GROUP DYNAMICS

INTRODUCTION

Human being is a social animal. It is rare to know an individual living isolated. Individual's life is made up largely by participating in groups. An individual goes outside herlhis home during the day and works amongst the group members and returns in the evening for a common meal where members of the family relate their experiences. All human beings normally enter their first group - the family, at the moment of birth and in the course of life times. By and large one joins a profession and becomes a member of the group, like you are a member of nursing group.

Group

A group is when "two or more people share a common definition and evaluation of themselves and behave in accordance with such a definition." (Vaughan & Hogg, 2002, Page 200).

Another way to explain a group is that "it is collection of people who interact with one another, accept rights and obligations as members and who share a common identity".

"A group is any collection of human beings who are brought into social relationship with one another". (Maclver).

Sheriff and Sheriff explain "A group is a social unit which consists of a number of individual who stand in definite status and role relationship to one another and which posses a set of values or norms of its own regulating the behaviour of individual members at least in matters of consequence to the group".

Green et.al defined a group as an "aggregate of individual which persists in time, which has one or more interests and activities in common and which is organised".

In other words a group is formed when collection of people lead to a common GOAL.

Group Dynamics

In the most basic sense "Group Dynamics" refers to the complex forces that are acting upon every group throughout its existence which cause it to behave the way it does. The group will have a name for example, Nurse administrators. It would have its constitution - all the ward sisters, departmental sisters, assistant nursing superintendents and nursing director. It would have the ultimate purpose - to improve the patient care (as for the example given above). A group will also have dynamics - it is always moving, doing something, changing, interacting and reacting.

The interaction of these forces and their resultant effects on a given group constitute its dynamics.

Stages of Group Development

It is common to view the development of group as having four stages:

• Forming

• Storming

• Nonning

• Performing

Forming is the stage when the group first comes together. Everybody is very polite and very dull. Conflict is seldom voiced directly, mainly personal and definitely destructive. Since the grouping is new, the individuals will be guarded in their own opinions andgenerally reserved. 'This is particularly so in terms of the more nervous and/or-subordinate members who may never recover. The group tends to defer -to alarge .extent to those who emerge as leaders (poor fools!)."

Storming is the next stage, when "all Hell breaks loose" and the leaders are questioned. Factions form personalities clash, no-one concedes a single point without first fighting tooth and nail. Most importantly, very little communication occurs since no one is listening and some are still unwilling to talk openly. True, this battle ground may seem a little extreme for the groups to

which you belong - but if you .look beneath the veil of civility picture come more into focus.

Then comes the **Norming**. At this stage the sub-groups begin to recognize the merits of working together and the in-fighting subsides. Since a new spirit of cooperation is evident, every member begins to feel secure in expressing their own viewpoints and these are discussed openly with the whole group. The most significant improvement is that people start to listen to each other. Work methods become established and recognised by the group as a whole.

And finally **Performing:** This is the culmination, when the group has settled on a system which allows free and frank exchange of views and a high degree of support by the group for each other and its own decisions.

Basis of Group Formation
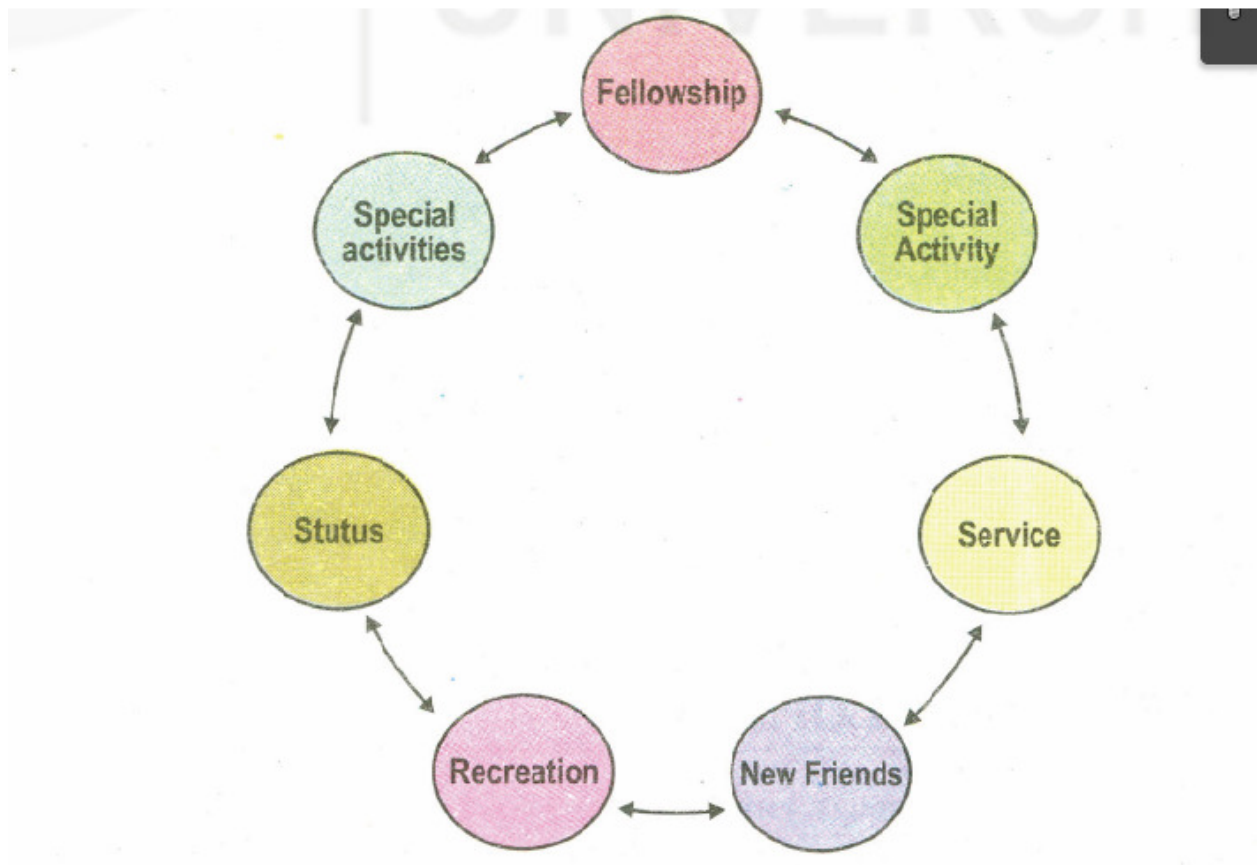
However, there are three general basis for group formation, Group Dynamics

> **Familistic** - Ties of kinship, also out of these ties which are considered as important, how large are such groups and what are their functions. How these groups differ from one society to another.

> **Spatial -** These groups are based upon persons having a common place or area from "our town" from "our country" "our profession".

> **Special Interest -** These groups are formed on the basis of special interest. Common recreation, music groups, religious prayer group. These groups are not based on kinship.

