CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The concept of suggestion was introduced in the second half of the 19th century by Braid in Great Britain and in France by Bertrand. Since then different techniques have been employed to measure suggestibility in children, adults, neurotic and psychotic patients, smokers, drug addicts, delinquents and others.

Some of the studies done in the area of suggestion and suggestibility are mentioned in the following order:-

1) Suggestibility 'general' or 'specific'.

2) Suggestion as a therapeutic technique.

3) Subjective factors affecting suggestibility.
   a) Suggestibility and age.
   b) Suggestibility and sex.
   c) Suggestibility and intelligence.
   d) Suggestibility and personality.

4) Suggestibility and education.

5) Suggestibility in other conditions.

6) Situational factors affecting suggestibility.

7) Characteristics of the experimenter affecting suggestibility.

1) Suggestibility 'general' or 'specific':

There is a controversy regarding the 'generality' or 'specificity' of suggestibility.
Scott (1910) and Brown (1916) found suggestibility to be specific in nature. Aveling and Hargreaves (1921) pointed towards a general factor of suggestibility. Messerschmidt (1933) supported them. Remmers, Cutler and Jones (1940) found suggestibility to be specific. Eysenck (1943) and Eysenck and Furneaux (1945) used tests of primary and secondary suggestibility and found that suggestibility was not a general trait.

2) Suggestion as a therapeutic tool:

Suggestion has been successfully used in the treatment of many disorders.

Remarkable cures have been registered in the area of dermatology (Bonjour, 1927; Bunnemann, 1927) and obstetrics and gynaecology (Bonjour, 1927). Seeling (1928) has used it in the treatment of stuttering. Garcia (1929) and Barker (1930) have treated hysterical amaurosis and hysterical paralysis with the help of suggestion. Suggestion is extremely useful in the treatment of rheumatoid disorders (Joseph, 1931) and stomach disorders (Chappell, Stefano, Rogerson and Pike, 1934). Suggestion has been used in the treatment of enuresis (Siegl and Asperger, 1934) and nail biting (Leshan, 1942).

Among psychotics, suggestive therapy has been popular (Jolles, 1943). Day Haridas (1947) has treated 2 cases of depresssing obsessions with the help of suggestion. Symptoms of anxiety states have been studied in relation to suggestion (Roberts and
Hamilton, 1958). In suitable cases, minor surgeries like dental extraction, curettage and drainage have been done under hypnosis and suggestion in conjunction with local anesthesia. Suggestion has also been used in pre and post operative conditions to reduce tension, anxiety and pain in the patient.

3) **Subjective factors affecting suggestibility:**

Some of the areas covered are as follows:

a) **Suggestibility and age:**

Guidi (1908), Kohn and Differnbacher (1911), Lodge (1926) and Messerschmidt (1933) used various tests of suggestibility (most of the tests were of secondary suggestibility except heat illusion test) and found a decrease in suggestibility with increasing chronological age. In another study, Messerschmidt (1933) used Hull's postural sway test and found that suggestibility increased from 5th to 8th year of age and then decreased throughout, although the decline was gradual. Devakunjari (1947) studied secondary suggestibility of 500 Indian children and found a decrease in suggestibility among children aged 11 and above. Stucki (1958) studied suggestibility of children and adults with the help of various tests. Primary suggestibility was uncorrelated with age, whereas secondary suggestibility was negatively correlated with it. Mc Connel T. Jr R (1963) found a decrease in suggestibility with increasing chronological age. Barber and Calverly (1963) studied 'hypnotic like' suggestibility in 724 children and adults. Subjects between 6-12 age group
were found to be more suggestible than adults but the age group 14-22 did not differ in suggestibility. Sah (1973) studied secondary suggestibility of 180 Indian students and found younger children more suggestible than adults.

b) Suggestibility and sex:

Chojecki (1911) used three tests of suggestibility (viz. the heat illusion, the Binet test on suggested increase in the length of lines and increased and decreased tactual sensivity produced by magnet). 60 men and women were subjects. Men were more suggestible than women. Cohn and Diffenbacher (1911), however, found no sex differences.

