyzed if sex of respondent was isolated prior to the random group assignment procedures. Because sex of subject was not dealt with in this manner, males were unevenly distributed among the four groups and were therefore excluded from the study. There were too few Negroes participating in the study to reasonably . . . this variable and all Negroes were excluded from the study. The sample included sixty-six Caucasian females. For exact determination of mean differences, the sample was further reduced to sixty (n = 60), fifteen per cell, by randomly discarding six cases from inflated cells.

Two of the experimental groups in this study participated in open group discussions following the unit of action presentation. The extent of the subjects' participation in the discussions was not assessed and may have had an impact on the results. Inclusion of the following questions would have indicated subjects' verbal group participation: Red Group: "Did you actively participate in the discussion?" Yellow Group: "Would you consider yourself the most active verbal participant in your small group discussion?" Red & Yellow Groups: "What percentage of the time would you say you agreed with others' comments?" Answers to these questions may have added another dimension to the analysis if one assumes

that "saying is believing."

Concepts regarding the Criminal Justice System on the semantic differential posttest may have led to some ambiguity. Prison Life, The Prison System and Capital Punishment may have been perceived as generic concepts unrelated to the presentation, whereas the item The Convict, applied more specifically to the offender presented in the unit of action. The semantic differential adjective pairs may have added to the confusion. Rather than hot/cold; active/passive; the adjectives valuable/worthless; fair/unfair may be substituted and could have applied equally to the semantic differential concepts unrelated to criminal justice.

Discussion

Student subjects participated in the experiment on a voluntary basis and participation was neither encouraged nor discouraged by the experimenter. On the night of the pretesting, students who wished to participate choose tag numbers and completed pretests. Those who did not wish to be included were dismissed from their regular class meeting during the procedures, as were the subjects who participated in the experiment.

No deceptive techniques were used regarding the

purpose of the experiment. Students were told, "The study will look at some new ways to assess areas of concern to the general public. You will be asked on questionnaires to answer some questions regarding your feelings on certain topics" (See Chapter 2, Procedure).

A typical psychosocial drama presentation often includes a "warm-up" unit of action, one which is light or humorous. A warm-up unit was purposely excluded to control for effects of attitude change based solely on the unit of action presentation used in this study. This departure from standard psychosocial drama procedures may have affected results.

To the extent possible, involvement by the unit of action's author was carefully controlled to prevent experimenter bias. After the unit of action script was prepared, the experimenter was not involved in any of the experimental procedures, the experimenter's team or the unit of action rehearsals. The team of confederates handled pre and posttests. Identical written instructions for pre posttest procedures were read and followed by each group's confederate. Rationale and assumptions regarding this study were not discussed by the experimenter with either the actors nor with the team of confederates.

Confidentiality and anonymity of subjects' identities were carefully controlled. No identifying

informa or class rosters were collected. Students randomly drew tag numbers then later recorded these on pre / posttests. Prior to the experiment, number to color-coded group placements were made by random assignment procedures. Participants were not asked to divulge their tag number at any time during or after the experiment. Because tag numbers were not announced nor were they recorded by any of the confederates, students were assured anonymity throughout the study.

Because a unit of action is a live presentation, it is evident that the rehearsed scene may differ somewhat from one performance to the next (i.e., voice intonation, nonverbal cues, etc.). To prevent discrepancies in multiple presentations the three experimental groups collectively viewed the unit of action. This precaution was taken to control for continuity of the presentation, but also prevented repetition effects because all three groups were exposed simultaneously.

An experimental-control group (Green Group) was included in the study following Teahan's (1975) sound methodology. The Green Group members (Controls) participated only in pre / posttesting. Members of the Blue Group, those who saw the unit of action then immediately completed posttests, were included to analyze the effects of group conformity. Group conformity,

whether compliance or private acceptance, has been shown to occur more readily when responses are made public and the groups led in processing (Red Group) and in small group discussions (Yellow Group) may have experienced conformity effects rather than attitude change through processing. The addition of the Blue Group allowed for assessment of the conformity variable.