Reasons for Group Affiliation

The group are joined due to various reasons

❖ Some join a group to enhance their sta'us

❖ Other join because of value placed on service like joining a group on HlV/ AIDS counselling. The cause would be social

❖ Some join groups for contacts and financial gains

❖ Other join for personal gain motivation

❖ Some join because of tradition of family

❖ Some join because all their friends belong to the group and being a member of the group is a way to be with their friends

Classification of group

The groups can be classified into a number of ways and each individual may belong to many groups. The individual may be a member of a family, club, work group, world, state, country, community, village, political party, ethnic group or international organization.

Cooley has classified group into two:

Primary and Secondary Group

Primary Groups are characterized by intimate face-to-face association and cooperation. They are primary in several senses but chiefly they are fundamental in forming the social nature and ideas of the individual.

Secondary Groups are those in which the individuals are not in direct contact.

The members of secondary groups influence each other in an indirect manner and through the various agencies.

Groups are also formed according to the degree of organization:

Organised and Unorganised Group

In **organised groups** the members believe in cooperation, work as a unit and try to accommodate each other. They remain bound with specific discipline and so their moral level is usually high.

The **unorganised groups** are unstable and are formed without having any specific purpose and goal before them. The members of such group have no attraction for each other and do not work for the group as a whole, the crowd, the strikers, etc.

In Group and Outgoing

All the members of 'in group' are 'we group' have usually common ideals, morals and code of conduct. There is a fellow feeling among its members. Group may be primary or secondary. "Out Group" or "They Group" these groups are an association of persons toward whom we feel a sense of avoidance, dislike or opposition. Examples of out groups are the race, national or religion.

Small or Large Group

Small groups are formed on the basis of already existing groups are known as minor groups.

Large groups are the groups in which the individual becomes a member as soon as s/he is born, known as major groups. For example, a child becomes a member of his family, society and nation.

Accidental and Purposive Group

Accidental groups are those which are formed incidentally at the spur of the moment. For example, passengers sitting in a bus may form a group to catch hold of a pick pocketer. Once the person is handed over to the police the group may disintegrate.

Purposive Group is the one when a group is formed having a definite purpose i.e. religious groups, associations, political parties.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GROUP

- **Reciprocal relations -** the member of a group are interrelated to each other, a gathering of person forms a social group only when they are interrelated.
- **Sense of unity-** the member of a group are united by a sense of unity and a feeling of sympathy.
- **We feeling -** the members of a group help each other and define their interest collectively.
- **Common interest -** the interest and ideas of a group are common, it is for the realization of common interest that they meet together.
- **Similar behaviour -** the group of member behave in a similar way for the pursuit of common interest.
- **Group norms -** every group has its own norm or rules which the members are 'supposed to follow.
- **Group structure or formation of group structure -** when individuals with common motives interact with each others for a fairly long time, then a group structure will emerge.
- **Clarity or vagueness of social definitions of membership in the group -** groups differ widely in the degree of distinctness with which membership can be defined ranging from some informal groups within distinct boundaries which can only be identified through systematic inquiry to those with clear cut and formalized processes of admission to membership. The group may have clearly defined and easily recognized criteria of membership.
- **Degree of engagement of members in the group -** this properly refers to the scope and intensity of the involvement of members in the group.
- **Actual duration of membership in the group -** how long you have been member of the group.
- **Expected duration of membership in the group -** although these two properties can vary independently they are related and can be considered jointly, they refer respectively to the actual duration of membership in the group and to the patterned expectation of impending duration.
- **System of Normatic Controls:** This propriety refers to patterned processes of normative control which regulate the behaviour of members of the groups.

> **Background:** Each group has an historical background which influence its behaviour, past experience, values, etc.

> **Participation Pattern:** At any given moment every group has a particular participation pattern, for instance it may be all one way in which the leader is talking to the members or it may be two ways with the leader speaking to the members and the member responding to her/him.

FORCES AFFECTING GROUP DYNAMICS

The forces may be life history forces, forces based on psychological needs, associational forces, forces based on goals and ideologies. Malcolm and Knowle have discussed these forces affecting on the group dynamic as given in the following:

Past Experience Forces The individual's past experiences in life may strongly affect his behaviour because the attitudes, values, habits are developed a person's life from these experiences. The family also strongly influence the formation of behaviour of an individual, which in turn is exhibited in individual's dealing towards leaders, authorities and other group members.

Group Dynamics

Psychological Forces

Psychological needs are common to all human beings. These needs include need for security, need for belongingness, need for recognition of status, need for new experiences, etc. These needs are not of the same strength for all people. For example, on becoming a member of a new group, a person has a need for acceptance, security and recognition. In order to fulfil I these needs a person may be holding himself/herself back till he/she is accepted or choose an alternative by being over talkative in the process of seeking acceptance. This helps the group to be more tolerant in accepting other's behaviour and to react to them constructively and appropriately.

Associational Forces

Associational forces are certain invisible factors which influence the behaviour of an individual. These factors may be the geographical habitation, professional affiliation, family intluen~e, neighbourhood, religious belief and existing customs and traditions.

So every time an individual resounds to his environment, these forces pressurize him/her to act in a certain way. Hence, the individual acts accordingly, because s/he is guided by the feeling that he is being judged by these reference groups as per their laid down standards, values, goals and norms.

Goals and Ideology Forces

Forces from goals and ideologies are an individual's own goals, standards and values laid down by himself, based on individual's perception of self image and self ideal. These forces further grow with gradual influence of other factors in life. If a situation permits an individual to be himselflherself, hislher behaviour will be normal,' constructive and creative according to his/her capabilities. On the contrary, being under pressure and stress individual may fail to achieve what is desired and is likely to become a problematic person.

Effect of Forces on Individual Behaviour

The member of many groups in a hospital. Her individual behaviour has an effect on the efficacy of the group in which she may be a leader or a member. If a nurse has had a warm relationship with her parents, family members and friends, she will be warm and cooperative to her seniors, colleagues and patients. Due to the past experiences one tend to respond to similar situations in consistent ways. The personality tendencies (valencies) especially relevant to group behaviour include fight, flight, pairing and dependency. A nurse having valency to fight has hostile behaviour towards her patients, juniors, seniors and subordinates. Having strong valency of tlight, she always tends to avoid unpleasant or interactive situations. A nurse with valency for pairing expresses warmth and establishes measured and balanced relationship with her clients, subordinates, seniors, etc. On the other hand a nurse with valency for dependence, cannot take independent decisions in patient care and' always requires support and direction from others.

A nurse who understands the forces based on psychological needs can help a patient to adjust to his newly diagnosed illness in a better way by understanding his reaction to liness positively and constructively rather than with irritation and rejection.

Historical Perspective

The group has always been an important means for the accomplishment of human purposes. First in the family, then the clan, the tribe, the guild, the community and the state, groups have been used as instruments of government, work, fighting, worship, recreation, and education. Very early in this historical development men began to discover by trial and error that certain ways of doing things in groups worked better than others, and so a body of folk wisdom began to accumulate regarding the selection of leaders, the division of labor, procedures for making decisions, and other group techniques. It is natural that in an era of struggle against natural and human enemies the major concern was with assuring disciplined subserviability of group members to work together creatively and co-operatively.

