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TECHNICAL REPORT
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THIRD EUROPEAN CONFERENCE ON
EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY
ROYAUMONT, FRANCE 1966

BY

JOHN E. RASMUSSEN

20 June 1966

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THIRD EUROPEAN CONFERENCE ON EXPERIMENTAL
SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY, ROYAUMONT, FRANCE 1966

The Third European Conference on Experimental Social Psychology was held during the period 27 March - 1 April 1966 at Royaumont Abbey. The Conference was unique for two reasons: first, because of the setting in which it was held; and, secondly, because it marked the first exclusively European effort to organize, finance, and conduct a major international meeting in experimental social psychology.

The financing of the meeting was a joint effort of La Fondation de Royaumont pour le Progres des Sciences de l'Homme and L'Ecole Pratique des Hautes Etudes (Sixieme Section). The Foundation provided both housing accommodation and meeting facilities at the Cercle Culturel de Royaumont, which is physically located in the buildings of the old Royaumont Abbey, approximately 20 miles north of Paris. For one who is not in the habit of living in a medieval abbey or a monastery in the French countryside, totally isolated from any village or town, a week at Royaumont is indeed an experience. Even though not entirely germane to the topic at hand, the Abbey and the Royaumont Foundation are sufficiently unique to warrant a few words of description.

Construction of the Royaumont Abbey was begun by King Louis VIII in the year 1229. After a long history as a religious institution, it was partially demolished at the end of the 18th century. In 1905 the remaining buildings and grounds became the property of M. Jules Guin, and the Abbey has remained in the family since. During World War I it served as a field hospital, and in 1927 was officially classified as a French historic monument. Monsieur and Madame Henri Guin, the present owners, established the Royaumont Foundation in 1937. One of the purposes of this Foundation was to utilize the Abbey as a center for the stimulation of research and thought in human or behavioral sciences. This goal was realized in 1937 with the establishment of the Cercle Culturel de Royaumont. Generally speaking, the Royaumont Foundation is a privately supported philanthropic venture, closely patterned after American Foundations such as Ford, Carnegie, etc. It was understood that this is the only Foundation in France so organized and operated.

The Foundation has a threefold purpose. First, it actively supports research, through grants, in the area of human or behavioral sciences. Secondly, through the

Société Culturel de Royaumont, it provides a center and in some cases financial support for conferences. Finally, it provides a place where investigators may withdraw to think and write. In connection with this latter function a substantial library is maintained at the Abbey.

One section of the Abbey is a museum and another large wing serves as a center where scholars may work individually or meet in conferences such as reported here. There are 30-40 somewhat sparse although comfortable bedrooms, several large meeting rooms, and two small dining rooms which serve excellent food. The secluded setting of the Royaumont Abbey, and the accommodations, are ideal for conferences.

BACKGROUND FOR CONFERENCE

The present Conference is the third in a series which was initiated by Professor John T. Lanzetta while he was the Liaison Scientist for Psychology in ONR London, in conjunction with Luigi Petrullo, head of the ONR Group Psychology Branch in Washington. During his stay in Europe, Lanzetta became concerned with the lack of development both in theoretical and experimental social psychology, lack of European training facilities, and scarcity or non-existence of channels for communication among the relatively few Europeans actively working in the field. In order to overcome this professional isolation and stimulate the growth of theoretical - experimental social psychology on the European scene, a meeting was held in December 1963 at Sorrento, Italy. This meeting was sponsored jointly by the Social Science Research Council and the Office of Naval Research. A group of 30 psychologists were invited to the five-day meeting; seven Americans and 21 Europeans. The following year a second meeting was held at Frascati, Italy.

If the Sorrento and Frascati Conferences are considered the first major milestones in the development of European experimental social psychology, the Royaumont Conference well might be considered the second. The first two Conferences were supported by funds from the US and there was a heavy participation of well-known American social psychologists, a number of whom also played a major role in planning and organization. The Royaumont Conference was totally planned and funded by Europeans, and only two Americans attended.

ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE

Attendance at the Conference was by invitation only, and participation was limited to 28 European psychologists representing seven different countries and two "invited guests" from the US. Each morning was devoted to one or two formal presentations, which ranged from one to one-and-a-half hours' duration. Following a critique of the presentation by a pre-assigned discussant, approximately one hour was devoted to open discussion. The afternoon sessions were more informal and the participants formed three or four small discussion groups. This permitted detailed discussions of current research activity as well as the inevitable arguments on theory, research strategy, etc. A business meeting of the organization was held Wednesday afternoon. As might be expected in an isolated setting such as Royaumont, the discussions continued through meals and into the evening. In fact, on several occasions the more lively debates extended well into the small hours of the morning.

A summary of the papers presented and a list of the participants at the Conference is contained at the end of this report.

GENERAL COMMENTS AND IMPRESSIONS

This was a well-organized, effectively-managed and clearly successful Conference. With one or two isolated exceptions, all papers and formal discussions were well prepared and meaningful. One had a feeling that the informal small group discussions were sometimes less effective. Where this was so, the difficulty might be attributed to an individual presenting his work in such infinite detail as to preclude a possibly more significant but general discussion on the theoretical implications of the work, etc.

During the course of the Conference it became quite apparent that the goals originally outlined for a European Experimental Social Psychology Association were being fulfilled. Again, a group of 30 social psychologists convened. This time, however, they were all acquainted and obviously had been carrying on lively correspondence during the year. Moreover, a rather surprising number had actively been engaged in collaborative research ventures. The strong American influence on present-day experimental social psychology was very much in evidence, as might be expected. On the other hand, while there was a great deal of discussion

of American work, this clearly was not the focus of either the formal or informal portions of the meeting. In fact, one sensed an exciting and stimulating trend toward maturation of experimental social psychology on the European scene.

A great deal remains to be done before European experimental social psychology has matured to the point of making a major impact in the field as a whole. Nevertheless, rather amazing progress has been made in the last three years. There is still a gross shortage of laboratory and training facilities, and research funds remain a problem. However, the obstacle of communication and interaction between Europeans working in the field appears to have been resolved, and this is certainly a positive step in meeting the remaining problems.

Generally speaking, one sensed a strongly-felt need on the part of many participants to become less dependent upon their American colleagues for research support, training facilities, and theoretical ideas. This attitude was conveyed in many ways, both explicit and implicit, during the Conference. Rarely was there any tinge of hostility toward or depreciation of American leadership (or domination) in the field. Rather, the message conveyed was one of desiring to develop some sort of mature professional identity and sufficient resources to establish a significant European position in the world of experimental and theoretical social psychology.

The business meeting, held halfway through the Conference, was of interest because a number of problems facing the Association clearly were brought into focus. Primary of these problems was that of extending membership, both in Western and Eastern Europe, and at the same time maintaining the level of intensive group interaction and participation which has characterized the three conferences held to date.

Obviously, prior to the Conference the Executive Committee had devoted a great deal of thought to this problem and it was thoroughly aired during the business meeting. The solution adopted, while not entirely satisfactory, represents somewhat of a compromise among alternatives. A maximum of ten new members will be brought into the Association between each major meeting (which are planned at 18-month intervals), and they will be invited to the first conference held after they become members. Attendance at the conference will continue to be restricted

to 30 persons so as to maintain the degree of interaction which now has been achieved. There are approximately 40 members at present, and it is likely that there will be roughly 90 in another 7½ years; however, by that time only a third of the membership will be able to attend the annual meeting. Because of time limitations, this problem was left with a feeling that the course of action taken with regard to membership provides at least an interim solution.