Immediately after the intervention, posttesting was held in separate rooms. Analysis of the semantic differential results yielded pre / post and attitude change scores. An independent posttest measure, the rights and amenities checklist was included to assess attitudes about the particular offender shown in the unit of action.

In the study, an attempt was made to change negative beliefs about the offender. Stereotype has been defined as "selective simplification of which information is lost, and misinformation may be added" (Simmons, 1965, p. 225). Therefore, in the experimental procedures, the offender is presented as an individual, not as a labelled group member. The inmate in this study committed a serious offense and was incarcerated as society's punishment for the wrongdoing. Imprisonment removed Roy Eldridge from his family depleting his ability to provide for their needs. Society had determined the punishment. But, what concern is shown for

Mr. Eldridge when he re-gains his freedom and has paid his debt to society? Will he become labelled an ex-offender, a deviant? Is the stigma still attached?

One should not misinterpret this schema, Mr. Eldridge committed an offense and earned the punishment that fit the crime. The dilemma here is in the seemingly lasting effects of the stigma resulting from incarceration. An assumption made in the study was that Mr. Eldridge would be perceived with the master status of criminal even after his release from prison. This idea presents a need for positive attitude change in order to return Mr. Eldridge to his former "normal" status following incarceration.

Will the stigma be removed when Eldridge returns to society as an ex-offender? Garfinkel (1968) referred to a status degradation ceremony which exists as a shame process in all societies. If Mr. Eldridge is released on parole, he will report to a parole officer, seek employment without the benefit of certain amenities due to his criminal record and lack a work history for the years spent in prison. Thus, the stigma continues, status degradation is not eliminated and the deviant label appears to remain intact.

In conclusion, the study did not effect positive attitude changes toward the offender. Instead, students left the offender with a reentry problem that will be

difficult to overcome. When Reed (1979) found similar results, he suggested expungement of ex-offenders' records, their (sic, voluntary) movement to a new locality, and a media and educational campaign accentuating the positive aspects of reentry. The suitability of the role of psychosocial drama in such a campaign has not been tested.

Although the results of the present study did not support the hypothesis of significant attitude change, sensitivity effects regarding the concept, The Convict, were not included in the analysis. The results of Teahan's (1975) study on attitude change among white and black police officers showed significant increases in sensitivity to the problems in all experimental groups. However, hypotheses of significant attitude change were not conclusively supported. Results of the psychodrama study by Greenberg (1968) yielded positive attitude changes only on one (main) concept, the Draft. This attitude change toward the draft occurred immediately after the presentation of a tension-producing psychodrama unrelated to the concepts assessed.

The make-up of the audience was a major distinction between the research by Greenberg (1968), Teahan (1975) and the present study. Greenberg (1968) studied the issues of the draft, military life, etc., using college students as subjects. The study took place

during the Vietnam Era, when college students had a vested interest and strong emotional attitudes toward the concepts assessed. Results of the study using psychodrama performances changed attitudes toward the Draft in a positive direction. Teahan's (1975) research resulted in differing degrees of positive attitude change and sensitization effects with black and white police academy students as subjects. The subjects in his research role played and discussed situations particularly relevant to their course of study and life work. The dramas placed prospective police officers in crisis situations they could realistically be confronted with (i.e., conflicts presented crisis situations that could occur with alleged offenders of the opposite race and internal departmental problems between white and black police officers).

The experiments by Greenberg (1968) and Teahan (1975) yield some significant attitude changes following the psycho- or sociodramatic manipulations. The study on psychosocial drama presented in the present study did not yield similar positive results.

When comparing the results of the present research to the works of Greenberg (1968) and Teahan (1975), one could question the level of interest and involvement of audience members. Are Caucasian female college students affected by, or interested in, the plight of an offender? The subjects in the present study

had never been convicted of a crime; their prior contact, if any, with the criminal justice system was not known. If sensitization or positive attitude change occurs more readily due to an interest or investment in the subject matter discussed, it is interesting to speculate the results of the present experiment with subjects such as criminal justice students, police academy students / officers or correctional system personnel.