One of the most influential lines of thought was developed by the French sociologists, Emile Durkheim, around the turn of the century. He became especially interested in the process of interaction and theorized that individual ideas are alerted in the process of "psyche-social synthesis" that goes on in groups, and that thus a group product emerges that cannot be explained in terms of individual mental processes.

The Field Theoretical Approach

The foundation for a "field theory" of group behavior was laid by Kurt Lewin, who came to the united States in 1932 as a visiting lecturer at Stanford and remained when the Nazi coup made his return to Berlin impossible. In 1935 Lewin and a dedicated group of graduate students initiated a series if classical studies of group behavior at the University of Iowa's Child Welfare Research Station. This group moved in the mid-forties to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology to form the Research Center for Group Dynamics. Within a year after Lewin's death in 1947 the Center moved again, this time to the University of Michigan. This Center has exerted a powerful influence on the study of group dynamics through its field theoretical approach.

Field theory, which has been so productive in physics, makes the assumption that a group at any point of time exists in a psychological field that operates not unlike an electromagnetic field in physics. This field consists of a number of forces (or variables) that are affecting the behavior of the group. The direction and relative strength of

these forces determine the direction and speed of movement of the group. It is the task of the social scientist to develop techniques of observation and measurement that will enable him to analyze these forces and state the laws governing their operation.

According to Lewin:

What is important in field theory is the way the analysis proceeds. Instead of picking out one or another isolated element within a situation, the importance of which cannot be judged without consideration of the situation as a whole, filed theory finds it advantageous, as a rule, to start with the characterization of the situation as a whole. After this first approximation, the various aspects and parts of the situation undergo a more and more specific and detailed analysis. It is obvious that such a method is the best safeguard against being misled by one or another element of the situation.

Lewin felt that it was especially important to make mathematical presentations of psychological situations so as to assure strictness of logic, power of analysis, and conceptual precision. Accordingly, his writings and those of his followers are liberally sprinkled with mathematical formulae and geometric figures.

The Factor Analysis Approach

Exemplified by the work of Raymond Cattell and his associates at the university of Illinois, this approach seeks to determine the major dimensions of groups by identifying their key elements. "That is to say," according to Cattell, "one would measure a large number of groups on a large number of attributes and determine a decidedly more limited number of independent dimensions by which any particular group in a given population of groups could be most economically and functionally defined" Cattell used the term "syntality" to define for the group what "personality" defines for the individual. He is especially concerned with the factors of energy, ability, and leadership.

The Formal Organization Approach

Concerned primarily with developing a satisfactory conception of organization and an understanding of the nature of leadership in formal organizations, this approach

dominated the research conducted over a period of years by the Ohio State University Leadership Studies staff headed by C. L. Shartle. Its techniques emphasizes observations of interactions in organizational systems and detailed descriptions of the formal organizational structure of the system.

The Sociometric Approach

Developed by the psychiatrist, J.L. Moreno, and his early associate, Helen Jennings, this approach focuses on the social aspects of group life, especially the emotional quality of the interpersonal relationships among group members. The method that lies at the heart of this approach is the sociometric test, in which the group members indicate which of the other group members they would choose or not choose as friends, partners, teammates, and the like, in particular situations. The development of the psychological structure of groups can be traced from data obtained from sociometric tests.

The Interaction Analysis Approach

Pioneered by Robert F. Bales and his colleagues at the Harvard University Social Relations Laboratory, this approach asserts that the overt behavior of individuals in interaciont with one another and their environment is the "ultimate stuff" of scientific study. Elaborate devices, including an electrically "interaction recorder," and laboratory rooms with one-way windows so that groups can be observed without disturbance, have been invented for measuring interaction in small groups.

The Psychoanalytic Approach

The emotional – primarily unconscious – elements in the group process and their effects on personality growth are stressed in this approach. Its method consists chiefly of the analysis of carefully recorded experiences and case records. This approach deals largely, although by no means exclusively, with therapeutic groups.

The Social Group Work Approach

This approach has traditionally consisted of the analysis of narrative records of group workers and the extracting of generalizations from series of case histories of

groups. Social group work has been primarily concerned with personality development through group experience, although not in a therapeutic setting. Group workers have tended to be more interested in practice than in research to action-research "to ascertain the influence of the leader's behavior and other conditions on the interaction within the group and on the personality development of its members." 7

The Modern Era

The 1960's and 1970's have been a period of great ferment, expansion, and controversy in the field of group dynamics. Several trends have seemed to characterize this era. One distinct characteristic is the diffusion of research activity among a widening spectrum of institutions and disciplines. In 1959 we were able to list less than a dozen university research centers producing the bulk of the research reports. By the 1970's behavioral scientists were investigating group phenomena in departments of psychology, sociology, education, social work, psychiatry, anthropology, business administration, and communications in scores of universities, as well as in corporations, government agencies, hospitals, mental health centers such as the Western Behavioral Sciences Institute in La Jolla, California.

Another major characteristic of the modern era is the explosive growth in the volume of technical literature. For example, in analyzing the frequency with which articles relevant to the study of small groups were published between 1900 and 1953, Hare found that the growth rate was from 1.5 items per year in the first decade to 1.3 items in the second decade, 11.2 in the third, 21.0 in the fourth, 31.2 in the five-year period between 1940 and 1944, 55.2 between 1945 and 1949, and 152 items per year in the four-year period between 1950 and 1953.8 A "Bibliography of Publications Relating to the Small Group" compiled by Raven in 1965 listed 3,137 articles and books,9 while the 1969 edition listed 5,156 items.10

A third characteristic of the modern era is the increasing attention being paid to the group dynamics movement and its offshoots by the popular mass media. We have personally seen articles-some of them sensationalized exposés, some of them serious attempts at interpretation- in *Newsweek, Time, Seventeen, Fortune, Playboy, The Wall Street Journal, The New York Times Magazine, Glamour,* and *Saturday Review.* No

doubt this is an incomplete list. There has been at least one full-length commercial movie portraying (caricaturing?) an encounter group and dozens of educational films. We have seen sensitivity training, or variations thereof, worked into a number of commercial television series and commercial, and National Educational Television had produced two series on the subject. Three books have reached, or come near, the best-seller lists: *Joy: Expanding Human Awareness* by William Schutz in 1967, Rasa Gustaitis' *Turning On* in 1969, and Jane Howard's *Please Touch* in 1970. We understand that human relations training has been both condemned by the John Birch Society and widely adopted in the leadership training manuals of many Christian denominations. Thanks to this attention from our popular sources of information, most Americans know that groups are "in" in our modern culture, although relatively few of them yet understand what this is all about.

A fourth characteristic of the last decade has been proliferation of uses of group techniques in education and training. Although group discussion has been a backbone technique of education since ancient times, the group dynamics movement spawned a wide variety of mutations of the species "group." Among the forms now appearing in the literature are : T-groups ("T" standing for "training"), encounter groups, marathon groups, sensitivity training, human relations laboratories, human potential centers, growth centers, gestalt therapy groups, sensory awareness groups, biodynamic, confluent education, micro labs, and organizational development programs. One or more of these forms of learning groups have been incorporated into the curriculums of many schools and colleges, the in-service education programs of government agencies and corporations, the leadership training programs of voluntary organizations, and the services of management consulting firms. Perhaps as many as two hundred privately operated "growth centers" have been established across the country (and the world) with group experiences that are open to the public for a fee. Group techniques are used extensively in mental health, drug addiction, and weight-control programs/ If the 1970 census had asked how many people had been exposed to at least one of the above forms of group experience, our prediction is that the tally would have exceeded a million.