Lodge (1926), Heron (1927), Hurlock (1930), Messerschmidt (1933) and Bowden (1934) used various tests of suggestibility (tests of secondary and prestige suggestibility and the heat illusion test) and found girls and women more suggestible than boys and men.

Eysenck (1943) studied body sway suggestibility of men and women and found women less suggestible than men.

Dovakunjari (1947), Patal and Gordon (1960) found girls and women more suggestible than men. Mc Connell T. Jr R. (1963) and Barber and Calverly (1963) found no sex differences.

Sah (1968) and Ojha and Singh (1972) studied suggestibility of a few Indian subjects and found females more suggestible than males.
c) Suggestibility and intelligence:

Cohn and Diffenbacher (1911) found dull girls more suggestible than bright ones, while bright boys were as suggestible as the dull ones. Mc Geoch (1925) found an inverse relationship, between suggestibility and intelligence.

Young (1929) found white children more intelligent than the black, but were equally suggestible according to the Binet suggestibility tests. Hurlock (1930) studied suggestibility of children of both sexes and found low correlation between mental age and suggestibility, although some relationship between mental development and the ability to resist suggestion was found.

Barron and Hilgard (1936) and Martin and Harold (1938) found no relationship between suggestibility and intelligence. Devakunjari (1947) found little but definite correlation between suggestibility and intelligence.

Wagner (1951) studied suggestibility of 28 dabile boys and 25 boys of average intelligence. No difference was found between the two groups as far as 'primary suggestibility' was concerned. Secondary suggestibility was higher in experimental than in the control group. Prestige suggestibility was related to intelligence defect.

Das (1961) found that the defectives did not differ from each other when taken according to grades of deficiency nor did they differ as a group from normal college students.
Sinha and Dhawan (1971) found that subjects of high intelligence and low suggestibility showed less change in attitude as compared to subjects with low intelligence and high suggestibility. Trippi Joseph (1973) compared the suggestibility of educable mentally retarded children with those educable mentally retarded children who remained in regular grades. Regular grade EMR were more suggestible.

d) Suggestibility and personality:

Suggestibility in relation to extraversion:

White (1930) found a significant relationship between hypnosis or suggestibility and extraversion \( (r = .70) \). This was not supported by investigators like Barry, Mac Kinnon and Murray (1931) and Davis and Husband (1931). Taking 3 group of subjects; (Psychoneurotics = 16; dementia praecox = 16; normals = 20) Bartlett (1935) found a relationship in the psychoneurotic group between suggestibility and lack of dominance, lack of mental health and social adjustment and in the normal between suggestibility and extraversion. Dahms and Jenness (1937) and Roach (1947) found no relationship between hypnotizability or suggestibility and extraversion in college students. In Indian context, Sinha and Ojha (1963) found that extraverts were more liable to change their judgements under the influence of prestige than introverts.
Suggestibility in relation to impunitivenss and repression:

Rosenzweig and Sarason (1942) found that hypnotizability and suggestibility were related to:
1) 'impunitiveness' (blaming neither oneself nor others) and
2) 'repression'. This was not confirmed by Willey (1951) and Dohand (1953) who used college students and neurotic patients as their subjects. Similarly, Barber (1961) who administered picture frustration test to 39 highly suggestible and 39 non-suggestible female college students, found no difference between the two groups on impunitiveness.

Suggestibility in relation to other personality variables:

Baumgartner (1931) classified 56 student nurses on postural sway suggestibility and asked 5 nursing supervisors to rate them on such traits as sympathy, tactfulness, honesty and optimism. No relationship between personality traits and suggestibility was found.

Bartlett (1936) studied the relation of suggestibility to other personality traits. 52 psychiatric patients were taken.

Suggestibility appeared slightly positively correlated with Mallet's habit pattern and with readiness to confide.

Lindberg (1940) studied suggestibility in different personality types by classifying 159 neurotic subjects according to Sjobring's system into 4 'pure' personality types (hysteric, asthemic, syntonic and oligophrenics). Oligophrenics were 100%
suggestible, the hystericics were 86.7% suggestible, the asthenics 56.6% and the syntonics 35.3%. The pyknic bodily type were least suggestible.