Future Implications

The psychosocial drama unit of action in the present experiment was created as the sole vehicle for assaying attitude change. The hypothesis in this study was not supported. The sensitivity effects of the psychosocial drama method may warrant further investigation. Future studies should consider the subject's personal involvement in the unit of action. Either subjects should be selected on the basis of inherent interest, or the unit of action should elicit ego involvement from the subjects. Such a study may be a better test of the hypothesis that psychosocial drama can be used for attitude change /sensitivity training.

APPENDIX A

Semantic Differential Instructions

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL INSTRUCTIONS

Instructions:

The purpose of this study is to measure the meanings of certain things to various people by having them judge them against a series of descriptive scales. In taking this test, please make your judgements on the basis of what these things mean to you. On each page you will find different concepts to be judged and beneath them a set of scales. You are to rate the concept on each of these scales in order. Here is how to use these scales:

If you feel that the concept...is very closely related to the end of the scale, you should place your check-mark as follows:

Fair X ___ ___ ___ Unfair OR Fair ___ ___ ___ X Unfair

If you feel that the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check-mark as follows:

Strong ___ X ___ ___ Weak OR Strong ___ ___ ___ X Weak

The direction toward which you check, of course, depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seem most characteristic of the thing you're judging. **IMPORTANT:** (1) Place your check-marks in the middle of the area, not on the boundaries.

THIS ___ X ___ ___ NOT THIS ___ ___ ___ X ___ ___

(2) Be sure you check every scale for every concept--Do not omit any.

(3) Never put more than one check-mark on a single scale.

Sometimes you may feel as though you've had the same item before on the test. This will not be the case, so do not look back and forth throughout the items. Do not try to remember how you checked similar items earlier in the test. Make each item a separate and independent judgement. Work at fairly high speed throughout this test. Do NOT worry or puzzle over it. It is your first impressions, the "feelings" about the items that we want. On the other hand, please do not be careless because we want TRUE impressions.

Note. See Greenberg, 1968, 277-278.

APPENDIX B

Number - Color Chart: Sample Page

NUMBER - COLOR CHART

Color Codes appear next to tag numbers. Please look up your tag number and pin on the correct color tag.

NUMBERS 1--35

NUMBER--COLOR	NUMBER--COLOR	NUMBER--COLOR
1 RED	13 GRE	25 RED
2 RED	14 RED	26 GRE
3 GRE	15 BLU	27 BLU
4 RED	16 GRE	28 BLU
5 GRE	17 BLU	29 RED
6 BLU	18 YEL	30 YEL
7 RED	19 YEL	31 RED
8 YEL	20 YEL	32 YEL
9 YEL	21 RED	33 YEL
10 RED	22 GRE	34 GRE
11 BLU	23 YEL	35 GRE
12 BLU	24 GRE	

Note. The actual number packet was color coded. The three additional pages of the packet contained numbers 36--71; 72--106; 107--140.

APPENDIX C

Unit of Action Script

UNIT OF ACTION SCRIPT

Alice (A) and Roy (R) Eldridge are the character names. The set included two straight-backed chairs with a prop between the chairs representing a divider screen. Roy was seated center stage, Alice entered the performance area and was seated slightly left of center stage.

A: Hi, Roy. Brought you some things: they have them at the desk.
 (Softly) R: How ya doina?
 A: Me? I'm fine, but I worry 'bout you
 (He shrugs and forces a smile)
 R: Don't pay no 'tention to me...How's my ole man?
 (Looking down) A: Well, Dad ain't doin' so good. He's a fighter, he'll come back (sneezes) but you know that.
 (Raising his voice now in anger)
 R: Sure, and I'll be in this hole and you'll be running around with Janet (coughs a little) and those friends of hers.
 (Raising back) A: Don't start on me... (fades to) You know what little Roy did? (Pauses) Yeah, it was last week. He sat on the pot for me--first time. I was so proud of him, honey.
 R: (Chuckles and nods half-heartedly.)
 A: And... Uh, Betsy drew a picture for you.
 R: (Coughs again, more this time.)
 A: Have you bin to a doc about that cough, Roy?
 R: No need. My pal Stretch coughs and I cough and Stretch coughs some more--nothing a doctor can fix up.
 A: Well, I'm scared for you.
 R: Alice, mind yer own business, I can take care of myself.
 A: I know (nods)... Well, how's the food?
 R: The food's awful--tastes the same no matter what they fix.
 A: Oh, (fades off)...so how's your job?