Group Functions

Once a group is formed it starts functioning towards attainment of goal or set objective. There are certain factors that influence the group functioning:

Internal Factors:

1. **Status:** is socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others-permeates every society. High status members of groups often are given more freedom to deviate from norms than are other group members.

   *High status people tend to be more assertive. They speak out more often, criticise more, state more commands and interrupts others more often.

2. **Roles**: By this term, we mean a set of expected behaviour patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit.

   When individual is confronted by divergent role expectations, the result is role conflict so role clarity is very important when it comes to smooth and effecient group functioning.

3. **Norms**: are acceptable standards of behaviour within a group that are shared by group members. Norms acts a means of influencing the behaviour of group members with a minimum of external controls. Norms differ among groups, communities, and societies, but they all have them.

4. **Conformity:** is adjusting ones behaviour to align with the norms of the group. Group pressure leads to conformity which in turn affects individual s judgement and attitude. As a member of a group, one desire acceptance by the group. Because of desire for acceptance conforming to the group norms occurs.

5. **Size:** It affects group's behaviour. There are instances of smaller group being fast at completing tasks than large ones. But if a large group is involved in tasks like problem solving it will fare well better than small group.

6. **Cohesiveness:** Cohesiveness is the degree to which members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in group. For example some work groups are cohesive because members have spent a great deal of time together or group's small size facilitates high interaction.

External Factors that influences group functioning are Authority, structure (of group or organization), Organizational resources, organizational policies, etc.

GROUP COHESIVENESS

Groups differ in their cohesiveness that is the degree to which members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group. For instance some work groups are cohesive because the members have spent a great deal of time together, or group's small sizes facilitate high interaction, or the group has experienced external threats that have brought members close together.

Cohesiveness is important as it is linked to group's productivity.

Relationship between Group Cohesiveness and productivity can better be shown as:

HIGH   *LOW*

High productivity	Moderate productivity	*LOW*
Low productivity	Moderate to low productivity	*HIGH*

TEAMS

Many people used the words *team* and *group* interchangeably, but there are actually a number of differences between a team and a group in real world applications.

A number of leadership courses designed for the corporate world stress the importance of team building, not group building, for instance. A team's strength depends on the commonality of purpose and interconnectivity between individual members, whereas a group's strength may come from sheer volume or willingness to carry out a single leader's commands.

It is often much easier to form a group than a team. If you had a room filled with professional accountants, for example, they could be grouped according to gender, experience, fields of expertise, age, or other common factors. Forming a group based on a certain commonality is not particularly difficult, although the effectiveness of the groups may be variable. A group's interpersonal dynamics can range from complete compatibility to complete intolerance, which could make consensus building very difficult for a leader.

A team, on the other hand, can be much more difficult to form. Members of a team may be selected for their complementary skills, not a single commonality. A business team may consist of an accountant, a salesman, a company executive and a secretary, for example. Each member of the team has a purpose and a function within that team, so the overall success depends on a functional interpersonal dynamic. There is usually not as much room for conflict when working as a team.

The success of a group is often measured by its final results, not necessarily the process used to arrive at those results. A group may use equal parts discussion, argumentation and peer pressure to guide individual members towards a consensus. A trial jury would be a good example of a group in action, not a team. The foreperson plays the leadership role, attempting to turn 11 other opinions into one unanimous decision. Since the jury members usually don't know one another personally, there is rarely an effort to build a team dynamic. The decision process for a verdict is the result of group cooperation.

A team, by comparison, does not rely on "groupthink" to arrive at its conclusions. An accident investigation team would be a good example of a real world team dynamic. Each member of the team is assigned to evaluate one aspect of the accident. The team's expert on crash scene reconstruction does not have to consult with the team's expert on forensic evidence, for example. The members of a team use their individual abilities to arrive at a cohesive result. There may be a team member working as a facilitator for the process, but not necessarily a specific leader.

Difference between Team and Group

The purpose of assembling a <u>team</u> is to accomplish bigger goals than any that would be possible for the individual working alone. The aim and purpose of a team is to perform, get results and achieve victory in the workplace and marketplace. The very best managers are those who can gather together a group of individuals and mould them into a team. Here are ten key differentials to help you mould your people into a pro-active and productive team.

- **Understandings.** In a group, members think they are grouped together for administrative purposes only. Individuals sometimes cross purpose with others. In a team, members recognise their independence and understand both personal and team goals are best accomplished with mutual support. Time is not wasted struggling over "Turf" or attempting personal gain at the expense of others.

- **Ownership.** In a group, members tend to focus on themselves because they are not sufficiently involved in planning the unit's objectives. They approach their job simply as a hired hand. "Castle Building" is common. In a team, members feel a sense of ownership for their jobs and unit, because they are committed to <u>values</u>-based common goals that they helped establish.

- **Creativity and Contribution.** In a group, members are told what to do rather than being asked what the best approach would be. Suggestions and creativity are not encouraged. In a team, members contribute to the organisation's success by applying their unique talents, knowledge and <u>creativity</u> to team objectives.

- **Trust.** In a group, members distrust the motives of colleagues because they do not understand the role of other members. Expressions of opinion or disagreement are considered divisive or non-supportive. In a team, members work in a climate of <u>trust</u> and are encouraged to openly express ideas, opinions, disagreements and feelings. <u>Questions</u> are welcomed.

- **Common Understandings.** In a group, members are so cautious about what they say, that real understanding is not possible. Game playing may occur and communication traps be set to catch the unwary. In a team, members practice open and honest <u>communication</u>. They make an effort to understand each other's point of view.

- **Personal Development.** In a group, members receive good training but are limited in applying it to the job by the manager or other group members. In a team, members are encouraged to continually develop skills and apply what they learn on the job. They perceive they have the support of the team.

- **Conflict Resolution.** In a group, members find themselves in conflict situations they do not know how to resolve. Their supervisor/leader may put off intervention until serious damage is done, i.e. a crisis situation. In a team, members realise conflict is a normal aspect of human interaction but they view such situations as an opportunity for new ideas and creativity. They work to <u>resolve conflict</u> quickly and constructively

- **Participative Decision Making.** In a group, members may or may not participate in decisions affecting the team. Conformity often appears more important than positive results. Win/lose situations are common. In a team, members participate in decisions affecting the team but understand their leader must make a final ruling whenever the team cannot decide, or an emergency exists. Positive win/win results are the goal at all times.

- **Clear Leadership.** In a group, members tend to work in an unstructured environment with undetermined standards of performance. Leaders do not walk the talk and tend to lead from behind a desk. In a team, members work in a structured environment, they know what boundaries exist and who has final authority. The <u>leader</u> sets agreed high standards of performance and he/she is respected via active, willing participation.