A threefold criteria for membership was adopted which makes provision for accepting persons from countries that are undeveloped in social psychology as well as from those which are relatively sophisticated. Membership is by invitation only and is limited to Europeans. The need for by-laws or an Association constitution became apparent during the course of the membership discussion and provision was made to prepare such a document during the coming year.

The Executive Committee of the Association during the past year consisted of Gustav Jahoda, University of Strathclyde; Serge Moscovici, University of Paris; Mauk Mulder, University of Utrecht; Josef M. Nuttin Jr., University of Louvain; and Henri Tajfel, Oxford University. The success of the present Conference as well as the planning of the summer training schools sponsored by the Association may be traced directly to this group. All were re-elected to the Executive Committee, and the group was expanded by two members in order to cut down on the work load. Ragnar Rommettweit, Oslo University, and Martin Irle, Mannheim University, were elected to the two new positions. Moscovici, who has served as President of the Association over the past 18 months, was succeeded by Nuttin.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR PRESENTATIONS

Dr. Nico Frijda (Amsterdam University), and Professor Gustav Jahoda (University of Strathclyde, Glasgow) were joint authors of a paper entitled: On the Scope and Methods of Cross-Cultural Research. In some respects this was a broad-brush treatment of a wide range of problems in the area of cross-cultural research. However, the authors went beyond highlighting deficiencies in present-day methodology and criticizing past work; in a number of major problem areas there were carefully and systematically suggested solutions to the issues under discussion.

After briefly outlining the boundaries of cross-cultural research, an effort was made to identify its various

types and goals. In particular the authors were highly critical of the type of conceptual model currently used in culture-personality studies. The conceptual framework offered by Whiting of the Cornell-Harvard-Yale project was used as an example in their discussions. To illustrate the complexity of the area, the authors proposed an elaboration of Whiting's model which adds several additional variables and provides for their interaction. However, they pointed out that limitations imposed by the state of the art make it doubtful if a model such as theirs can be meaningfully employed at present. Concern with global issues in culture-personality research might more appropriately wait, for example, upon the development of adequate personality assessment techniques. Frijda and Jahoda advocated concentration at present on more limited associations between various aspects of child rearing in Western culture, such as typified by Dawson's work in Sierra Leone and Berry's comparison of the Temne and Eskimos.

The bulk of the paper was devoted to a detailed and penetrating analysis of methodological problems in cross-cultural research, discussed under the following headings: adequacy and comparability of descriptive categories; functional equivalents of the phenomena under study; comparability of investigation procedures; adequacy, representability and comparability of samples; and problems of interpretation.

The concluding section of the paper involved a discussion of future directions which might be taken to cope with methodological problems in cross-cultural studies.