R: Ah, working ain't too bad...gives me something to do. (Yells to an invisible guard) Yeah, Yeah I got fifteen minutes, don't I?

A: Roy, (pauses, softly and timidly asks) Why'd you do it?

(Obviously frustrated Roy hits his leg with a fist then turns away in his seat now facing the audience)

A: (Pause) I'm sorry, Roy.

R: (Turns slightly towards her) Yeah.

(Both characters lift outspread arms toward each other as if to touch, but are separated by the screen and their hands fall slowly to their sides. Alice freezes in position. Roy stands to face the audience, pacing as he talks)

R: [In sorrowful, blaming himself] Why did I do it, anyway? She can't take care of herself let alone those kids, and my old man's gonna die on me 'fore I ever see him again. A lousy gun and a lousy bank. Sure it would have been great to take it easy with some big bucks, but I went and ruined it for everybody. (Full face to audience, throws out his arms) NOW LOOK AT ME!!!

(The action freezes in this final position)

APPENDIX D

Rights & Amenities Questionnaire

Tag number: _____ (Chosen for this study.)

Mr. Roy Eldridge is a 34-year old man who was convicted of armed robbery and sentenced to prison. At the present time, Roy has served about 10 months of his prison sentence. He has a wife, Alice, who visits him dutifully, and two children, Betsy--age five and Roy Jr.--age two.

Instructions: Please read the statement above, then answer the following questions about Mr. Roy Eldridge. Below is a list of rights; you are to decide which of these rights should be given to Mr. Eldridge, if any. This is your decision. Please indicate one choice, YES or NO, for each of the possible rights listed by marking an X in the appropriate box.

Mr. Eldridge should, in my opinion, while in prison

	YES	NO
----- vote in elections		
----- save and invest money	---	---
----- be able to sue for damages	---	---
----- have privacy of room	---	---
----- receive unlimited mail	---	---
----- have conjugal visits, that is , private visitation with his wife (for at least 1 hour, once a month)	---	---
----- inherit property	---	---
----- occasionally %~a: clothing of his choice	---	---
----- receive dividends from stocks he owns	---	---
----- have no rights outside prison while in	---	---
-----	---	---

APPENDIX E

Semantic Differential Questionnaire

1. CAPITAL PUNISHMENT

Weak	_	_	_	Strong
Passive	_	_	_	Active
Dirty	_	_	_	Clean
Awful	_	_	_	Nice
Cold	_	_	_	Hot
Small	_	_	_	Large

2. THE CONVICT

Awful	_	_	_	wice
Hot	_	_	_	Cold
Large	_	_	_	Small
Clean	_	_	_	Dirty
Active	_	_	_	Passive
Weak	_	_	_	Strung

3. MY FATHER

Passive	_	_	_	Active
Large	_	_	_	Small
Strong	_	_	_	Weak
Awful	_	_	_	Nice
Clean	_	_	_	Dirty
Cold	_	_	_	Hot

4. PRISON LIFE

Passive	_	_	_	Active
Nice	_	_	_	Awful
Hot	_	_	_	Cold
Weak	_	_	_	Strong
Dirty	_	_	_	Clean
Small	_	_	_	Large

5. MY MOTHER

Strong	_	_	_	Weak
Active	_	_	_	Passive
Awful	_	_	_	Nice
Small	_	_	_	is"ge
Hot	_	_	_	Cold
Dirty	_	_	_	Clean

6. THE PRISON SYSTEM

Hot	_	_	_	Cold
Nice	_	_	_	Awful
Large	_	_	_	Small
Clean	_	_	_	Dirty
Passive	_	_	_	Active
Weak	_	_	_	Strong