- **Commitment.** In a group, members are uncommitted towards excellence and personal pride. Performance levels tend to be mediocre. Staff turnover is high because talented individuals quickly recognise that

  (a) Personal expectations are not being fulfilled

  (b) they are not learning and growing from others and

  (c) they are not working with the best people.

  In a team, only those committed to excellence are hired. Prospective team members are queuing at the door to be recruited on the basis of their high levels of hard and soft skill sets. Everyone works together in a harmonious environment

Team Building

Steps in team building:

According to Katzenbanch and smith real teamwork can be accomplished by following steps:

1. **Selection of members on the basis of skills:** Members should be selected on the basis of their potentials to improve existing skills and learn new ones. Three types of skills are usually required:

Technical skills

Problem solving and decision making

Interpersonal skills

The individual members of the team may poses these skills in varying degrees but it should be ensured that these skills are complimentary i.e. they should support the efforts of others in the group.

2. **Setting challenging goals:** The team must be assigned to accomplish goals which are above the goals of individual members.

3. **Developing rules of conduct:** Rules are important for effective results like:

Punctuality and regularity

Confidentiality

Speaking on the basis of facts

Constructive confrontation

4. Allocating right roles to right people: the principle of right man for the right job should be followed by the team. By matching the individual preferences with the team role demands, managers can increase the likelihood that team members will work well together.

5. Establish accountability: Individuals have to be accountable at both team andindividual level. It has to be very clear as to what is the person individually responsible for or else some members may try to take advantage of the group efforts as their individual efforts would not be identified.

6. Developing trust: mutuality, openness to each other and loyalty should exist for the team to work effectively.

7. Recognition and Reward system: Positive reinforcement can improve team efforts and commitment. Suitable rewards must be decided for the members as it can be a big motivating factor to them for giving in their best.

Understanding Individual Behavior

Understanding Individual Behavior

Groups are, first of all, collections of individuals. An understanding of the behavior of groups, therefore, has to start with an understanding of the behavior of individuals. Much of the research about group dynamics is concerned with gaining a better understanding of the causes and dynamics of individual behavior in groups, and students of group dynamics make abundant use of findings about individual behavior from related sciences, especially clinical psychology and psychiatry/

Where would a person who wants to understand the different kinds of variable forces that cause individuals to behave the way they do in groups start his inquiry? The starting point is to know what questions to ask and then to know where to go in the literature of social sciences to find answers. We'll try to provide a general study guide.

One set of questions that must be asked has to do with the effect of an individual's past experiences in life. The findings of psychoanalytic research are an especially rich source of answers in this line of inquiry. They suggest that the attitudes, values, and habits developed in the first group in a person's life-the family-may strongly influence his feelings and behavior toward other group members. He may

act out in a group the drama of his family life: he may be either submissive or rebellious to a parent-figure; either a rival or a companion to brothers and sisters, and he may feel most at home in either a warm and co-operative atmosphere or one that is cold and antagonistic. In other groups to which he has belonged during his lifetime he has also learned responses and behavior. If a certain pattern of behavior brought the desired results or was comfortable in previous groups, he will tend to repeat the pattern.

This area of research also indicates that one effect of past experience is the development of certain fairly stable tendencies to respond to similar situations in consistent ways. For example, out of the theoretical work by Bion and the further research by Stock and Thelen comes the notion that personality tendencies (termed "valencies") especially relevant to group behavior include "fight, flight, pairing, and dependency": tends to express hostility freely in the group; a strong valency for pairing indicates a tendency to express warmth freely and to wish to establish close relationships with others; a strong valency for dependency indicates a tendency to rely on others for support and direction; and a strong valency for flight indicates a tendency to avoid, in some way, the interactive situation. Every person possesses some valency, in varying degrees, for each of these emotional modalities. Such tendencies reside in the individual and form part of an habitual or stable approach to group interaction.1

Forces Based on Psychological Needs

Another type of forces to which much research has been directed is what is often depicted as universal needs. The biological needs, such as food, water, rest, activity, and sex, are widely acknowledged. Less well understood are psychological needs common to all human beings, which have been the targets of a good deal of research by psychologists and anthropologists. Although these needs are often given varying labels, they include such ideas as the need for security, the need for affection or response, the need for security, the need for affection, for belonging, for new experience, and so on. These needs are not of the same strength for all people, nor for one person at different points of time; each individual has his own unique patterns of needs at a given moment. Furthermore, there is a presumption that a given need may express itself in quite different types of behavior by different individuals or by the

same individual in different situations. For example, every individual on entering a new group has a need for security about what is expected of him. In one instance this need might result in withdrawal or holding back until the new member gets his bearings. In another instance the need for security might result in the opposite behavior of protective over talkativeness.

An important insight that comes from the study of psychological needs is that they are not appropriate subjects for moral judgment. It makes as much sense to blame a person for needing recognition as it does to blame him for being hungry when his stomach is empty. If his need for recognition is causing him to irritate the group by monopolizing the discussion or other attention-getting behavior, the fault is not in his needing recognition-we all need it-but in his not knowing how to get it in socially acceptable ways. This area of research does not suggest that laymen should go around making off-the-cuff diagnoses of other individuals' psychological needs. But by understanding that all behavior is caused, the way is opened for us to become more tolerant and accepting of other people's actions and thereby to react to them constructively rather than with irritation and rejection.

Associational Forces

Another set of forces influencing the individual's behavior is induced by what we might think of as his "invisible committees." Every person is associated with a multiplicity of population groupings, some by intent but many by not act of will. Some may be unorganized and vaguely defined-we are businessmen or workers, housewives or teachers, black or white, Protestants, Catholics, or Jews, Democrat, Republicans, or Independent. Others may be more definite and specific-our family, our neighborhood, the League of Women Voters, the YMCA, the First Methodist Church, the Centreville Chamber of Commerce, the United Steel Workers, and so on. In a sense, every time an individual starts to make a move several invisible committees representing these affiliations are sitting behind him putting pressure on him to act in certain ways-indeed, often in conflicting ways. And when he acts, it is with the feeling that whatever he does is being judged by these "reference groups" according to their purposes, standards, values, and goals.

Forces from Goals and Ideologies

Another set of forces influencing an individual's behavior is tending to pull him rather than push him. These forces are his own goals, his own standards and values, his own perceptions of reality, his own fears, his own conceptions of what he is and wants to be. Though these forces have grown out of all the other influences in his life, they have been given a unique shape in the way he has put them together. They are the magnets of his private would. And when the chips are down, they may well be the most influential factor of all in determining his behavior. Some research suggests that when in a situation permits a person to be himself-to act freely and with integrity-his behavior will be the most constructive and creative of which he is capable. It is when he is under goading pressure to be something other than what he is-to be alienated from himself-that he is likely to become a "problem personality." The writings of Erich Fromm and David Riesman are especially illuminating in this area of investigation.

Internal Processes

One early school of psychologists (the determinists) believed that an act of behavior was produced by the sum total of these forces at work on an individual at a given time-that in reality he had little control over what he did. But most psychologists now believe that these forces are processed through such components of an individual's personality as intelligence, personal values and standards, self-concept, habits, fears, and styles of coping, so that the behavior that ensues is in the direction of the individual's personal goals and beliefs.

