

**IMPLICATIONS OF GROUP DYNAMICS FOR TEACHING  
IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL**

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To the Graduate Council:

We are submitting herewith a thesis written by Leona D. Lipscomb entitled "Implications of Group Dynamics for Teaching in the Secondary School." We recommend that it be accepted for six quarter hours' credit in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts with a major in education and a minor in English.

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IMPLICATIONS OF GROUP DYNAMICS FOR TEACHING  
IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

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## CHAPTER I

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As teachers work in the schools of today, they are more and more conscious of the need for group work. This is necessary because of the different achievement levels of the children and the necessity for the improvement of human relations in the classroom. Schools were created to serve the American people. They can serve best by promoting democratic living.

These factors together with society's demand for superior group workers make it necessary that teachers know and use the skills that are eminent in group dynamics. Thus out of this background comes the motivation for this study.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the implications of group dynamics for teaching in the secondary school. To accomplish this purpose, it seems necessary to investigate three separate problems. They are:

1. To review and analyze the literature that is related to group dynamics.
2. To determine the underlying point of view or philosophy of group dynamics.



3. To identify and suggest techniques and practices in group dynamics that have value for teachers in the secondary school.

### Basic Assumptions

In this study the writer is using the following basic assumptions:

1. That group dynamics has implications for teaching in the secondary school.
2. That scientific research in group dynamics provides a body of dependable knowledge for investigation.
3. That knowledge of the forces underlying group life needs to be developed and the results made available to people who can use this knowledge.
4. That a more effective educational program can be developed in the accumulated knowledge of group dynamics.
5. That the principles of group dynamics are undergirded with the democratic ideals of our society.
6. That the principles of planning and cooperative action give direction to the use of group dynamics.
7. That psychology, science and the social studies have made a contribution to group dynamics.
8. That techniques and practices in group dynamics can be identified and used by teachers in the secondary school.

### Limitation of the Study

1. This study is limited to the implications of group dynamics for teaching in the secondary school.
2. This study does not consider the role of group dynamics in school administration.
3. Although there is a relation of group dynamics to curriculum development, it is not pointed out in this investigation.
4. This study is limited to the major research studies and the literature that have contributed to an integrated conception of group dynamics.

### Definitions of Terms

Group dynamics refers to the study of what happens when human beings work in groups. It is concerned with discovering the extent to which human beings behave differently when they are members of groups than when they are alone; the factors that promote group productivity; and the techniques that are effective in group discussion, planning, and evaluating. It is concerned with helping individuals to understand what is happening in the group, to assume their responsibilities as group members, and to learn the techniques of group leadership.<sup>1</sup>

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1. William Burk Ragan, Modern Elementary Curriculum, p. 170. New York: The Dryden Press, 1953.



Action research. Efforts to translate educational theory into action in practical school situations.<sup>2</sup>

A group is a collection of organisms in which the existence of all (in their given relationships) is necessary to the satisfaction of certain individual needs in each.<sup>3</sup>

Group cohesiveness is defined as the total field of force acting on members to remain in the group.<sup>4</sup>

Group decision is a process of social management or self management of groups.<sup>5</sup>

Group productivity is described as the amount and quality of relics--e.g., manufactured goods, recordable decisions, or actions taken--over a given period of time.<sup>6</sup>

Rapport implies the establishment and maintenance of harmonious interpersonal relationships within a group that

2. Lindley J. Stiles and Mattie F. Dorsey, Democratic Teaching in Secondary Schools, p. 329. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1950.

3. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, Group Dynamics, p. 20. Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson and Company, 1953.

4. Ibid.

5. Ibid., p. 300.

6. Kenneth D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyan, Human Relations in Curriculum Change, p. 93. New York: The Dryden Press, 1951.

are characterized by respect, mutual confidence, understanding, and a sense of interdependence.<sup>7</sup>

Social perception is an awareness of the social relationships within a group.

Communication is the process by which human beings can to a degree know what another thinks, feels or believes. It is the key to human relatedness.<sup>8</sup>

Techniques are processes, manipulations, or procedures required in any study, activity, or production.<sup>9</sup>

#### Procedures Used in the Study

After the problem was stated and the sub-problems were isolated, procedures were considered through which the data that would be needed could be gathered and handled. The procedures presented here were selected because they seemed to offer effective ways of gathering and handling the data in this study.

1. The information was collected on five by eight cards. As it was collected, the source, the publisher and the page number of the data were carefully indicated.

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7. Carter V. Good, Dictionary of Education, p. 327. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945.

8. Earl C. Kelley, Education and the Nature of Man, p. 78. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952.

9. Good, op. cit., p. 413.



2. After the data was surveyed, the cards were classified on the basis of related information.

3. An intensive study was made of the data, and generalizations were drawn.

### Organization of the Study

The remainder of this study is organized as follows:

- Chapter II. Review of the Literature
- Chapter III. Philosophy or Point of View
- Chapter IV. Techniques and Practices in Group Dynamics
- Chapter V. Summary and Conclusions
- Bibliography
- Appendix

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Introduction

To achieve the purpose of this study it seems necessary to review the literature that is related to this investigation. The literature about groups goes back to the distant past. Careful research, however, has been known for only about a quarter of a century. Today there is widespread recognition that facts about the dynamics of groups can be established through the careful use of methods of observation, measurement, and experimentation. The use of such methods to provide a knowledge about groups has increased rapidly within very recent years.

Perhaps the most important reason for this development is the acceptance of two beliefs--that the health of a democratic society depends upon the effectiveness of its groups and that the scientific method can be used in the task of improving group life. Consistent with this point of view is the following statement:

A democratic society derives its strength from the effective functioning of the multitude of groups which it contains. Its most valuable resources are the groups of people found in its homes, communities, schools, churches, business concerns and various branches of government. Now, more than ever before, it is recognized that these smaller



units must perform their functions well if the larger system is to work successfully.<sup>1</sup>

The first progress in research in the field of group dynamics was made by social scientists who developed research techniques that were applicable to group life. Later the efforts of investigators were concerned with the functioning of groups.

Of great importance were the demonstration that group situations could be created experimentally in a laboratory and the invention of "action research" with its emphasis upon the possibility of conducting experiments in natural groups.

Essentially, the term group dynamics describes an area of study and research in the social sciences. Even though the same type of precise, controlled experimentation may not be possible in group dynamics as in the pure sciences, the general pattern of inquiry may be used with productive results.<sup>2</sup>

The conclusions and interpretations of the research are scattered throughout a variety of publications and in several professional fields. No statement is available which summarizes the results of these various investigations, nor is there a collection of the more significant articles which

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1. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, Group Dynamics, p. ix. Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson Company, 1953.

2. David H. Jenkins, "What Is Group Dynamics?" Reprint from Adult Education Journal (April, 1950), 55.

describes the methods and findings of research in group dynamics.<sup>3</sup> Such a summation is needed by students, teachers, and people who have the responsibility of working with groups.

To accomplish the purpose of this investigation, therefore, it seems necessary to include in this chapter a review of the group dynamics movement. From such a survey there should develop a better understanding of the nature of the research in this area, and of the scope and importance of the movement.