Juckorman and Grosz (1958) and Jackubczak and Walters (1959) found a relationship between suggestibility and dependency. Abraham (1962) found that personality needs of autonomy and deference predispose individuals towards high and low suggestibility irrespective of the source of suggestion. Barber and Calverley administered the Edwards Personal Preference schedule to 514 college students who were rated either on hypnotizability (N = 100) or suggestibility (N = 414). The hypnotizable or nonsuggestible did not differ from each other in autonomy, affiliation, dominance, aggression, deference, nurturance or any of the personality variables measured by the EPPS.

Hilgard and Hilgard (1962) conducted intensive clinical interviews with 220 college students. Each subject was first rated on two forms of the Stanford Hypnotic Susceptibility Scale and then interviewed. No clear cut findings were obtained.

Barber and Calverley (1963) gave the interpersonal check list to 249 male and female college students. Hypnotizability or suggestibility were not related to personality as shown by Loary interpersonal check list. However 78 female subjects tested under the hypnotic condition showed a small but significant positive relationship (r = .24) between scores on Barber suggestibility scale and scores on the co-operative overconventional dimension of the ICL.
Barber and Calverley (1964) instructed 19 teachers to rate 193 children between 10-13 age group on 36 personality variables included in the Cattell - Coon Teacher's Rating scale. None of the traits were correlated with scores on the Barber suggestibility scale.

Rickels, Downing and Appol (1964) studied personality correlates of suggestibility in 25 normals and 21 neurotic subjects. The two groups differed significantly in neuroticism, dependency, anxiety and hostility though no significant difference ineway test of suggestibility was found.

Sinha (1968) found submissive persons more suggestible than ascendant ones. Verma and Sinha (1969) found insecure types more suggestible than secure ones. Ojha and Jha (1970) found a relationship between high anxiety and suggestibility. Ojha's findings (1971) indicated that submissive persons were more suggestible than ascendant ones. Toller (1971) in a study on 145 college students found alienated and externally oriented persons highly susceptible to persuasive techniques. Ojha (1972) concluded that prestige suggestibility was positively related with dependance proneness and negatively with rigidity. Konieczna (1974) found a relationship between shyness and suggestibility. Terea et al (1976) studied suggestibility of students and found no relationship between suggestibility and personality. Similarly Canale (1976) found that personality was not consistently related to suggestibility. Situational variables like attitude,
motivation and expectation were significantly related to each other and to both creative imagination scale (CIS) and Barber suggestibility scale (S.S.).

**Suggestibility in relation to prior imaginative-fantasy experiences:**

Some of the investigators believe that hypnotizable or suggestible individuals think more often than the non-hypnotizable or non-suggestible that:-

1) They enjoy daydreaming, like to read true stories about love and romance and during childhood, they had realistic, imaginary playmates (Barber and Glass, 1962).

2) They enjoy indulging in emotions with the feeling of "letting go" and have had other strange experiences (As 1962) and

3) They have been intensely absorbed in painting, dancing, listening to music, watching themselves from a distance as if in a dream (Shor, Orne and O'Connell, 1962).

Barber and Calverley (1964) studied 172 college undergraduates to cross-validate these findings. Questionnaires for measuring the frequency or intensity of previous imaginative fantasy or weird experiences did not discriminate between subjects high and low on hypnotizability or suggestibility.

Spanos, Valois, Ham and Ham (1973) studied the relationship between suggestibility and vividness and control of imagery in 40 female student nurses. Subjects high on vividness but
low on control of imagery showed greater suggestion than subjects possessing any other combination of those two characteristics.

**Suggestibility in relation to neuroticism:**

Sraiber and Yakovleva (1933) studied suggestibility of normal adults and neurotics and found that traumatic patients showed an increased suggestibility, then came the normal group, psychasthenics and neurasthenics showed a decrease of suggestibility. The highest degree of suggestibility was found in a group of hysterical women. Ingvarsson and Lindborg (1935) studied a heterogeneous group of nervous patients and found a maximum degree of suggestibility in intellectually inferior children, next came the brain injured, hysterics were third in the order. Bartlott (1936a) and Masser, Hinckley and Moisor (1936) obtained non-significant correlations between 'neurotic tendency' and scores on suggestibility scales.