Summary

This is, of course, an oversimplified picture of the personality dynamics of an individual. But it may serve as a provocation, if not an enticement, to dip more deeply into the scientific literature on individual behavior. You will want to explore at least two additional lines of inquiry: (1) What are the effects of the dynamic interplay of these forces on one another? (2) What is the role of the symbolic process-reasoning, planning, intending, imagining, thinking-in producing behavior? And you will no doubt want to look for other types of forces omitted from this brief overview.

To summarize, the types of forces at work on an individual as he enters a group that are depicted In the psychological literature might be pictured graphically somewhat like this:

UNDERSTANDING GROUP BEHAVIOR

A LEGITIMATE question to raise at this point is this: what happens when one individual, with his psychological field, gets together with other individuals with their unique psychological fields, gets together with other individuals with their unique psychological fields? How do they become a group with its own unitary psychological field?

What is a Group?

The writers in the field of group dynamics do not agree completely on what distinguishes those collections of individuals that are groups from those that are not. But most of their disagreements are in emphasis and terminology. In general, they agree that a collection of people is a group when it possesses these qualities:

1. Definable membership-a collection of two or more people identifiable by name or type.
2. Group consciousness-the members think of themselves as a group, have a "collective perception of unity," a conscious identification with each other.
3. A sense of shared purpose-the members have the same "object model" or goals or ideals.
4. Interdependence in satisfaction of needs-the members need the help of one another to accomplish the purposes for which they joined the group.
5. Interaction- the members communicate with one another, influence one another, react to one another.
6. Ability to act in a unitary manner- the group can behave as a single organism.

The essential differences between a collection of individuals that is a group and one that is not might be portrayed graphically like this:

In the collection that is not a group there are no shared goals-the goal arrows of the various individuals are pointing in different directions; there is no boundary around the collection, indicating a lack of consciousness as a group and indefinable

membership; there are no lines of interaction and interdependence connecting the individuals; and obviously the collection is unable to act in a unitary manner.

Some Properties of Groups

There is such a profusion of kinds of groups in our nation of joiner s that there appear to be few similarities among them. We can all name many groups to which we belong-the family, our social circle, the people we work with (and those special friends we go with on the coffee break), the infinite variety of committees we serve on at church, school, club, union, and in the community; and hopefully some study groups at the library, the Y, or the high school or college. In studying groups of all these types the researchers have identified certain properties or characteristics that all groups possess. These are the properties most commonly investigated and described:

1. Background. Each group has an historical background-or lack of it-which influences its behavior. A new group coming together for the first time may have no devote much of its early energy to getting acquainted with one another and with the group's task, as well as establishing ways of working together. On the other hand, a group that has met together often may be assumed to be better acquainted with what to expect from one another, what needs to be done, and how to do it. But it might also have developed habits that interfere with its efficiency, such as arguing, dividing into factions, or wasting time.

Members come into a meeting with some expectations about it. They may have a clear idea of what the meeting is about, or they may be hazy and puzzled about what is going to happen. They may be looking forward to the meeting or dreading it; they may feel deeply concerned or indifferent. In some cases the boundaries around the group's freedom of action may be narrowly defined by the conditions under which it was created, or so poorly defined that the group doesn't know what its boundaries are.

These are merely illustrations of some of the elements that make up a group's background:

How well were the members prepared to enter the group?

What are their expectations about the group and their role in it?

What is in the composition of the group-what kind of people, what is their previous experience, prior friendship patterns, and so on? How were they selected?

What arrangements have been made for their meeting-physical setting, resources, and the like?

2. Participation pattern. At any given moment every group has a particular participation pattern. For instance, it may be all one-way, with the leader talking to the members; or it may be two-way, with the leader speaking to the members and the members responding to him; or it may be multidirectional, with all members speaking to one another and to the group as a whole. In a given group this pattern may tend to be quite consistent, or it may vary from time to time. The studies do not indicate that any one participation pattern is always best; it depends upon the requirements of a given situation. But many studies show that, on the whole, the broader the participation among members of a group the deeper the interest and involvement will be.

Some questions you may ask about a group to understand its participation pattern are these?

How much of the talking is done by the leader, how much by the other members?

To whom are questions or comments usually addressed-the groups as a whole, the leader, or particular members?

Do the members who don't talk much seem to be interested and listening alertly (nonverbal participation), or are they bored and apathetic?

It is very easy, and often useful to a group, to chart the participation pattern during periodic segments of time, thus providing objective data about this aspect of its dynamics, like this:

3. Communication. This property has to do with how well group members are understanding one another-how clearly they are communicating their ideas, values, and feelings. If some members are using a highly specialized vocabulary they may be talking over the heads of the rest of the group. Sometimes a group will develop a specialized vocabulary of its own, a kind of verbal shorthand, or private jokes that aren't understood by new members and outsiders.

Even nonverbal communication can often be eloquent. A person's posture, facial expression, and gestures, tell a great deal about what he is thinking about and feeling.

Some questions that indicate the quality of a group's communication are these:

Are members expressing their ideas clearly?

Do members frequently pick up contributions previously made and build their own ideas on to them?

Do members feel free to ask for clarification when they don't understand a statement?

Are responses to statements frequently irrelevant?

4. Cohesion. The cohesiveness of a group is determined by the strength of attraction of the group for its members, and the interest of the members in what the group is doing. In the literature it is often referred to as the "we-feeling" of a group. Symptoms of low cohesion include sub rosa conversations between pairs of members outside the main flow of the group's discussion, the emergence of cliques, fractions, and such sub groupings as the "old timers" versus the "newcomers," the "conservatives" versus the "liberals," and so on.

Questions about the group's cohesion include:

How well is the group working together as a unit?

What subgroups or "lone wolves" are there and how do they affect the group?

What evidence is there of interest or lack of interest on the part of members or groups of members in what the group is doing?

Do members refer to the group as "my group," "our group," "your group," "their group," or "his group"?

5. Atmosphere. Although atmosphere is an intangible thing, it is usually fairly easy to sense. In the literature it is often referred to as the "social climate" of the group, with such characterizations as "warm, friendly, relaxed, informal, permissive, free," in contrast to "cold, hostile, tense, formal, restrained." Atmosphere affects how members feel about a group and the degree of spontaneity in their participation.

Atmosphere can be proved by such questions as these:

Would you describe this group as a warm or cool, friendly or hostile, relaxed or tense, informal or formal, permissive or controlled, free or inhibited?

Can opposing views or negative feelings be expressed without fear of punishment?

6. Standards, Every group tends to develop a code of ethics or set of standards about what is proper and acceptable behavior. Which subjects may be discussed, which are taboo; how openly members may express their feelings; propriety of volunteering one's services; the length and frequency of statements considered allowable; whether or not interrupting is permitted-all theses and many more "dos and don'ts" are embodied in a group's standards. It may be difficult for a new member to catch on to a group's

standards if they differ from those of other groups he has experienced, since these standards usually implicit rather than openly stated. Indeed, a group might be confused about what its standards actually are, and this may lead to much embarrassment, irritation, and lost momentum.