7. ME, AS I ACTUALLY AM

Clean	_	_	_	dirty
Strong	_	_	_	Weak
Small	_	_	_	Large
Active	_	_	_	pas~.ye
Cold	_	_	_	Hot
Awful	_	_	_	Nice

8. ME, AS I WOULD LIKE TO BE

Passive	_	_	_	Active
Weak	_	_	_	Strong
Hot	_	_	_	Cold
Nice	_	_	_	Awful
Small	_	_	_	Large
Dirty	_	_	_	Clean

APPENDIX F

Opinion Scale

For this section, please read each statement, then mark an "X" under the response which best describes your opinion. (SA-- Strongly Agree; A-- Agree; D-- Disagree; SD-- Strongly Disagree).

SA | A | D | SD

- -- -- 1. I fear crime more today than I did two years ago.
- -- -- 2. I have been a victim of a crime.
- -- -- 3. A prisoner should have his length of sentence reduced for good behavior in prison.
- -- -- 4. I tend to speak out when I believe something is unfair.
- -- -- 5. Criminals deserve to be treated like animals.
- -- -- 6. Innocent people are often sent to prison.
- -- -- 7. Lawyers who defend people guilty of committing crimes are just doing their jobs.
- -- -- 8. The number of criminal acts is rapidly rising in our society.
- -- -- 9. I tend to shy away from meeting new people at social events.
- -- -- 10. A prisoner's sentence should be reduced as a result of good behavior in prison.
- -- -- 11. I've learned that I can't trust people I don't know.
- -- -- 12. Prisoners should be paid minimum wage for the work they do while in prison.
- -- -- 13. A guilty criminal never suffers enough.
- -- -- 14. I consider myself an outspoken individual.
- -- -- 15. Labor unions to protect prisoners' rights are not necessary.
- -- -- 16. Criminals should just sit in jail and serve their time.
- -- -- 17. Rehabilitation programs in prison are worth paying for.
- -- -- 18. Young offenders grow up and become adult offenders.
- -- -- 19. Offenders commit many crimes before they are caught.
- -- -- 20. "Crime doesn't pay."
- -- -- 21. It is difficult for me to hide my feelings when I am angry.
- -- -- 22. Prisons are necessary in our society.
- -- -- 23. People in prison want to improve their lives when they get released.
- -- -- 24. Capital punishment will help to solve the crime problem.
- -- -- 25. Other people in Ashtabula consider me a prominent community member.

APPENDIX G

Coding the Semantic Differential Variables

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL VARIABLES

	Mnemonic			Meaning
EXAMPLES:	P1P	Pre	1*	Potency
	R1P	Post	1	Potency
	C1P	Change	1	Potency
	P1A	Pre	1	Activity
	R1A	Post	1	Activity
	C1A	Change	1	Activity
	P1E	Pre	1	Evaluation
	R1E	Post	1	Evaluation
	C1E	Change	1	Evaluation

* Denotes the concept number, e.g. Capital Punishment = 1

Note. EQUATION: PRE minus POST equals CHANGE

Examples: $P1P - R1P = C1P$

$P1A - R1A = C1A$

$P1E - R1E = C1E$

APPENDIX H

Demographic Data: Pretest

1. Present student status: ___ full-time student
 ___ part-time student
2. Major orientation:
 ___ social sciences ___ office technology
 ___ business technology ___ nursing
 ___ engineering technology ___ education
 ___ other _____
3. Race: ___ white
 ___ black
 ___ other
4. Sex: ___ male
 ___ female
5. Age: ___ under 18 ___ 33-37
 ___ 18-22 ___ 38-42
 ___ 23-27 ___ over 42
 ___ 28-32
6. Grade point average while
 attending Kent State University: _____
7. Semester hours of college coursework completed:
 ___ less than 10 ___ 31-40
 ___ 11-20 ___ 41-65
 ___ 21-30 ___ more than 65
8. Have you ever been convicted of a crime other than a
 traffic offense? ___ yes ___ no
9. Tag number: ___ (CHOSEN for this study).

Thank you
 for taking your time in completing these questions.

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