It is also the purpose of the writer to present in this chapter a digest of some of the more important scientific studies and authoritative opinions on group dynamics. This data is presented to lend support to the statements made throughout this study.

To give coherence to a review of the literature certain areas have been designated in which the specific research studies may be listed. It is believed that these areas comprise the most strategic research areas in the field of group dynamics. The areas are:

- (1) Group Productivity
- (2) Communication and Spread of Influence
- (3) Social Perception
- (4) Intergroup Relations

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3. Dorwin Cartwright, The Research Center for Group Dynamics, pp. 5-7. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, 1950.



- (5) Group Membership and Individual Adjustment
- (6) Training Leaders and Improving Group Functioning<sup>4</sup>

### Background of the Group Dynamics Movement

Pioneer research in the area of group dynamics in the United States was conducted at the University of Iowa under the direction of Kurt Lewin, the father of the group dynamics movement.<sup>5</sup> These studies are generally referred to as the Iowa Social Climate Studies.

Later under the leadership of Lewin the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Research Center for Group Dynamics was established. Experimentation was expanded here to industrial, governmental, business, community and other types of group activity.<sup>6</sup>

These efforts of research into the problems of human relationships were encouraged and aided by the Adult Education Division of the National Education Association. In 1946, the Research Center for Group Dynamics, the Connecticut

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4. Ibid., pp. 10-17.

5. Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates'," Journal of Social Psychology, 10 (May, 1939), 271-279.

6. Journal of Social Issues, 1 (August, 1945). As found in Lindley J. Stiles and Mattie F. Dorsey, Democratic Teaching in Secondary Schools, p. 372. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1950.

State Interracial Commission, and the National Education Association were joint sponsors of a training center for community leaders.<sup>7</sup>

National training laboratory in group development.--

Growing out of the Connecticut experiment, the First National Training Laboratory in Group Development was held in the summer of 1947, in Bethel, Maine, under the joint sponsorship of the Research Center for Group Dynamics and the National Education Association. The following colleges and universities were cooperating sponsors: The University of California, the University of Michigan, the University of Maine, Cornell University, Springfield College, and the Teachers College of Columbia University. Assistance was received also from the Carnegie Corporation.<sup>8</sup>

To this laboratory, and the second one that followed in 1948,<sup>9</sup> came representatives from various fields of activity--government, labor, community work, industry, adult education, social work, military service, higher and secondary education. A staff of skilled group leaders and trained

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7. Ronald Lippitt, Training in Community Relations, A Research Exploration Toward New Group Skills. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. As found in Stiles and Dorsey, loc.cit.

8. Report of the First Summer Laboratory Session, National Training Laboratory in Group Development, Bethel, Maine. As found in Cartwright, op. cit., p. 9.

9. Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session, National Training Laboratory in Group Development, Bethel, Maine. As found in Cartwright, op. cit., p. 10.



social research workers made an experimental effort to discover techniques and procedures for improving human relations, increasing group maturity, inducing social change and relating social theory and research to practice.

Other laboratory experiments.--The Research Center for Group Dynamics, in cooperation with the Adult Education Division of the National Education Association helped sponsor research in group dynamics at two national meetings of the National Education Association.<sup>10</sup> The first of two such meetings was held in Chicago in 1947; the second in Cincinnati in 1948.

A similar study was conducted during the national meeting of the Adult Education Division of the National Education Association, 1948, at Purdue University.<sup>11</sup>

Action research in community dynamics.--Increasingly, research in group dynamics is being conducted by individuals and institutions other than those connected directly with the Research Center for Group Dynamics and the National Training Laboratory in Group Development.

In 1947, a program of community study was conducted at Earlham College in Richmond, Virginia. The purpose of

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10. Report of Second Annual Meeting of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1947. As found in Dorsey and Stiles, op. cit., p. 373.

11. Kenneth D. Benne and Leland P. Bradford, "The Annual Conference of the Department of Adult Education," Adult Education Bulletin, 13 (December, 1948), 228-234.

this study was to help students acquire skills in solving the problems of communities in which they live.

In contrast to the experiments conducted by the National Training Laboratory in Group Development, in which people from many localities were brought together in an artificial laboratory situation, the Earlham Studies were conducted in real communities and were related to existing problems.<sup>12</sup>

Research center for group dynamics at the University of Michigan.--In July, 1948, the Research Center for Group Dynamics was moved from its original location at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology to the University of Michigan. Despite the loss of its founder and the subsequent disruptions, the Center has conducted a full program of research, teaching, consultation on social action, and training of social leaders.

At the University of Michigan, the graduate training program in group dynamics is part of a complete curriculum in social psychology arranged through the cooperation of the departments of psychology and sociology. Close relations are also maintained with the professional schools of education

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12. William V. Biddle, Community Studies and Dynamics (First Annual Report). Richmond, Indiana: Earlham College, October, 1948, p. 20. As found in Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 373.



and business administration, where members of the Center staff participate in the teaching program.<sup>13</sup>

International relations.--Conversations and correspondence initiated in 1946, with members of the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations of London, England, revealed that the problems of this institution were similar to those of the Research Center for Group Dynamics.<sup>14</sup>

Plans were formulated to establish a journal that would publish contributions dealing with human relations. The new journal, Human Relations, first appeared in 1947, and despite many initial difficulties of international distribution during the postwar period, it has become well established with contributions and readers throughout the world.<sup>15</sup>

Partly as a result of stimulation from Human Relations considerable interest developed in England and on the continent in an intensive seminar in which members of the staff of the Center met with leading European social scientists in order to discuss research problems. In the summer of 1949, the Tavistock Institute acted as host and contributed financially to an International Seminar in Group Dynamics.<sup>16</sup>

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13. Cartwright, op. cit., p. 5.

14. Ibid., p. 20.

15. Ibid., p. 21.

16. Ibid., p. 21.

Cooperation of the center with other organizations.--

It will be possible to list here only some of the types of organizations with which the Center has worked: agencies of the Federal Government, an agency of the United Nations, branches of municipal government such as the police department and the department of education, business organizations, labor unions, hospitals, organizations devoted to the reduction of interracial and intercultural conflicts, national youth-serving organizations, religious groups, community councils, community volunteer groups, student groups, and professional societies in public school education, adult education, public health, management, and public administration.<sup>17</sup>

These associations have enriched the research of the Center by keeping before them practical and concrete problems of group life.

Financial support of the research center for group dynamics.--The principal source of funds for the Center is research contracts with agencies of the Federal Government. The largest amounts have been derived from annual contracts with the Office of Naval Research, the National Institute of Mental Health, and the United States Air Force. Foundations (Field, Rockefeller, and Carnegie) have provided the next

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17. Ibid., p. 22.



largest amount of support. These amounts are augmented by financial contributions from the University of Michigan.<sup>18</sup>

Leaders in group dynamics today.--Some outstanding leaders in group dynamics today are: Kenneth D. Benne, Teachers' College, Columbia University; Leland P. Bradford, National Education Association; John R. P. French, Jr., Research Center for Group Dynamics; Ronald Lippitt, Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan; Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, University of Michigan.<sup>19</sup>

Current developments in group dynamics.--Today, the National Training Laboratory in Group Development at Bethel, Maine, carries on the work that was inaugurated by Kurt Lewin. Every summer delegates from active work in business, teaching, labor, the armed services, and social work meet at Bethel for a three-week period of training and research in the processes of group functioning, consultation, leadership, and training in human relations skills.