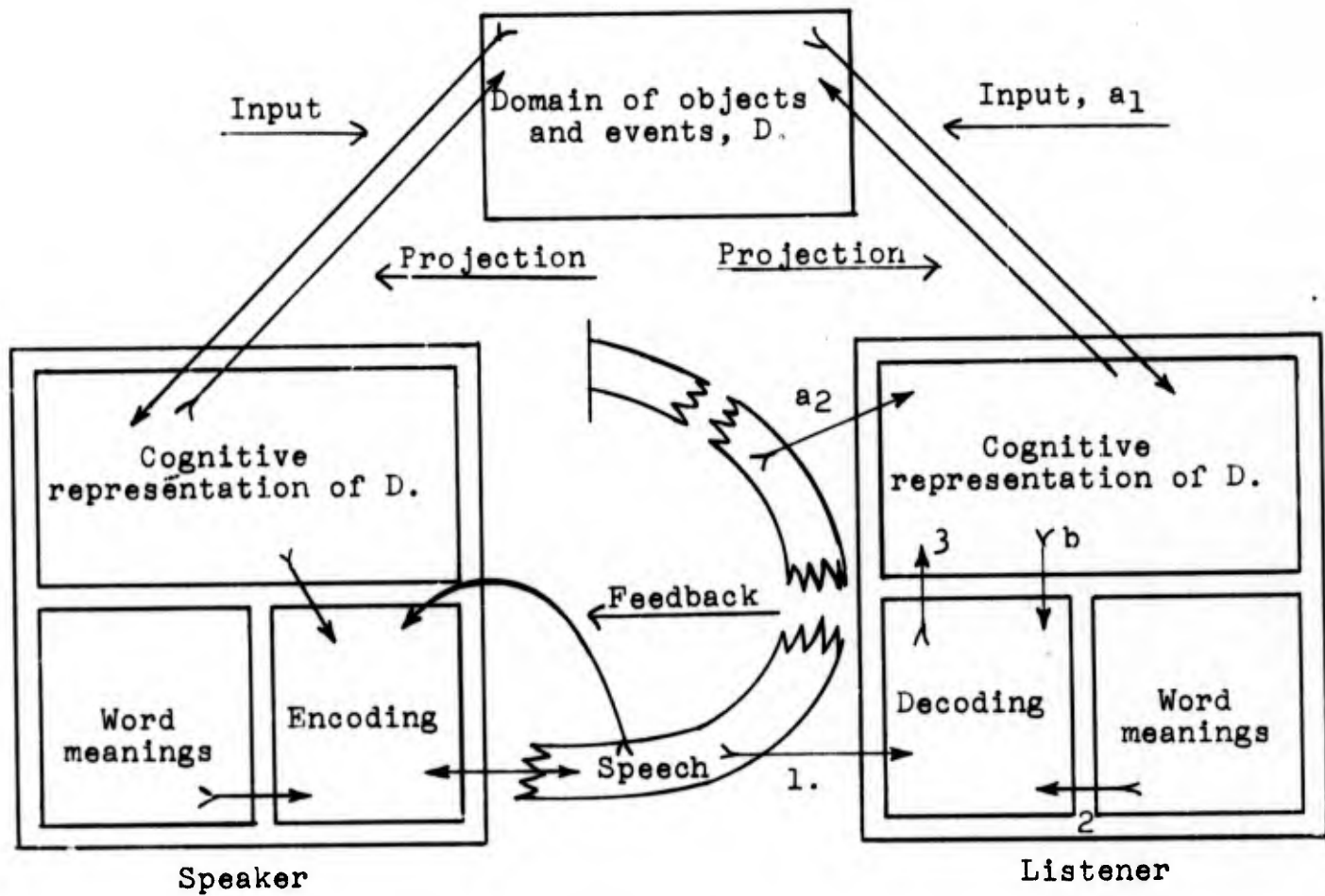
Several approaches were proposed to deal with the problem of equivalence of verbal instructions across different cultures. First, a method, using by Reuning, which requires that the test situation be understandable to the testee without verbal explanation or other outside instructions, was offered. A second possible approach is to employ a learning technique of test administration. Here, something such as the Witkin Embedded Figures test would be utilized. The required test performance and the nature of the task confronting the subject during the test could be transmitted or communicated through the preliminary learning procedures. A further technique considered to hold promise is that of Hammond, where variance attributable to past history is reduced by programming "the subject with regard to the issue being addressed." A suggestion also was made that increased attention be given to the use of behavioral and psychophysiological techniques in measuring response.

The authors strongly advocate a multivariant approach to research strategy in cross-cultural studies. Intra-cultural comparisons to supplement cross-cultural comparisons are suggested as a means of shedding light on possibly unknown interaction effects of the variables under consideration. Further attention should be given to expanding the number of dimensions upon which cross-cultural comparisons are made so as to rule out possible alternative interpretations. In a similar vein, closer attention should be given to supplementing cross-cultural comparisons with intracultural comparisons along the same dimensions. It is proposed that the significance of the investigator, as a variable in cross-cultural research, be studied through the use of a counter-balanced A-B, B-A experimental design employing investigators native to the cultures being studied. Finally, stress was placed on the advisability of developing experimental designs to cross-cultural collaboration rather than "lifting" or transplanting designs from one culture to another.