Eysenck (1943) tested two hypotheses:—

1) there were two main factors of suggestibility - one of them sensory and the other motor.

2) that suggestibility had an intimate relation with hysteria. 30 patients diagnosed as 'conversion hysterics and 30 non-hysterics neurotics were given 8 tests of suggestibility. The hysterics did not differ significantly from the non-hysterics on any of the suggestibility tests.

Eysenck (1944) studied the relationship between primary suggestibility and neuroticism. 110 neurotics and 110 normals
(60 men and 50 women in each category) served as subjects. It was found that 63% of neurotic males and 42% of neurotic females were suggestible as opposed to 7% of normal males and 8% of normal females. Similarly, Himmelweit, Qosai and Patris (1946) in their study on 105 neurotics and 93 surgical cases found tetrachoric correlations of around .50 between:

a) Static ataxia and neuroticism,
b) Postural sway suggestibility and static ataxia,
c) Postural sway suggestibility and neuroticism.

Eysenck (1947) compared 231 'puro hysteric' with 309 'puro cases of dysthymia' on postural sway suggestibility. The differences between the two groups were attributed to change.

Eysenck (1947) administered the postural sway test to a large group of 900 males and 330 female neurotics. The patients were classified as 'suggestible' if they swayed forward 2 inches or more and also if they swayed backward 2 inches or more. He found that 76% of the male neurotics and 52% of the female neurotics were 'suggestible' and they were more suggestible than a comparison group of 60 male and 60 female non-neurotics.

Arciari Libero (1949) studied the suggestibility of schizophrenics psychoneurotics and normals. He found schizophrenics least suggestible and psychoneurotics the most suggestible. The normals fell between the schizophrenics and psychoneurotics.
In an unpublished study by Clarke (1950) and Gravely (1950) in London it was found that 'neurotics and normals did not differ with respect to suggestibility, although there was a small difference in the predicted direction.

Doland (1953) studied postural sway of 73 American neurotics and failed to cross validate Eysenck's results. Eysenck found that 76% of the male neurotics showed either a positive or negative response of more than 2 inches. Doland found that only 41% of his sample showed this type of response.

Ingham (1954) measured postural sway with and without suggestions in 37 neurotics and 42 normals matched with respect to sex, age, height and weight. In an analysis, where neurotic patients who fell outside the range of the normal group with respect to static ataxia were eliminated, it was found that neurotics were more suggestible than the normals by one statistical test (Mann - Whitney U test) but not by another (Student's t test). In a second analysis, neurotics and normals were carefully matched on static ataxia by pairing. The two groups did not differ on postural sway suggestibility. In 1955, Ingham compared response to suggestions of arm movement in 54 neurotics and 29 normals. The neurotics showed more arm movement than the normals prior to the administration of the suggestions. When the scores were adjusted for arm movement prior to suggestions, the neurotics were no more suggestible than normals. Stukas (1958) administered the postural sway and Chevreul pendulum tests.
to a group of 301 neurotic patients and 90 college students. The two groups did not differ on suggestibility.

High suggestibility of neurotics compared to normals in Eysenck's studies may be due to his unusual method of rating suggestibility (rating subjects responding positively and also subjects responding negatively to suggestions as suggestible) and failure to control postural sway without suggestions (static ataxia).

Stukat (1958) measured postural sway suggestibility in 75 patients with 'hystorical personalities' and 47 patients who did not manifest this type of personality. He also measured suggestibility by means of the Chevrel pendulum. The hystorical personalities did not differ from the non hystorics on either measure of suggestibility.

Hailizer (1960) studied the relationship between hypnotizability and anxiety and/or neuroticism. 62 female students served as subjects. Positive relationship between neuroticism and hypnotizability did not occur with normal subjects.

Furneaux (1961) explained suggestibility in terms of drive level and found that body sway scores of stable extraverts and neurotic introverts were large, whereas they were small for stable introverts and neurotic extraverts.

Webb and NeSmith (1964) studied 279 psychiatric patients and 211 normal college students and drew different conclusions
by showing that the normal subjects were more suggestible than the psychiatric group. Within the psychiatric group, significant differences were found among the psychotics, non-psychotics and organics. Non psychotics were least suggestible, the psychotics most suggestible and the organics intermediate.