Questions about standards include:

What evidence is there that the group has a code of ethics regarding such matters as self-discipline, sense of responsibility, courtesy, tolerance of differences, freedom of expression, and the like?

Are there any marked deviations from these standards by one or more members? With What effect?

Do these standards seem to be well understood by all members, or is there confusion about them?

Which of the group's standards seem to help, and which seem to hinder the group's progress?

7. Sociometric Pattern. In every group the participants tend very soon to begin to identify certain individuals that they like more than other members, and others that they like less. These subtle relationships of friendship and antipathy-the sociometric patterns-have an important influence on the group's activities. There is some research which indicates that people tend to agree with people they like and to disagree with people they dislike, even though both sides express the same ideas.

Questions which help to reveal the sociometric pattern are these:

Which members tend to identify with and support one another?

Which members seem repeatedly at odds?

Do some members act as "triggers" to others, causing them to respond immediately after the first members' comments, either pro or con?

8. Structure and organization. Groups have both a visible and invisible organizational structure. The visible structure, which may be highly formal (officers, committees, appointed positions) or quite informal, makes it possible to achieve a division of labor among the members and get essential functions performed. The invisible structure consists of the behind-the-scenes arrangement of the members according to relative prestige, influence, power, seniority, ability, persuasiveness, and the like.

Questions to ask about structure include:

What kind of structure does this group create consciously-leadership positions, service positions committees, teams?

What is the invisible structure-who really controls, influences, volunteers, gets things done; who defers to others, follows?

Is the structure understood and accepted by the members?

Is it appropriate to the group's purpose and tasks?

9. Procedures. All groups need to use some procedures-ways of working-to get things done. In formal business meetings we are accustomed to the use of Robert's Rules of Order, a highly codified and explicit set of procedures. Informal groups usually use much less rigid procedures. The choice of procedures has a high direct effect on such other aspects of group life as atmosphere, participation pattern, and cohesion.

Psyche and Socio Dimensions

The sociometric study of groups has illuminated another aspect of their character which, in turn, produces further insight about their character which, in turn, produces further insight about their functioning. In this analysis it appears at first sight that there are two completely different kinds of groups. Some of them such as bridge circle, the coffee gang, and the like, are highly informal, with few rules or procedures and no stated goals. People belong to them for the emotional satisfaction they get from belonging; they like the others, they are all friends. They tend to think of these groups as their social groups, but in the literature these are often called psyche groups. Membership in the group is completely voluntary and tends to be homogeneous. The success of the psyche group is measured in terms of how enjoyable it is.

In other groups, however-committees, boards, staffs, and discussion groups-there are usually explicit goals and more or less formal rules and procedures. People tend to think of these groups, which exist to accomplish some task, as work or volunteer service groups. But in the language of social science they are socio groups. Their membership tends to be more heterogeneous-based on the resources required to do their work-and sometimes brought together out of compulsion or sense of duty more than out of free choice. The success of the socio group is measured in terms of how much work it gets done. As these dimensions have been studied more deeply it has become apparent that they do not describe different kinds of groups-few groups are purely psyche or socio-so much as different dimensions of all groups. Most groups

need the psyche dimension to provide emotional involvement, morale, interest, and loyalty; and the socio dimension to provide stability, purpose, direction, and a sense of accomplishment. Without the dimension of work (socio) members may become dissatisfied and feel guilty because they are not accomplishing anything; without the dimension of friendship (psyche) members may feel that the group is cold, unfriendly, and not pleasant to be with. These dimensions of group life are dealt with most specifically in the writings of Helen Jennings.

Membership and Leadership Functions

Another aspect of group life that is crucial in understanding a group's behavior, diagnosing its problems, and improving its operation, is the way in which various required functions are performed. Kenneth Benne and Paul Sheats developed the following widely used classification of these functions: (1) group-building and maintenance roles-those which contribute to building relationships and cohesiveness among the membership (the psyche dimension), and (2) group task roles-those which help the group to do its work (the socio dimension). The first set of functions is required for the group to maintain itself as a group; the second set, for the locomotion of the group toward its goals.

For example, some group-building functions are these:

Encouraging-being friendly, warm, responsive to others, praising others and their ideas, agreeing with and accepting the contribution of others.

Mediating-harmonizing, conciliating difference in points of view, making compromises Gate keeping-trying to make it possible for another member to make a contribution by saying, "We haven't heard from Jim yet," or suggesting limited talking time for everyone so that all will have a chance to be heard.

Standard setting-expressing standards for the group to use in choosing its subject matter or procedures, rules of conduct, ethical values.

Following-going alone with the group, somewhat passively accepting the ideas of others, serving as an audience during group discussion, being a good listener.

Relieving tension-draining off negative feeling by jesting or throwing oil on troubled water, diverting attention from unpleasant to pleasant matters.

And the following are some task functions:

Initiating-suggesting new ideas or a changed way of looking at group problem or goal, proposing new activities.

Information seeking-asking for relevant facts or authoritative information.

Information giving-providing relevant facts or authoritative information or relating personal experience pertinently to the group task.

Opinion giving-stating a pertinent belief or opinion about something the group is considering.

Clarifying-probing for meaning and understanding, restating something the group is considering.

Elaborating-building on a previous comment, enlarging on it, giving examples.

Co-coordinating-showing or clarifying the relationships among various ideas, trying to pull ideas and suggestions together.

Orienting-defining the progress of the discussion in terms of the group's goals, raising questions about the direction the discussion is taking

Testing-checking with the group to see if it is ready to make a decision or to take some action.

Summarizing-reviewing the content of past discussion.

These functions are not needed equally at all times by a group. Indeed, if a given function is performed inappropriately it may interfere with the group's operation-as when some jester relieves group tension just when the tension is about to result in some real action. But often when a group is not getting along as it should, a diagnosis of the problem will probably indicate that nobody is performing one of the functions listed above that is needed at that moment to move the group ahead. It seems to be true, also, that some people are more comfortable or proficient in performing one kind of function rather another, so that they tend to play the same role in every group to which they belong. There is danger, however, in over stereotyping an individual as a "mediator" or "opinion giver" or any other particular function, for people can learn to perform various functions that are needed when they become aware of them.

Often in groups one can observe behavior that does not seem to fit any of these categories. This is likely to be self-centered behavior, sometimes referred to in the literature as a "nonfunctional role." This is behavior that does not contribute to the group, but only satisfies personal needs. Examples of this category are as follows:

Blocking-interfering with the progress of the group by going of a tangent, citing personal experiences unrelated to the group's problem, arguing too much on a point the rest of the group has resolved, rejecting ideas without consideration, preventing a vote.

Aggression-criticizing or blaming others, showing hostility toward the group or some individual without relation to what has happened in the group, attacking the motives of others, deflating the ego or status of others.

Seeking recognition-attempting to call attention to one's self by excessive talking, extreme ideas, boasting, boisterousness.

Special pleading-introducing or supporting ideas related to one's own pet concerns or philosophies beyond reason, attempting to speak for "the grass roots," "the housewife," "the common man," and so on.

Withdrawing-acting indifferent or passive, resorting to excessive formality, doodling, whispering to others.

Dominating-trying to assert authority in manipulating the group or certain members of it by "pulling rank," giving directions authoritatively, interrupting contributions of others.