This enterprise is called a laboratory, rather than a school or workshop, because it serves both research and training purposes. The training method consists partly of having groups analyze and experiment with their own group processes so that its members may become more sensitive to

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18. "Two Lessons in Group Dynamics," Educational Trend, p. 8. Washington, D. C.: Arthur Croft Publication, 1950.

19. Ibid., p. 6.

the forces determining group life and more skilled in techniques for improving group functioning.<sup>20</sup>

### Group Productivity

Group dynamics is the force or power that underlies group productivity. Leland P. Bradford, Kenneth D. Benne, and Ronald Lippitt give emphasis to this concept of group dynamics in the following statement:

Study of group dynamics leads to understanding cause and effect of forces operating in a group and to helping the group<sup>21</sup> become sensitive to its problems and competent to solve them.

Herbert A. Thelen gives the following definition of group productivity in his discussion of the "Theory of Group Dynamics."

The productivity of a group is described as the factor amount and quality of relics--e.g., manufactured goods, recordable decisions, or actions taken--over a given period of time.<sup>22</sup>

David H. Jenkins believes that maximum productivity can be achieved by a group only if members of the group learn to respond to one another, not in terms of friendliness and personal liking, but rather in terms of the ability of the

20. Cartwright, op. cit., p. 23.

21. Leland P. Bradford, Kenneth D. Benne, and Ronald Lippitt, "The Promise of Group Dynamics for Education, "NEA Journal, 37 (September, 1948), 350-351.

22. Herbert A. Thelen, "Engineering Research in Curriculum Building," Journal of Educational Research, 8 (April, 1948), 579-596.



members to contribute to the objectives of the group.

Jenkins believes that group members, therefore, should:

1. Acquire a sense of responsibility for the efficiency and productivity of their group.

2. Discriminate between the productivity and the attractiveness of other members of the group.

3. Recognize that the working relationship of the member to other members should be based on productivity and ability to contribute to the group, rather than on friendship.<sup>23</sup>

Several recent studies show that when a condition of rapport is present within a group its members increase their effort and productivity. This was found to be true in the experiment conducted in the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company over an eighteen-year period. An attempt was made to discover what factors worked for or against high productivity in workers. Throughout the experiment the factor of social organization was constantly encountered. Interrelations among the workers were rarely planned or formally organized.<sup>24</sup> Changes in social and psychological organizations played an important part in deciding how much work a person did and how satisfied he was to do it. If spontaneous social organization arises from the relations of workers in

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23. David H. Jenkins, "Feedback and Group Self Evaluation," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. IV, No. 2 (Spring, 1948), 66.

24. F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, Management and the Worker, p. 615. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1940. As found in Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 272.

industry, it would seem that social organization among teachers in a school and students in the classroom would develop as naturally.

In 1946 the United States State Department appointed a small committee to suggest an outline for American policy on atomic energy. So incisive were its conclusions and suggestions that the report became the basis of the entire American atomic energy policy. David Lilienthal, former TVA chairman, describes the work of the committee in this way:

Before we studied the problem of atomic energy, we studied committee techniques.... We agreed that all questions coming up were to be considered as being brought up by the group as a whole rather than by any single member. If a member had an objection to any point, it was to be regarded as something that troubled the group as a whole. Occasionally discussions would break down because we found it difficult to get used to the science of joint thinking. Little by little, our preconceived ideas dropped out; the clash of personalities became less and less apparent.<sup>25</sup>

The atomic energy committee made use of the principles uncovered by the science of group dynamics. Research into group growth shows that we no longer need to leave to chance the group processes. Groups may be helped to grow rapidly to maturity. Something can be done to make groups more productive, to help them channel desirable conflict toward greater production, rather than be disrupted by internal conflicts.

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25. "Two Lessons in Group Dynamics," op. cit., pp. 3-4.



Group decision is related to one of the fundamental problems of action research, namely how to improve group productivity. One of the most important studies in the field, Group Decision and Social Change, was conducted by Kurt Lewin. In this experiment he analyzed and compared two methods of influencing group conduct--the lecture and group decision.

Three groups of women Red Cross volunteers were organized for a course in home nursing. The objective was to increase the use of seldom used meats. In three of the groups attractive lectures were given which linked the problem of nutrition with the war effort and gave detailed explanations with charts.

For the other three groups Alex Bovelas developed a procedure for group decision. Again the problem of nutrition was linked to the war and general health. A discussion was started to see whether housewives could be induced to participate in a program of change without attempting any high-pressure salesmanship. In the earlier part of the meeting a census was taken on how many were willing to try one of these meats within the next week.

A follow-up showed that only 3 per cent of the women who heard the lecture served one of the meats never served before, whereas after group decision 32 per cent served one of them. There was no attempt to have this latter group reach a group decision which compelled each member to act

upon it. It was found that an individual seemed to be unwilling to depart very far from group standards. These experiments proved that personal preference is not the basis for action in a group. The individual prefers to act as a group member rather than as a separate entity.<sup>26</sup>

Teachers have often observed that when they have taught a group of students in which the degree of rapport was high, increased efforts were made by students and their achievement was superior in comparison to other groups in which little rapport was apparent. The following investigations are important initial attempts to evaluate the relationship between group rapport and increased effort and achievement in the classroom.

Klugman found that when pupils worked cooperatively in pairs they averaged solving 7.27 problems as compared to 6.18 when working individually. In addition Klugman recorded a marked tendency for pupils to work longer voluntarily when permitted to cooperate with others.<sup>27</sup>

Thelan found in an experimental study involving a control group that superior learning was accomplished by

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26. Kurt Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," As found in Theodore M. Newcomb, Social Psychology, pp. 255-256. New York: The Dryden Press, 1950.

27. Samuel F. Klugman, "Cooperative versus Individual Sufficiency in Problem Solving," Journal of Educational Psychology, 35 (February, 1944), 91-100.



members of the experimental group who were permitted to share cooperatively in the development of a course in chemistry. Members of the experimental group showed superior accomplishments when judged in terms of the amount of chemistry required and with respect to the attitudes toward their work and each other. The major experimental factors to which the group were subjected were opportunities to share cooperatively with the instructor in (a) evaluating the learning objectives for each activity, (b) planning procedures to be employed, (c) selecting scientific techniques to be applied in the solution of problems, (d) participation in experimentation, and (e) critically evaluating the results obtained.<sup>28</sup>

These experimental studies in the secondary school have shown that groups learned more when the subject matter was functionally adapted to the needs and interests of the members of the class group. The growing accumulation of research data supports the belief that group rapport exercises a strong influence upon increased effort and efficiency in the classroom.