Ojha and Jha (1969) studied prestige suggestion in high and low neurotic subjects and found high neurotic subjects more suggestible than the low neurotic group.

4) Suggestibility and education:

Not much work is done in this area. Few studies indicate that suggestibility decreases with an increase in education (Roach 1941; Porter 1941; Patil and Gordon 1960 and Sah 1973).

5) Suggestibility in other conditions:

Suggestibility has been studied in epileptics, drug addicts, alcoholics, smokers and delinquents.

Epileptics had a larger proportion of zero responses than normals (Williams and Mendenhall 1936).

Male drug addicts showed hyporsuggestibility during addiction but this decreased during withdrawal (Vogel 1937).

Suggestibility of adult chronic alcoholics was same as that of controls except that 9% of the alcoholic had zero responses as compared to 20% of the normal subjects (Vogel 1938).
Suggestibility has been studied in smokers and non-smokers. Smokers were less positively suggestible than non-smokers (Wallance 1940).

Barry (1973) studied hypnotic susceptibility of delinquents and non-delinquents with the help of Barber suggestibility scale. Groups did not differ with regard to hypnotic suggestibility and personality did not correlate with hypnotic suggestibility.

Shanmugam (1975) studied the suggestibility of delinquent and non-delinquent boys and girls and found delinquents more suggestible than non-delinquents.

Drug abusers and non-abusers did not differ from each other on suggestibility (Claus 1975). However, additional work is required in this area to confirm results.

6) Situational factors affecting suggestibility:

a) Factors affecting primary suggestibility:

Eichkorn and Skaggs (1928) studied body sway of 40 subjects. Subjects with eyes open exceeded those with eyes closed and short persons swayed more than tall persons.

Skaggs, Skaggs and Jordan (1932) studied the relationship between attention and body sway. It was found that unpractised subjects swayed less when attention was directed from the body. The practised subjects were evenly divided, some swaying more with distracted attention and some less. All subjects did
better under normal muscular tension than under instructions to
tone the muscles.

Burrowan and Hilgard (1936) studied the postural responses
of 30 students under three forms of suggestion - direct personal
heterosuggestion, verbal auto-suggestion and imagined auto-
suggestion. No significant differences were obtained between
the responses under the three types of suggestion.

Skaggs (1937) measured body sway in 25 college women
under different conditions of bodily tension. It was found
that in all cases subjects swayed more with muscles of the legs
tensed above the normal.

Eysenck (1943) tested 160 men and 160 women with the help
of body sway test. Group A (30 men) was tested by Eysenck.
Group B (30 women) was tested by a young lady. Group C (100
men) was tested by means of a gramophone record played by a
nurse or by a patient. Similar arrangement was made for women.
For men the record was more successful than either male or
female suggestor, but the record was less successful for the
woman than either male or female suggestor. This showed that
personal relationship was not essential for the induction of
suggestibility although it was an aid to suggestibility in the
case of women.

Edwards (1946) conducted 13 experiments to study the
relation between body sway and vision. It was found that
elimination of vision by closing the eye or by complete darkness
produced an average increase in sway of about 100%. Small increase were obtained when subjects observed moving objects. Fixation on near or distant stationary objects produced no significant decrease in sway.

Edwards (1949) studied the effect of body rotation upon involuntary sway and finger tremor. Body sway greatly increased following rotation. Significant results were not obtained when finger tremor was tested before and after rotation.

Imber, Frank, Gliedman, Nash and Anthony (1958) studied the relationship between suggestibility, social class and acceptance of psychotherapy. 57 psychiatric patients were given sway tests after their initial psychiatric interview but prior to the beginning of treatment. No relationship between presence or absence of swaying and socio-economic class was found. Lack of sway did not predict remaining or leaving.