The appearance of these behaviors in groups tends to be irritating to other members, and they tend to react to them with blame, reproach, or counter hostility. A group that understands group dynamics is often able to deal with them constructively, however, because it sees them as symptoms of deeper causes, such as valid personal needs that are not being satisfied constructively. Often, of course, it is difficult to place a given act in one or another of these categories-what seems to be "blocking" to one observer may appear as "testing" to another.

The Role of Leadership

In this analysis of functions necessary to the performance of groups no distinction has been made between the functions of leaders and the functions of members. This is because the research fails ot identify any set of functions that is universally the peculiar responsibility of the designed leader. But the fact is that groups in our society typically have central figures with such titles as "leader," "chairman," "president," and "captain." Ross and Hendry examine various theories

that try to explain this institutionalization of the role of leader and, after assessing them as inadequate, give this view as to the current state of thinking:

Perhaps the best we can say at this point is that any comprehensive theory of leadership must take into account the fact that the leadership role is probably related to personality factors, to the attitudes and needs of "followers" at a particular time, to the structure of the group, and to the situation....Leadership is probably a function of the interaction of such variables, and these undoubtedly provide for role differentiation which leads to the designation of a "central figure" or leader, without prohibiting other members in the group from performing leadership functions in various ways, and at various times, in the life of the group.

A classic series of experiments often quoted in the literature of group dynamics bears on leadership style. The experiments were conducted by Ronald Lippitt and Ralph White in the research program headed by Kurt Lewin at the University of Iowa in the 1930's. Their purpose was to measure as precisely as possible the effects of different types of leader behavior on a number of experimentally created groups of boys. The three types of leader behavior tested were "authoritarian" (policy determined by the leader), "democratic" (all policies a matter of group discussion and decision, encouraged and assisted by the leader), and "laissez-faire" (complete freedom for group or individual decision, with a minimum of leader participation). Their studies produced evidence for the following generalizations.

1. Authoritarian-led groups produced a greater quantity of work over a short period of time, but experienced of work over a short period of time, but experienced more hostility, competition, and aggression-especially scape goating, more discontent beneath the surface, more dependence, and less originality.

2. Democratically led groups, slower in getting into production, were more strongly motivated, became increasingly productive with time and learning, experienced more friendliness and teamwork, praised one another more friendliness and team work, praised one another more frequently, and expressed greater satisfaction.

3. Laissez-faire groups did less work and poorer work than either of the others, spent more time in horseplay, talked more about what they should be doing,

experienced more aggression than democratic groups but less then the authoritarian, and expressed a preference for democratic leadership.

A mounting body of research on the leadership role since World War II, especially that sponsored by the Office of Naval Research,3 supports the thesis that some situations require authoritarian and others laissez-faire leadership, but that in the long run in normal situations groups thrive best when the leadership functions are democratically shared among the members of the group.

Groups in Motion

So far we have been looking at the complicated elements or variables that make up a group-its properties, dimensions, and membership and leadership functions-almost as if a group stood still in time and space. Actually, a group is never static; it is a dynamic organism, constantly in motion. Not only is it moving as a unit, but the various elements within it are constantly interacting. A change in procedure will affect atmosphere, which will affect the participation pattern, which will affect the participation pattern, which will affect cohesion, which will affect leader ship, which will affect procedure, and so on. Actually, most of the research has to do with the dynamic interaction of these variables in groups in motion.

There seems to be fairly general agreement among the students of group dynamics that groups move through more or less predictable phases of development during their life cycle. A number of theories about what these phases are have been proposed, as summarized, page 61. Notice while each theory focuses on a different theme, they all indicate quite similar phenomena occurring in the early, middle, and later phases of group development.

Some general Principles

The study if group dynamics is beginning to produce some generalizations or laws of cause and effect that make it increasingly possible to understand, predict, and improve group behavior. It would be impossible even to try to summarize the body of findings or "working hypotheses" that have accumulated from the research to date in a small book. You might be interested, however, in a sample of general principles that seem to be emerging.

In this spirit we list below some of the principles that have been most helpful in understanding group behavior:

1. A group tends to be attractive to an individual and to command his loyalty to extent that:

    a. It satisfies his needs and helps him achieve goals that are compelling to him.

    b. It provides him with a feeling of acceptance and security.

    c. Its membership is congenial to him.

    d. It is highly valued by outsiders.

2. Each person tends to feel committed to a decision or goal to the extent that he has participated in determining it.

3. A group is an effective instrument for change and growth in individuals to the extent that:

    a. Those who are to be changed and those who are exert influence for change have a strong sense of belonging to the same group.

    b. The attraction of the group is greater than discomfort of the change.

    c. The members of the group share the perception that change is needed.

    d. Information relating to the need for change, plans for change, and consequences of change is shared by all relevant people.

    e. The group provides an opportunity for the individual to practice changed behavior without threat or punishment.

    f. The individual is provided a means for measuring progress toward the change of goals.

4. Every force tends to induce an equal and opposite counterforce. (Thus, the preferred strategy for change, other things being equal, is the weakening of forces resisting change rather than the addition of new positive forces toward change. For instance, if a group is in a factory is resisting a new work procedure, it may be because they don't understand how it will work, in which case a demonstration or trial experience will be superior to exhortation or pressure.)

5. Every group is able to improve its ability to operate as a group to the extent that it consciously examines its processes and their consequences and experiments with improved processes. (In the literature this is referred to as the "feedback mechanism," a concept similar to that used in guided missiles, which correct any deviations from

their course while in flight on the basis of data collected by sensitive instruments and fed back into their control mechanism.)

6. The better an individual understands the forces influencing his own behavior and that of a group, the better he will be able to contribute constructively to the group and at the same time to preserve his own integrity against subtle pressures toward conformity and alienation.

7. The strength of pressure to conform is determined by the following factors:

a. The strength of the attraction a group has for the individual.

b. The importance to the individual of the issue on which conformity of the group toward requiring conformity.

c. The degree of unanimity of group toward requiring conformity.

8. The determinants of group effectiveness include:

a. The extent to which a clear goal is present.

b. The degree to which the group goal mobilizes energies of group members behind group activities.

c. The degree to which there is agreement or conflict among members concerning which one of several possible goals should control the activities of the group.

d. The degree to which there is agreement or conflict among the members concerning means that the group should use to reach its goal.

e. The degree to which the activities of different members are co-ordinate in a manner required by the group's tasks.

f. The availability to the group of needed resources, whether they be economic, material, legal, intellectual, or other.

g. The degree to which the group is organized appropriately for its task.

h. The degree to which the processes it uses are appropriate to its task and stage of development.

CONTEMPORARY RESEARCH IN GROUP BEHAVIOR

As interests in group dynamics has burgeoned, so too has the research attempting to discover precisely what these dynamics are. The contemporary research literature seems to focus on three lines of inquiry: (1) the study of group variables and their effect on group and individual change; (2) the study of group and individual change; (2) the study of group and individual change as a result of group experience; and (3) the study of process of group development. Let us explore the directions in which the researchers' curiosity has led them, citing some examples of typical studies as we go.