Summary.--This section of the study has indicated how rapport and group decision contribute to the productivity of groups. Attention has been called to recent experiments and

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28. Herbert A. Thelan, "A Methodological Study of the Learning of Chemical Concepts and of Certain Abilities to Think Critically in Freshman Chemistry," Journal of Experimental Education, 13 (September, 1944), 53-75.

studies that show how the effectiveness of group action may be increased. Examples of research were chosen from industry, government, and teaching that lent supporting evidence to the belief that the principles of group dynamics are the force, or power, which underlies group productivity.

### Communication and Spread of Influence

Communication is one of the most difficult problems in life. Earl C. Kelley expresses the difficulty of this process of communication in the following statement:

Communication is not so easy as has been assumed. We have felt that if we told another something, he knew it; if we showed him something, he saw it. We know now that nothing could be more uncertain or unreliable.<sup>29</sup>

Many research studies have shown how the functioning of a group is mediated by interpersonal communication and the exertion of influence from one part of a group to another. Some of the more important of these studies will be discussed in this section as illustrations of the kind of research that has been done in this area.

Leon Festinger, Stanley Schachter, and Kurt Back conducted a study of group formation and communication within a housing project for married student veterans at the

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29. Earl C. Kelley, Education and the Nature of Man, p. 78. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952.



Massachusetts Institute of Technology.<sup>30</sup> The influence of communications channels on informal group formation and the development of standards for member behavior were examined in this study. Evidence was gathered which showed the relation between the group's cohesiveness and the group's standards. A process was also detected in which deviation from these standards led to rejection from full membership and consequently to a reduction in communication and influence.

Leon Festinger, Dorwin Cartwright, and associates developed a case study to show how the spread of a hostile rumor may disrupt group activity by clogging the lines of communication within the group. The rumor arose in a housing project which was built during the war for shipyard workers.

Attitudes of the tenants toward the project and toward each other were at the beginning of the study uncomplimentary. Because of this hostile attitude, there was little social interaction within the project. A community organizer worked with the residents toward community activities with widespread involvement of the residents.

Resistances developed toward this process and showed themselves in three ways: first, a lasting pessimism with regard to the possibility of establishing a successful

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30. Leon Festinger, Stanley Schachter, and Kurt Back, Social Pressures in Informal Groups: A Study of A Housing Project, pp. 20-24. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950.

program of community activities; second, pronounced criticism of the general meeting; and third, opposition to specific features of the activities.

Early in the process of community organization these resistances culminated in the creation of a rumor hostile to the continuing development of these activities. The residents of the project declared that certain active leaders in the community activities were communistic in their beliefs.

The reasons for the rumor become clear if one relates the content and effects of the rumor to the situation from which it sprang. The statement made by the community worker that she was employed by a "research organization" left many questions unanswered. Old leaders felt their leadership position was threatened, and new leaders emerged in importance. This loss of leadership status produced negative attitudes toward the new activities and a readiness to support any movement to stop their further development. The premise of communist sponsorship tied these facts together into a coherent explanation.<sup>31</sup>

Similar problems in communication often separate the teacher and members of a classroom group. More than walls and status separate members of the same teaching staff. Each

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31. Leon Festinger, Dorwin Cartwright, et. al., "A Study of a Rumor; Its Origin and Spread," Human Relations, 1 (June, 1948), 25-29.



group becomes lost in separate worlds of thought and feelings. Each member tries to give his best; but intercommunication between levels has largely disappeared.

Directives moving downward are resented, seen as evidences of lack of understanding and interest on the part of those above, and ignored when possible. Problems moving upward are seen as complaints. Each level has become insulated against understanding the feelings, purposes, and problems of others.<sup>32</sup>

The problem in communication may be illustrated by the following conversations that were quoted by Donald Nylen and Leland P. Bradford in "We Can Work Together."

In the School Superintendent's office:

Assistant Superintendent: Principal Jones doubts whether he can get the teachers in his building to go along with the new program.

Superintendent: Too bad. We put a lot of thought into the reorganization. The principals did, too.

Assistant Superintendent: Why are teachers so resistant? Reasonable requests meet with apathy and grumbling. They're so short sighted they harm their best interests.

In a Coffee Shop:

First Teacher: I'm exhausted. We had visitors from the office. Then there was a meeting about a joint English-history program. Imagine trying to correlate English with the history Mr. X teaches.

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32. Donald Nylen and Leland P. Bradford, "We Can Work Together," NEA Journal, 37 (October, 1948), 436-438.

Second Teacher: That's what the new consultant brought to town. These things come and go. You work out something for somebody to publish a book about and then it's over.

Third Teacher: It's too bad, for the children suffer. We do, too. The pressure gets worse every year.<sup>33</sup>

The difficulty of communication in educational change is expressed in the following statement:

Nowhere is the difficulty of communication greater than in educational change. Here the basic differences between children and adults, as well as the more usual status barriers between teachers and administrators, must be taken into account.<sup>34</sup>

For maximum group productivity, it is important that the lines of communication within a group be kept clear.

The following statement supports this belief:

Teachers, supervisors, principals, superintendents, and college executives are in the communication business. They are trying to communicate what is known to those who don't know. Sometimes as teachers they are quite happy about the effectiveness of their communication. It goes well. Again, they may be worried that ideas have not gotten across.<sup>35</sup>

Barriers to communication within a group, or between groups, often prevent group productivity and lead to misunderstanding and resistance by members of the group. These barriers include the following:

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33. Ibid.

34. Kenneth D. Benne, "Democratic Ethics in Social Engineering," Progressive Education, 7 (May, 1949), 204-207.

35. Edgar Dale and Jeanne Chall, "How to Clear Lines of Communication," Portfolio of Teaching Techniques, p. 35. Washington, D. C.: Arthur C. Croft Publication, 1952.



1. Physical Barriers. Physical barriers within the school can be overcome by regular meetings where information and opinions are freely exchanged. A weekly or monthly newsletter from the principal, or from the superintendent, can also help keep people informed.

2. Semantic Barriers. Superintendents and teachers know the disagreement and confusion arising from a casual use of such words as "progressive education" and "core curriculum." Semantic barriers are even greater when the school talks to the public.

3. The Stereotype Barrier. In 1922 Walter Lippman in his "Public Opinion" used "stereotype" to mean the pictures in our heads--shaped by our interests, attitudes, and prejudices.- The pictures that parents and taxpayers have in their heads concerning schools will tend to be twenty or thirty years out of date.

4. The "Coik" Fallacy. Or the Barrier of "Clear only If Known." Here we fail to give enough information to the person who desires it.

"Miss Smith, we expect all our teachers to be part of the community." The superintendent says to the new teacher.

"Yes," Miss Smith said, "but what does being part of a community mean?"

There can be no agreement between the superintendent and Miss Smith unless he makes known to her what his words mean.

5. The Jargon Barrier. Teachers may understand one another when they talk of "community resources," or "enriched curriculum," but what of Mrs. Jones whose child is entering the first grade?

Technical terminology is a short cut for communication within a group that is specialized.

6. Words vs. Deeds Barrier. A superintendent cannot communicate the importance of democracy to teachers when staff meetings are authoritarian. A teacher can't teach the importance of democracy in an authoritarian classroom.<sup>36</sup>

Edgar Dale and Jeanne Chall suggest the following evaluation for a communication activity in the classroom,

communicating with teachers, or communicating with the public.