Jones and Goodson (1959) studied the effects of boredom on suggestibility by depriving 24 naval aviation cadets of all social contact for a period of about 8 hours. Experimental subjects were found to be more suggestible than a control group (of 24 cadets). When arm levitation was taken into consideration (which is a less sensitive response than body sway) the effect was reduced. The difference between the two groups was abolished altogether when leg catalepsy (a still less sensitive response) was used.
Das (1960) studied the effects of prestige on body sway suggestibility. Body sway increased in response to individuals perceived as being prestigious, especially among those subjects who were already high in suggestibility.

Webb (1962) studied the relationship between postural sway suggestibility and verbal conditioning. Postural sway was positively correlated with verbal conditioning. No subject below 100 mm body sway showed any indication of conditioning. The lowest suggestibility group appeared to be counter-conditioning.

Hoskovoc, Svored and Lanc (1963) measured the relative effectiveness of tape-recorded versus spoken suggestions of body sway. Both types of suggestion produced increased body sway when compared to prior basal levels. When spoken suggestions followed recorded suggestions, they were more effective. No difference was found in the reverse order of presentation.

Barbor and Calverley (1965) studied the effects on suggestibility of defining the situation as hypnosis or as control and defining response to suggestions as easy or difficult. Level of suggestibility was highest when the situation was defined as hypnosis and the test suggestions as easy, next higher when either the situation was defined hypnosis or test suggestions as easy, and lowest when the situation was defined as control and the suggestions as difficult.
Das (1968) studied the relationship between body sway suggestibility and semantic satiation. Satiation scores for words in subjects' native language were found to be highly correlated with body sway, while satiation for words in English were not so related.

Garmire and Marcuso (1969) investigated the effects of 4 variables (room size, blindfold, anxiety and voicing tone) on body sway. None of the effects were significant.

Shanti Tavol (1971) studied suggestibility in a state of crisis in 25 unmarried, first time pregant girls with Barber suggestibility scale. It was found that girls in a state of crisis were more suggestible. The scores of unmarried girls on a test of suggestibility were lower after delivery than before delivery.

Gheorghiu (1971) gave body sway to 120 neurotic patients in two forms - first indirect than direct. The direct suggestion in body sway was more effective than the proposed indirect one.

Gheorghiu, Langon and Zosel (1973) administered body sway test with 4 different forms of suggestion:
1) indirect suggestion with the help of a rubber cuff.
2) autogenetic suggestion.
3) Hotaro suggestive form in which the experimenter gives the suggestion and
the conflict form - a combination of direct suggestion by E and the instruction to resist the given suggestion. The form of suggestion had no significant effect on outcome.

b) Factors affecting secondary suggestibility:

Bernard Muscio (1915) studied the influence of the direction (subjective objective) of a question upon answers and the influence of articles upon answers. The most reliable form of question was a subjective direction question form which contained neither a negative nor the definite article.

Burt and Gaskill (1932) used 6 forms of questions to evaluate the definite versus indefinite article, the negative versus the positive form and the subjective Vs. the objective form. No conclusion could be drawn regarding the definite versus indefinite article. The objective form of question led to greater suggestibility.

Devakunjari (1947) studied the suggestibility of 500 Indian children of both sexes. The incompletely disjunctive question was found to be most suggestible and the completely disjunctive least suggestible.

Staples and Walters (1961) studied the relationship between anxiety, birth order and susceptibility to social influence and found that first born subjects were more suggestible than non first born.
George, Dovadasan and Dharmangadan (1967) studied the relationship between conditionability and suggestibility. 20 students served as subjects. Significant correlations were found between conditionability and suggestibility and between extinction and neuroticism.

William Gordon Cumming Jr (1968) studied the effects of stress and exposure to reduced environmental stimulation on suggestibility by exposing 80 navy men to 8 hours of reduced environmental stimulation. The results failed to show an increase in suggestibility during 8 hours of exposure to AES. Suggestibility increased with subjective stress.

Loftus and Zanni (1975) studied the influence of the wording of a question. It was found that in comparison to questions containing an indeterminate article questions which contained a definite article produced.

a) fewer 'uncertain' or 'I don't know' responses and
b) more recognition of events that never occurred.

c) Factors affecting prestige suggestibility:

Aveling and Hargroves (1921) found that suggestion depended on the total environment and conditions to which the subject is exposed. Bowden (1934) found that factors leading to prestige were - authority, insight and a clear definition of the situation and sympathy.
William and Michael (1949) found little significant shift in preferences for literary material subsequent to the attachment of the names of well known writers to the selections.