In closing, Frijda and Jahoda turned their attention to future directions of cross-cultural research. Here, they have placed an increased emphasis on systematic investigation of cultural and social change in the modern society. The understanding of such changes, and the implications which these hold for potential positive contributions on the part of psychologists, are seen as the biggest present-day challenge of cross-cultural research.

Professor Ragnar Rommettweit, Oslo University, presented the major paper of the second day. His presentation was entitled Linguistic and Nonlinguistic Components of Communication: Notes on the Interaction of Psycholinguistic and Social Psychological Theories. In many respects, this paper is extremely difficult to summarize, as it was itself essentially a summary of a more extensive and detailed work.

The presentation was directed towards outlining the manner in which a cognitive social psychology may serve as the vehicle for integration of linguistics and psychology. Speech and the mediation of messages in the direct person-to-person communication situation were analyzed in terms of linguistic utterance, nonlinguistic features of the communication setting, and in terms of the interaction between linguistic and nonlinguistic aspects of the communication process. Rommettweit's model for integration of psychology and linguistics is set forth below.



The following situation was used to discuss integration of the linguistic and nonlinguistic components of speech: "A friend of mine enters my office and he is looking at the empty table, where my typewriter is usually located, with an expression of inquiry and curiosity. As I am watching him at that very instant, I say: "Under repair." As apparent in the above diagram, part of the message has been communicated in the encoding and decoding of word meanings. However, perhaps even more important are the nonverbal aspects of this communication. In order for the full communication to occur, there must be a specific "convergence of cognitive orientation" on the part of the individuals involved. The physical absence of the typewriter noted by both the speaker and the listener, has become the center of the external "domain of objects and events" or "D" towards which both persons have projected a certain cognitive meaning. The relationship which Rommettweit postulates between "D" and the actual spoken message is seen above. Here, it should be emphasized that the nonverbal or nonlinguistic aspect of the message cannot be attributed to or explained in terms of stimulus input from the nonverbalized object in question. Rather, this segment of the message depends upon, first, a "cognitive representation" on the part of both the speaker and the listener of the object concerned and the converging projection of this representation onto the domain of objects and events or "D".

Rommettweit next turned to the more linguistic aspects of communication and attempted to show how even here social psychological theory adds to understanding. He contends that linguistic and nonlinguistic components of speech do not have a simple additive relationship in the communication process. The very nature of interpersonal speech and the parameters or limitations imposed on communication serve to structure certain social psychological parameters in the communication process; specifically, the temporal, spatial, and social relationships between the speaker and the listener are defined. At the same time, the need for convergent projection of meaning must be made by both participants to coincide with the "domain of objects and events" to which they are oriented. For example, the physical relationship and proximity of the speaker and listener serve to provide a spatial framework for the message which is communicated. However, there must be a cognitive convergence of the individuals concerned with respect to the objects and events. For example, the meaning of the word "here" may vary greatly -- in one situation to indicate the immediate proximity of the speaker, in

another situation possibly to indicate a city, country, or continent.

The cognitive representations in Rommettweit's model are the processes of encoding or decoding as well as the projection onto the domain of objects and events. Sent and received messages may be looked upon as acts of encoding and decoding respectively. The act of encoding thus becomes the means by which the sender attempts to initiate a particular projection on the part of the receiver. A sent message may be considered "... an act of encoding by which the sender intends to initiate in the receiver a particular projection onto the designative domain." A received message may be tentatively defined as an act of decoding by which the receiver projects from the utterance and features of the situation to that domain. The transmission of a message and the transmission of information are not necessarily synonymous. In order to evaluate information transmission, a comparison is required of the receiver's projection to "D" before and after receipt of the message. Although Rommettweit did not dwell at length on the obvious clear-cut methodological implications of these theoretical formulations, he apparently has undertaken some work under laboratory conditions in an attempt to test the model.