1. Will the message actually reach the intended audience?
2. Even if the message gets into their hands, will they actually take the time to read it?
3. Will the message be understood?
4. Will the message be believed?
5. Will the reader, listener, or viewer act on the basis of the delivered message?<sup>37</sup>

Summary.--The purpose of this section has been to show that the functioning of a group may be improved by interpersonal communication and the exertion of influence from one part of a group to another. Research studies were included in this section to support this belief. Other examples from the research in this field were presented to show the danger to a group when personal motivations and problems of interpersonal relations block the channels of communication in a group.

Certain barriers to communication were discussed in this section to lend support to the belief that the problem of communication within groups is often very difficult.

Included in this section was an evaluation to use for any communication activity. It is believed that such an



instrument will be of value for teachers, whether in the classroom, communicating with other teachers, or communicating with the public.

### Social Perception

Social perception as an area for experimental investigation has been recognized in recent years to be of first rank importance. Many significant studies and experiments have been conducted in this area to show how group processes, intergroup relations, and the adjustment of the individual to the group are mediated by the perception that each individual has of other individuals and of his own and other groups. Some of the most outstanding of these studies will be reviewed in this section.

Harold H. Kelley conducted a study of first impressions with the purpose of investigating early judgments and finding the relation of such judgments to the behavior of the person making them.<sup>38</sup> The experiment was performed in three sections of a psychology course at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The stimulus person was completely unknown to the subjects before the experimental period. The experimenter posed as the representative of the course instructor, and

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38. Harold H. Kelley, "The Warm-Cold Variable in First Impressions of Persons," Journal of Personality, 18 (June, 1950), 49-52.

set the stage for the experiment by giving the following statement to the subjects:

Your regular instructor is out of town...we are interested in the general problem of how classes react to different instructors. At the end of the period, I want you to fill out some forms about him. In order to give you some idea of what he's like, we've had a person who knows him write a biographical note about him. I'll pass this out to you now and you can read it before he arrives. Please don't talk about this among yourselves until the class is over. We do not want him to know what is going on.<sup>39</sup>

Two kinds of notes were distributed. In one the stimulus person was described as being "rather cold;" in the other note the phrase "very warm" was substituted.

These two types of pre-information were distributed randomly within the classes and in such a manner that the students were not aware that two kinds of information had been given. The stimulus person appeared and led the class in a discussion that was leader centered. After the discussion period, the stimulus person left the room and the subjects wrote free descriptions of him.

It is clear from this experiment that those who were given the "warm" pre-information consistently rated the stimulus person more favorably than did those who were given the "cold" pre-information. Dorwin Cartwright summarizes the results of this study in the following statement:

This study showed the influence of a person's expectations and preconceptions upon his view of other people's

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39. Ibid., p. 49.



behavior, and the effects of such perception on personal interaction.<sup>40</sup>

Closely related to this project was a series of studies conducted at the summer sessions of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development.<sup>41</sup> These studies explored the way in which a person perceives the desires of others for him to behave differently and how the perception of the single acts of an individual influences one's total evaluation of him. For example, it was found that in asking the members of a training group to recall just who had said what during the training session the trainees tended to remember those contributions which they liked as coming from people they liked and the reverse in the case of those disliked.

Child pointed out in his report of studies of children and adolescents in three different types of groups (clubs, schools, and institutional cottages) that morale (rapport) is improved when groups are so arranged that members are in contact with persons whom they like and who like them.<sup>42</sup>

The studies that have been reviewed in this section have shown how the perception a person has of members of the

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40. Cartwright, op. cit., p. 13.

41. Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 378.

42. Ibid., p. 277.

group will influence his adjustment to the group and his interaction and cooperation with the group.

The field of group process has developed a language of its own to define the various roles in which members of the group may function at various times to promote or obstruct group productivity. A brief description of some of the roles rendered, consciously or unconsciously, by individuals participating in a group activity may be useful in acquainting members with the forces inherent in the group process.

#### A. Classification of member roles:

1. Group task roles. Participant roles here are related to the task which the group is deciding to undertake or has undertaken. Their purpose is to facilitate and coordinate group effort in the selection and definition of a common problem and in the solution of that problem. Each member may, of course, enact more than one role in any given unit of participation and a wide range of roles in successive participations.
  - a) The initiator-contributor suggests or proposes new ideas or a changed way of regarding the group problems or goal.
  - b) The information seeker asks for clarification of suggestions made in terms of their factual adequacy, for authoritative information and facts pertaining to the problem being discussed.
  - c) The opinion seeker asks not primarily for the facts of the case but for a clarification of the values pertinent to what the group is undertaking or values involved in a suggestion made or in alternative suggestions.
  - d) The information giver offers facts or generalizations which are "authoritative" or relates his own experiences pertinently to the group problem.
  - e) The opinion giver states his belief or opinion pertinently to a suggestion made or to alternatively proposed plans. The emphasis is on his



proposal of what should become the group's view of pertinent values, not primarily upon relevant facts or information.

- f) The elaborator spells out suggestions in terms of examples and developed meanings and tries to deduce how an idea or suggestion would work out if adopted by the group.
- g) The coordinator shows or clarifies the relationships among various ideas and suggestions.
- h) The orienter defines the position of the group with respect to its goals by summarizing what has occurred.
- i) The evaluator-critic subjects the accomplishment of the group to some standard or set of standards of group functioning in the context of the group task. Thus, he may evaluate or question the "practicality," the "logic," the "facts," or the "procedure," of a suggestion or of some unit of group discussion.
- j) The energizer prods the group to action or decision, attempts to stimulate or arouse the group to "greater" or "higher quality" activity.
- k) The procedural technician expedites group movement by doing things for the group--performing routine tasks, e.g., distributing materials, arranging the seating, etc.
- l) The recorder writes down suggestions, makes records of group decisions, or writes down the product of discussion. The recorder is the "group memory."<sup>43</sup>

2. Group building and maintenance roles. The roles in this category are oriented toward the functioning of the group as a group. They are designed to alter or maintain the group way of working, to strengthen, regulate, and perpetuate the group as a group.

- a) The encourager praises, agrees with and accepts the contributions of others. He indicates warmth and solidarity in his attitude toward other group members, offers commendation and praise and, in various ways, indicates understanding and acceptance of other points of view, ideas and suggestions.
- b) The harmonizer mediates the differences between other members, attempts to reconcile disagreements, relieves tension in conflict situations through jesting, pouring oil in troubled waters, etc.



- c) The compromiser operates from within a conflict in which his idea or position is involved. He may often compromise by yielding status, admitting his error, by disciplining himself to maintain group harmony, or by "coming half-way" in moving with the group.
- d) The gate-keeper and expediter attempts to keep communication channels open by encouraging and facilitating the participation of others or by proposing regulation of the flow of communication.
- e) The standard setter expresses standards for the group to attempt to achieve in its functioning or applies standards in evaluating the quality of group processes.
- f) The group-observer and commentator keeps records of various aspects of group process and feeds such data with proposed interpretations into the group's evaluation of its own procedures.
- g) The follower goes along with the movement of the group, more or less passively accepting the ideas of others, serving as an audience in group discussions and decisions.<sup>44</sup>

3. "Individual" roles. This category does not classify member roles as such, since the "participations" denoted here are directed toward the satisfaction of the "participant's" individual needs. Their purpose is some individual goal, not relevant either to the group task or to the functioning of the group as a group. Such participations are, of course, highly relevant to the problem of group training, insofar as such training is directed toward improving group maturity or group task efficiency.