Hastorf and Piper (1951) studied the effect of explicit instructions on prestige suggestion. It was found that there was no need for using vague or ambiguous instructions for the second administration of the scale in suggestion.

Das, Rath and Das (1955) conducted an experiment to see the effects of prestige on the judgment of literary materials. It was found that understanding of materials weakens the effect of prestige factor.

Singer (1968) studied prestige suggestability in 60 subjects. He found that yielding to a prestige type of suggestion depended upon the difficulty level of the task.

7) Characteristics of the experimenter affecting suggestibility:

Rommers, Cutler and Jones (1940) indicated that investigators differing in personality characteristics elicited different levels of suggestibility from a homogeneous group of subjects.

Butler (1954) and Winkelstein (1958) found that hypnotizability or responsiveness to suggestions tended to vary with variations in the S - E relationship and was high when a close relationship existed between S and E.
In Stukat's study (1958) 300 subjects of ages 8 to 14 were assigned to each of three Es. Despite the uniformity in administration of the suggestions, highly significant differences in suggestibility scores were obtained from subjects by the three experimenters. From personality ratings made on the 3Es, it was concluded that the one eliciting the highest level of suggestibility was characterized by a greater ability 'to make social contacts'.

Barber and Calverley (1964) studied the effects of experimenter's tone of voice on 'hypnotic like' suggestibility. To half of the subjects (Group A) the suggestions were given in a forceful tone and to the others (Group B) similar suggestions were given in a lackadaisical tone. Variations in experimenter's tone of voice produced significant variations in suggestibility. Group A obtained higher objective and subjective scores than Group B.

Robert (1971) studied the effect of experimenter status on hypnosis and suggestibility. The status of E was not important in influencing subject's performance on a standardized suggestibility scale.

Murphy and Rowe (1977) studied the effects of the level of counselor facilitation on client suggestibility. Results supported the hypothesis that higher rated Es would demonstrate more suggestibility than subjects of lower rated Es.
Allen, Sipos and Sipos (1977) studied the effects of the experimenter in the auto kinetic situation. More subjects responded affirmatively to the female experimenter's suggestion than to male.

**Evaluation:**

Various aspects of suggestibility like the nature of suggestibility, its therapeutic utility, the effect of age and personality on suggestibility have been studied by various investigators, but so far, most of the studies have proved to be inconclusive.

Researches of Aveling and Margroavus (1921) and Massarschmidt (1933) point toward the general aspect of suggestibility in contradiction to the specific aspect.

Studies which show the therapeutic utility of suggestion are very few in number and have reported the treatment of very few cases, so we are not able to estimate the therapeutic strength of suggestion. In none of the studies, follow up cases have been reported to determine the effectiveness of treatment.

In studies on the effect of age on suggestibility, it has been found that suggestibility declines with age. This decline has been found to be gradual in a study by Massarschmidt (1933) who used body sway test. However, studies on effect of age on primary suggestibility are inadequate to point towards anything definite.
Little or no relationship is found between secondary suggestibility and intelligence. The relationship between primary suggestibility and intelligence is not very clear since subjects with low IQ appear to be equally suggestible as those of average intelligence (Wagner, 1961 and Das, 1961).

Researches into what kind of personalities are most susceptible to suggestion, have given no conclusive proof.

Most of the studies on secondary suggestibility have found suggestibility to be related to neuroticism. But the position with regard to primary suggestibility is not very clear. Studies of Bartlett (1936) and Ingham (1955) have found neurotics as suggestible as normals and Webb and Naismith (1964) found normals more suggestible than neurotics. Eysenck (1944) has contradicted this fact and has found primary suggestibility to be related to neuroticism. One of the difficulties with these studies is that most of the studies have made use of just one test to measure suggestibility of subjects, therefore definite conclusions can not be drawn.

Studies on the effect of situation on suggestibility are incomplete; therefore nothing can be estimated about the effect of a particular situation on suggestibility.

There are many reasons for such contradictory findings. The size of the sample in many of the studies is small and