Considerable time was devoted to outlining and discussing certain implications of Rommettweit's model. Attention was given to the relative contribution of linguistic aspects of the message under a variety of conditions and the manner in which the model handles such differences. The importance of environmental or nonlinguistic constituents was explored by several examples in which the same sentence was spoken under a number of different situations. Among these situations, very neatly accounted for with the theoretical formulation, is that in which there is no shared "D" between the sender and receiver of the message in terms either of the present environmental situation or of preceding speech or events. Included here was a discussion of the situation in which the sender and receiver have markedly different reference domains of objects and events associated with a specific word or words in the linguistic component. The paper concluded with a discussion of the concept of situationally-induced designative domain or "D" in relation to problems of self-reference and pragmatic modes or linguistic form.

Regardless of the degree to which one might be interested in psycholinguistics, the thoughtfulness, systematic formulation and clarity of Rommettweit's presentation

certainly commanded attention. The growing contribution of social psychology to the study of psycholinguistics was clearly made evident -- even without the comment "When God made language, he never intended that it would be used in a vacuum but in a speaker-listener relationship."

Professor Leon Festinger, Stanford University, made the third major presentation at the meeting. Festinger was the only participant in the formal sessions who did not read a paper, use notes, or address himself to specific problems in the broad field of experimental social psychology. Rather, he traced the history of experimental social psychology over the past 25 years. After briefly discussing the early work of Allport and Sherif, he dwelt at length on the leadership studies of Lewin and Lippitt, which he considers to constitute the beginning of experimental social psychology. From there he went to a description of the situation surrounding the founding of the Research Center for Group Dynamics at MIT and the subsequent development of the National Training Laboratory. The historical evolution of the field was concluded with a brief discussion of the Center at Michigan.

The remainder of Festinger's presentation was devoted to comments on the present status of experimental social psychology and possible avenues of future development. A diversity of thoughts were presented in this connection. Present-day social psychology was viewed as being in a state of stagnation with a particular need for theoretical developments. For example, new theoretical ideas were seen as being needed to broaden work in the area of influence, and effort should be directed towards exploring biological aspects of social behavior.

In some respects Festinger's presentation may have been somewhat less scholarly than many participants had anticipated. On the other hand, it may have been quite appropriate for this extremely energetic and active group to pause for a moment and obtain a long-term perspective from an individual who has been identified with this field almost from its inception.

Two papers were presented each morning during the last two days of the Conference. Dr. Jaap Rabbie, Institute for Social Psychology, University of Utrecht, Netherlands, presented an abridged and modified version of a paper previously prepared by Rabbie and Horowitz entitled Origins of Ingroup-Outgroup Attitudes. The paper reported on research directed towards isolation of minimal conditions necessary to produce discriminatory ingroup-outgroup

attitudes. This was stimulated by Lewin's book, Resolving Social Conflicts, in which he hypothesized that the main criterion of group belongingness is interdependence of fate. The experimental design provided for a control and three experimental conditions. The later conditions varied in the degree to which the groups were responsible for their own common fate, or that of an outgroup, in terms of being rewarded or deprived of reward for group performance. Two groups, each composed of four randomly selected and previously unacquainted adolescent students, were used for each condition. Each group was identified by a color, such as green or blue. The investigators referred to the groups by their color names, each member wore a tag of that color, and used pens and paper of the group color.

In each condition, the two groups were brought into a room and seated in such a manner as to be visually separated by a screen. The study was introduced as an experiment in "first impressions." Each group completed an Imbedded Figure test and also judged two photographs on several personality characteristics. The experimental treatment consisted of a systematic variation in the manner of rewarding or depriving the group for their "excellence of performance." A transistor radio was given to each member of the rewarded group (a prize which was taken back by the experimenter at the end of the session).