- a) The aggressor may work in many ways--deflating the status of others, expressing disapproval of the values, acts or feelings of others, attacking the group or the problem it is working on, joking aggressively, etc.
- b) The blocker tends to be negativistic and stubbornly resistant, disagreeing and opposing, without or beyond "reason" and attempting to maintain or bring back an issue after the group has rejected or bypassed it.
- c) The recognition-seeker works in various ways to call attention to himself, whether through

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44. Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 390.



- boasting, reporting on personal achievements, acting in unusual ways, etc.
- d) The self-confessor uses the audience opportunity which the group setting provides to express personal nongroup oriented feelings, "insight," "Ideology," etc.
  - e) The play boy makes a display of his lack of involvement in the group's processes. This may take the form of cynicism, nonchalance, etc.
  - f) The dominator tries to assert authority or superiority in manipulating the group or certain members of the group.
  - g) The help-seeker attempts to call forth "sympathy" response from other members of the group or from the whole group, whether through expressions of insecurity, personal confusion or depreciation of himself beyond "reason."<sup>45</sup>

Each individual has a peculiar role to play in a group and contributes in terms of his ability. The following statement supports this belief:

Individuals take different attitudes toward the worthwhileness of a group project. Some may consider it a huge success and others be skeptical of its value. Those who have the greatest faith and enthusiasm should be given opportunity to pursue the project as vigorously as they choose. Others should have an equal privilege to reduce their efforts to a point consistent with their conviction.<sup>46</sup>

Summary.--This section of the study has shown the importance of social perception as an area for experimental investigation. Studies and experiments that were reviewed in this section showed how the perception a person has of members of the group influences his adjustment to the group.

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45. Ibid., p. 392.

46. Wilbur A. Yauch, Improving Human Relations in School Administration, p. 33. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.

It is believed that group roles affect the way in which a person sees social events. For this reason, it seemed necessary to include in this section a description of some of the services rendered, consciously or unconsciously, by individuals participating in a group activity.

### Intergroup Relations

Research findings and everyday experience make it clear that the improvement of intergroup relations is a great social need in America today. Human relations that exist between members of certain groups--those distinguished by differences of race, rural-urban background, and social status--are receiving more attention in schools today.

Reasons for this interest in intergroup relations are given in the following statement:

Intergroup relations are often marked by tensions that threaten the peace of families, schools, communities, nations, and the whole world. The schools of the United States dare not ignore such a situation.... They must strive so to influence the young that their relations with one another, cutting across the lines that distinguish the various groups, will rise to a nobler plane.... Only in the degree that the teachers understand their responsibility for helping improve intergroup relations and only as they know how to discharge that responsibility will the needed progress be made.<sup>47</sup>

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47. Lloyd Allen Cook, Editor, College Programs in Intergroup Relations, p. vii. Washington, D. C.: The American Council on Education, 1950.



In 1945 the American Council on Education, with the aid of a grant of funds from the National Conference of Christians and Jews, initiated two experimental projects in an effort to evaluate various types of activities that might influence individuals in their attitudes toward others. One project was aimed primarily at the elementary and secondary school levels, the other at the level of teacher education. The College Study in Intergroup Relations, the first nationwide cooperative effort of this kind in the United States, was the result of this study. Twenty-four teacher education institutions, in cooperation with their schools and community agencies, conducted a survey over a four-year period of the programs that were developed in each institution for the improvement of intergroup relations.<sup>48</sup>

In 1946 the Adult Education Division of the National Education Association joined with the Research Center for Group Dynamics and the Connecticut Interracial Commission in conducting a training center for community leaders who were attempting to improve intergroup relations.<sup>49</sup>

The application of the procedures of action-research to this problem of relationships between groups has made a

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48. Ibid., p. 6.

49. Ronald Lippitt, Training in Community Relations: A Research Exploration Toward New Group Skills. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. As found in Cook, op. cit., p. 50.

promising beginning. One of the most significant developments was made by the American Jewish Congress which established the Commission on Community Interrelations. This action research organization was designed primarily to function as a service organization to Jewish and non-Jewish bodies in the field of group interrelations.

Various educational organizations use our educational system for the improvement of intergroup relations, as the American Council on Education, the Citizenship Education Study in Detroit, and the Bureau for Intercultural Education.

Ohio State University has an excellent program in its University School for the improvement of intergroup relations and has cooperated in its operation with the Intergroup Project of the American Council on Education.<sup>50</sup> The following summary of their program was given in an Ohio State monograph,

"Building Friendly Relations.":

We have an intergroup program in action, not in isolated areas of the school or at certain levels only, but rather as an element that pervades our whole program. We have come far enough together to have learned that interpersonal and intergroup friendships can be developed, and that they exist wherever human beings respect and appreciate the contributions of the various racial, cultural, national, religious, social, and economic groups which make up their schools and communities.<sup>51</sup>

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50. Robert S. Gilchrist, Lothar Kohn, and Robert Haas, "Building Friendly Relations," p. 6. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1947.

51. Ibid., p. 47.



Many critical problems in intergroup relations face the teachers in our schools today, and skills in dealing with these problems of human relations need to be developed. One of the problems of being a teacher is recognizing this new demand for dealing freely and equally with all kinds of children from diverse origins and backgrounds and overcoming prejudices. A good summation of the major research efforts in intergroup relations is given by Kurt Lewin in the following statement:

Attempts to improve inter-group relations have included studies of the development of attitudes in children; studies of the relation between intergroup attitudes and such factors as political belief, position in one's own group; experiments about how best to react in case of a verbal attack along prejudice lines; and last but not least, the development of more precise theories of social change. Not too many of the results of these projects have yet found their way into print. I am confident that the next few years will witness rapidly increased output of significant and practical studies.<sup>52</sup>

As teachers work with groups they cannot afford to neglect the skills that will reduce intergroup conflict. The following basic aim should undergird any program for improving intergroup relations.

1. A factual understanding of the concepts of race, creed, immigrant cultures, rural-urban and class-level differences in our society.

2. A systematic knowledge of changes in American community life, with special reference to unities-disunities along caste-class lines.

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52. Kurt Lewin, Resolving Social Conflicts, p. 207. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948.

3. An increased awareness of, and deeper concern for, the functions of race, creed, etc., in child personality development and group life in and about the school.