In the control condition, no reward or deprivation of reward took place, although the S's carried out the same tasks as in the three experimental conditions. The reward in the first experimental condition was determined by E flipping a coin to decide which of the two groups would receive the radios. In the second experimental condition, the radios were awarded by E on a completely arbitrary basis; and, in the third condition, a situation was created whereby the rewarded group itself was responsible for depriving the second or discriminated group from receiving the radios.

In essence, the experimental design made it possible to determine, first, if administrative classification into groups was of itself sufficient to generate ingroup-outgroup feelings. The three experimental conditions provided a test of the significance of three different mechanisms of determining the common fate of the group members. Thus, in the first experimental condition chance determined the common fate of the group; in the second condition, a source of external influence became the determining factor in the group fate; and, in the third condition, the action of the

group itself became the primary factor.

The influence of the experimental manipulation in the development of ingroup-outgroup attitudes was measured by a series of scales and a questionnaire which was completed by each S in all eight groups. Through a clever and somewhat complicated procedure, which included each subject standing up and reading background information about himself after the screen dividing the groups had been removed, it was possible to obtain a variety of data reflecting an intra-group cohesiveness and cognitive ingroup-outgroup differentiation.

The results indicated that in the case of the control group, where no experimental manipulation was undertaken, the mere administrative formulation of groups was not in itself sufficient to produce any discriminatory ingroup-outgroup attitudes. This was not the case, however, with the experimental groups. Regardless of experimental condition, and regardless of whether or not the group was rewarded, the differential treatment in each of the conditions produced more favourable in-group than out-group evaluation.

It is interesting to note that the preference for in-groups was not wholly indiscriminate, inasmuch as there generally was no differentiation on those rating-scale items related to performance. Rather, the discrimination tended to be on the social and emotional items. Subjects also tended to rate their own group members higher on the various personality attributes sampled than they rated members of out-groups. These same general tendencies held up on the sociometric measures, showing that subjects generally tended to rate members of their own group higher than members of the out-group. This was true regardless of experimental conditions.

Rabbie concluded his presentation with a rather extensive discussion of the implications of the above results. Both the reward and reward-deprived groups in this study showed a general increase in in-group attractiveness. Accordingly, it was considered that the theories of in-group attractiveness and of frustration and aggression, as formulated by Cartwright and Zander and by Dollard respectively, could not be used to explain the findings. After discussing the results in the light of numerous other recent studies, Rabbie proposed an interpretation in terms of the group members' perception of their social environment. Such an interpretation postulates a tendency on the part of

in-group members to avoid interaction with out-group members.

The next paper, by Dr. Marisa Zavalloni, University of Paris, was entitled Preliminary Observations for Experimental Studies of Identity. Zavalloni opened her presentation by making the point that the concept of identity and the related concepts of ego or self-concept have long theoretical histories, but there is little empirical data to support the theory. In essence her paper constituted a detailed review of existing research data, with a view towards developing hypotheses which could be empirically tested. Zavalloni's concern obviously is with structure or dimensions of identity and not with process. Her literature review was organized around a twofold dimension; first, a simplicity-complexity continuum of identity-attribute organization; and, second, a self-alter identity continuum. The paper, which in many respects resembled the first two chapters of a PhD dissertation, concluded with a list of hypotheses which will be tested in the first of a series of studies which she proposes to conduct in the area of identity theory.