4. Skill training in human relations techniques and teaching methods.

5. Restatement of school functions in a society committed to democratic ideals, to the use of science in improving human relations, plus a concept of school leadership broad enough to meet the social needs of these changing times.<sup>53</sup>

Summary.--This section of the study has indicated that the improvement of intergroup relations is a great social need and that teachers are responsible for helping improve these relationships in the classroom. Attention was called to the necessity of putting into practice the democratic theory in working with people of all races, creeds, and groups. Race, creed, and class have been focuses of special concern in this section for these are areas where democracy tends to break down

Educational literature is replete with studies and projects that have been carried out by educational agencies, interracial groups, community organizations, and social scientists. From this research a number of the major research studies in the field of intergroup relations were selected for review in this section.

From the literature presented in this section it became increasingly clear that intergroup conflicts can be

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53. Cook, op. cit., p. 357.



significantly reduced as teachers acquire the skills, the know-how, and the desire to live and work together harmoniously.

### Group Membership and Individual Adjustment

The study of intergroup relations in the preceding section leads almost inevitably to an examination of the effects of group membership upon the personal adjustment of the member. Successful teachers have recognized that students learn best when they are happy and in a congenial atmosphere.

One of the underlying forces that influences group membership and adjustment is rapport. Several recent studies have been presented in this investigation to show that when rapport is present within a group its members increase their effort and achievement. This was found to be true in the experiment that was conducted at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company. The results indicated that the development of group rapport was the major factor in increasing effort and production.<sup>54</sup>

Herbert A. Thelan<sup>55</sup> and Samuel F. Klugman<sup>56</sup> have given supporting evidence of the importance of rapport. Their

Chapter 54. For a detailed account of this experiment, see II, section on Group Productivity, p. 18.

55. Ibid. p. 21.

56. Ibid.

studies were conducted to show that superiority of achievement resulted when high school subject matter was adapted to the needs and interests of the class and students were permitted to share cooperatively in the course.

Robert N. Bush pointed out in a study of student-teacher relationship that within a single group of students attitudes of resistance toward the teacher and toward members of the group cause a teaching situation where group rapport is impossible.<sup>57</sup> It is the responsibility of the teacher to establish group rapport and the following factors contribute to its development in the classroom:

Group rapport results when students believe that the teacher is helping them to attack their problems and allowing them opportunity for expression of their own self-assertion and judgment in determining possible solutions and ways of working. By encouraging group participation the teacher promotes wholesome interactions among students, and attitudes of resistance do not develop.<sup>58</sup>

The cooperative sharing of learning experiences by the teacher and the student is another effective method to promote learning and adjustment in a group. It is based on the assumption that individuals have a better chance of maintaining adjustment when they are permitted to share in

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57. Robert N. Bush, "A Study of Student Teacher Relationships," Journal of Educational Research, 35(May, 1942), 645-656.

58. Bernice Baxter, Teacher-Pupil Relationships, p. 7. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945.



planning and problem solving. Alberty recognizes the importance of teacher-student sharing when he says:

A cooperative approach to planning school experiences aims directly toward meeting the recognized needs of all members of the group. Teacher-student sharing aims to make provision for the extension of affection and security to all members of the group.<sup>59</sup>

Evidence supporting teacher-student sharing as a method is found in the extensive experiment carried on by thirty secondary schools under the sponsorship of the Progressive Education Association.<sup>60</sup> One of the purposes of this experiment was to discover better ways of preparing high school youth for college. The results showed that students who had benefitted by experimental methods of teaching and reorganized curricular and guidance procedures developed by the thirty participating schools demonstrated greater competence for adjustment in college than did students of comparable abilities who had received their high school training in traditional secondary schools.

Of interest are sample reports of the value of teacher-student sharing (called pupil-teacher planning) throughout the report of the Eight-Year Study. The New Trier Township High School of Winnetka, Illinois, reported:

59. Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High School Curriculum, pp. 221-336. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947.

60. Progressive Education Association, "Thirty Schools Tell Their Story," New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. As found in Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 330.



We are convinced that the pupil-teacher planning method and group activity have provided greater outcomes in understandings, attitudes, and skills in democratic cooperation and social responsibility.<sup>61</sup>

In 1940 about the time that the Eight-Year Study was being completed, the Educational Policies Commission reported experiments with teacher-student sharing under the heading, "Participation of All in Planning, Executing, and Evaluating." This report stressed that:

The school of democratic citizenship will...see to it that all students have opportunities to share in democratic planning...that evidence from both action and experimental research supports the value of teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching in the secondary school.<sup>62</sup>

The relation between the individual and the group is the core of the question of discipline and responsibility in the classroom. Jean Piaget made an intensive study to learn the effect of constraint (rules) exercised by older children or adults on young children.<sup>63</sup> The scientist was able to see the difference between external acceptance (conformity) and internal acceptance where rules were used as a code of behavior. Piaget observed that conduct is changed only when

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61. Ibid., p. 330.

62. Educational Policies Commission, Learning the Ways of Democracy, pp. 148-171. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940. As found in Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 331.

63. Jean Piaget, "The Moral Judgment of the Child," New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1932. As found in Rudolph Wittenberg, The Art of Group Discipline, p. 118. New York: Association Press, 1951.



rules are accepted internally as an active part of one's life and there is a spirit of cooperation between the child and the outside influence.

A. Bettelheim and E. Sylvester conducted a study of the influence of the group on the individual. This study was made in a school for emotionally disturbed children of at least normal intelligence who had no organic basis for these behavior disorders. The school was divided into small groups that the children were permitted to choose. These groupings made the individual feel as though he were a part of a total situation, that he did not have to act in isolation, but could find his own niche among the children with whom he elected to be. Eventually his many group experiences enabled him to feel supported and, through the need of belonging, to want to act in accordance with the pattern of the group.<sup>64</sup>

Modern research shows very clearly how group dynamics contributes to the adjustment of individuals to the group.

Paul R. Grim recognizes the importance of group dynamics in guiding group adjustment in the following statement:

The new field of group dynamics--that is, our knowledge of group processes, effects of groups, and how to control group behavior--is making available for the teacher fresh concepts, added understanding, and valuable skills.... Much of this information has a very direct bearing on stimu-

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64. A. Bettelheim and E. Sylvester, "The Therapeutic Influence of the Group on the Individual," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 17 (November, 1947), 684-692. As found in Wittenberg, op. cit., p. 123.

lating pupil activity and maintaining good working conditions in the classroom.<sup>65</sup>

Summary.--In this section of the study it was pointed out that group rapport plays an important part in the adjustment of the individual to the group. From the studies in this section it was shown that in teacher-pupil sharing learning is organized in accordance with the tenets of democratic living.

Attention was directed in this section to the relationship between the adjustment of individuals to the group and group discipline. Data gathered in experimental studies gave supporting evidence to the belief that the concept of discipline varied with the goals of the group and the community.

Emphasis was given in this section to the role of group dynamics in guiding pupil behavior and individual adjustment to the group.