Mr. Guido B. Cohen, Social Psychology Institute, University of Groningen, The Netherlands, reported on a study entitled The Effects of Structure of Task and Group on Productivity. Cohen's studies were stimulated by a divergence in finding between Shaw and Mulder regarding the effectiveness of central versus noncentral structure in problem solving. While Cohen finds little difficulty in explaining the difference in results in the Mulder and Shaw studies, it is obvious that this research has stimulated him to a consideration of somewhat more subtle problems in the area. After a rather careful and cogent analysis, Cohen clearly distinguished between the concepts of task structure and task performance, a difference which constitutes the basis for the present study. Thus, rather than attending solely to task performance, the primary focus of Cohen's research was on varying task structure in terms of interdependency -- essentially, the channels or mode through which information is communicated and ultimately processed in decision making. Interdependency was varied by two specific mechanisms in the present studies: first, through the number of preliminary decisions required in order to make the final or ultimate goal decision; and, second, through a variation in the number of individuals in the decision-making process. It was hypothesized that interdependency increases as both the number of sub-decisions and the number of individuals involved are increased.

Further, it was predicted that centrality of group structure becomes increasingly effective as interdependency of task structure increases. To date, by use of a Bavelas-type task, his emphasis in research has been on the variation of group structure; Cohen is concerned with extending this work to include the effect of varying task structure.

The experimental task consisted of a game whereby the group was required to produce a product or goods on the basis of economic supply and demand. The goal of the game was to produce precisely the amount of goods which could be supported by market demand which was established by E. Each member of the group was supplied with decision-trees to provide information necessary to reach a group decision. In addition to the decision-tree, several groups received a "card" which contained information that aided in determining the best possible course of action in arriving at a group decision.

As predicted, centrality becomes increasingly important in group productivity as interdependency of the group increases. At the same time, an inverse relationship appears between noncentrality and interdependency. This finding was supported both in terms of the number of correct solutions reached and the time for problem solution.

Cohen did not expand on his findings and their theoretical implications in any great detail, inasmuch as the data were incompletely analyzed. He did, however, outline several experiments planned for the future, including one in which conflict of interest would be introduced into the decision-making process.

The final paper of the Conference was presented by Dr. Claude Faucheux from the Social Psychology Laboratory of the Sorbonne. This paper, which reports a study conducted in collaboration with Dr. Kenneth D. Mackenzie during Faucheux's tenure as a Ford Foundation professor at Carnegie Institute, will be published in the immediate future. Accordingly, only a brief summary will be presented here. The presentation, entitled Task Dependency of Organizational Centrality, was concerned primarily with looking at the effect of organization on group structure. The research he reported is an extension of studies made in collaboration with Moscovici, in which the task is manipulated as an independent variable and the organizational structure is treated as the dependent variable. In this work, as in that which preceded it, Faucheux is more concerned with group process than with structure.

It is contended that most tasks used in studies of group organization and structure are of an automatic or analytic nature, so that the solution becomes guaranteed if the appropriate amount of effort is expended. A question is raised, however, as to the manner in which the situation may differ if one uses a task requiring inferences or induction rather than deduction or analysis. It was hypothesized that groups will tend to centralize when dealing with deductive tasks and that they will not centralize if the task is of an inductive or inferential nature. Further, groups who do not follow the above patterns will demonstrate a poor performance.

The S's consisted of 14 groups, each composed of five students from Carnegie Tech. All groups were required to perform two series of tasks, one of which was inductive in nature and the other deductive. A counterbalanced design was employed. Each S was placed in a cubicle so that communication among the group members was through written messages. No limitations were placed on the content of the messages. At the end of the experimental sessions the S's completed a questionnaire concerned with their attitude toward the two different situations. The dependent variables measured under the two conditions included time of solution, number of correct solutions, an assessment of performance, degree of group-member participation, liking of task, and adequacy of group role in task solution. Mackenzie's technique was utilized to provide an index of centrality.

Generally speaking, the results supported the initial hypotheses. The data clearly indicated the point at which groups are left to develop their own structure centralization and inductive tasks to decentralization. Moreover, performance was more effective when the groups centralized in the deductive tasks. As none of the groups centralized when faced with the inductive tasks, it was not possible to draw inferences from the data about the relationship of centralization and task effectiveness in this situation. Faucheux's paper was concluded with a discussion of the implication and various possible interpretations of the behavior of the experimental groups under the inductive task condition.

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