#### Training Leaders and Improving Group Functioning

In discussing changes needed to improve group functioning, it is natural to focus attention on the leader. Until a few years ago it was assumed that the leader determined what happened in a group. Research has revealed that

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65. Paul R. Grim, The Student Teacher in the Secondary School, p. 263. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1953.



leadership can best be understood as a set of functions performed within the group. It is as much a property of the group as of an individual. An explanation for the emergence of this new leadership was given by P. Roy Brammel in the following statement:

The democratic leadership came into sharp focus after the Second World War, when American education looked in on itself and found a disturbing amount of the very thing we had fought to eliminate in this world--dictatorship. We were surprised to find so great a gap between the democracy we had talked about and the democracy we practiced. Our schools were conducted too much on an authoritative basis.... Learning seemed to be a teacher telling and pupil conforming process. These conditions were not universal, but as we looked around we found them all too prevalent.<sup>66</sup>

Ruth Cunningham emphasized the concept of leadership in a democratic group as essentially that of a "change agent." As such the leadership function was seen as a transition;<sup>67</sup>

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To

The leader achieving in an area that has prestige for the group. (Based upon hero worship and discipleship).

The leader achieving because he is able to help the group achieve what it wants through cooperative action.

The leader achieving because he is feared.

The democratic leader, while confident of his own ability, realizes that leadership requires thought, planning and skill. He knows that he must help the group:

66. P. Roy Brammel, Your Schools and Mine, p. 153. New York: The Ronald Press, 1952.

67. Ruth Cunningham and Associates, "Leadership and the Group," NEA Journal, 37 (November, 1948), 502-503.

Organize itself into a group.

Decide and periodically redecide the rules of its own conduct.

Develop an atmosphere that is free and permissive and encouraging to all to contribute.

Develop an attitude of critical objectivity that will force the group to produce on a high quality level.

Analyze the various latent resources within its members and devise ways of releasing these resources when needed.

Develop ways of training its own members toward better democratic ability.

Develop ways of continuous evaluation of both group product and group process.<sup>68</sup>

The democratic leader realizes that if he does these things for the group there will be no real progress. His job is to help the group to grow in its ability. He does this by encouraging the group to watch itself as it works and to find ways of improving itself. Certain factors tend to negate change in groups.

1. In several of the studies in group dynamics, leadership has been most sharply criticized for devoting almost complete attention to the process of leadership. Whenever groups become conscious that the leader is striving for a particular effect or trying to follow a preconceived set of procedures, resistance develops.

2. Whenever leadership fails to assist group members gain a complete understanding of "what is being attempted," when some individuals are left in confusion with respect to the purpose of the study, insecurities develop.

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68. "Two Lessons in Group Dynamics," Educational Trend, p. 3. Washington, D. C.: Arthur Croft Publication, 1950.



3. Leaders make the mistake of being too eager to prove that their methods are superior. Undue pressure and persuasion frequently result in inhibiting change in a group.

4. Leaders in the group dynamics movement frequently inhibit communication by the overuse of terms that are meaningless or misunderstood by others.

5. Some leaders assume "do-nothing" attitudes toward group activities in the mistaken belief that such procedures are democratic. Groups under such leadership develop disgust toward the leader and frequently submit to domination from group members. This delays group progress.<sup>69</sup>

Various conceptions of the role of leadership are revealed by some well-known stereotypes:

The "Group Boss" places a premium on discipline. He guides the discussion carefully, deciding who will speak and when.

The "Efficiency Expert" has little faith in group processes and the ability of people to exercise critical judgment. He complains that democratic procedures are too slow and inefficient.

The "Good Fellow" is a friend to everyone, and everyone is his friend. He assumes that the mere process of bringing people together will produce results. In the name of democracy he refrains from giving any direction whatsoever to the work of the group.<sup>70</sup>

Many studies have shown that democratic leadership should permeate the classrooms in our schools. Results of these studies support the belief that students prefer a teacher who is genuinely democratic in his relationship with them and who is sincerely interested in the problems, needs, and interests of young people.

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69. Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 388-389.

5. 70. "Two Lessons in Group Dynamics," op. cit., pp. 4-

Paul A. Witty's study of 47,000 letters by students in grades one through twelve describing the teacher who helped them most showed that the most frequently mentioned positive trait of teachers was a "co-operative democratic attitude." Second on the list in terms of positive mention was "kindness and consideration of the individual."<sup>71</sup>

Tiedeman reported a study of the characteristics liked and disliked in teachers by 450 seventh, eighth, and ninth-grade junior high school pupils. The results indicated that the autocratic, domineering teacher was disliked most and that the degree of dislike for such teacher behavior increased in proportion to the age of the pupils reporting.<sup>72</sup> These studies illustrate the readiness of youth to accept teaching procedures that are characterized by cooperative shared relationships between the teacher and students.

Pioneer studies in the field of leadership were conducted in 1939 at the University of Iowa under the direction of Lewin, Lippitt, and White.<sup>73</sup> The purpose of these Iowa

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71. Paul A. Witty, "Evaluation of Studies of the Characteristics of the Effective Teacher," Improving Educational Research. Washington, D. C.: American Education Research Association, 1948. As found in Florence G. Robbins, Educational Sociology, p. 284. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953.

72. Stewart C. Tiedeman, "A Study of Pupil-Teacher Relationships," Journal of Educational Research, 35 (May, 1942), 657-664.

73. Lewin, Lippitt, and White, op. cit., pp. 271-279.



Social Climate Studies was to show the effect of three different types of leadership, democratic, authoritative, and laissez-faire upon teen-age boys' club groups.

Results of these experiments showed that the same group of children displayed very different levels of aggressive behavior under different types of leadership. When individual children were transferred from one group to another, their levels of aggressiveness were shifted to conform to the atmosphere of the new group.

Direct observations of social behavior were made, combined with interviews with teachers, parents, and each child at the time of transition from one group atmosphere to another. In this experiment three types of leadership were established:

1. Dominant or autocratic--attitude of leader to work on group.
2. Laissez-faire--attitude of leader to work for group.
3. Democratic--attitude of leader to work with or within the group.

Teachers are group leaders and the functions of their democratic leadership may be described by the following statement:

Democratic leadership always exercises its function toward the achievement of two ends. First, society itself is

improved. That is to say, things get done. Toward this end efficiency is the criterion.

**Second**, those who get things done are themselves improved. The group which displays efficiency in getting things done is itself improved; individuals who make up the group are improved. That is to say, the participants develop in their power to do; they mature in insight. Toward this end growth is the criterion.

Democratic leadership is the only acceptable kind of leadership for education. Public schools under democratic leadership are the most important agency for the improvement of democratic living.<sup>74</sup>

Summary.--In this section of the study a review was given of some of the literature related to the emerging concept of democratic leadership. Attention was directed to research studies in this area.

Emphasis was given to the kind of leadership exercised by the classroom teacher and the effect of this leadership upon classroom groups.

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<sup>74</sup>. Educational Leaders, Report of the Second Work Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, p. 11. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948.



## CHAPTER III

### PHILOSOPHY OR POINT OF VIEW

#### Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the underlying point of view or the basic philosophy of group dynamics. It seems necessary to investigate four major areas: theory of group dynamics, objectives of group dynamics, method of group dynamics, and principles of group dynamics.

To give coherence in an introduction to this chapter it seems necessary to describe each of the four sections of the chapter that are listed above.

The first section of this chapter is designed to show the relation of the theory of group dynamics to the principles of our democratic society. It will be pointed out that the teacher who understands the meaning of group dynamics and who uses the techniques of group leadership intelligently has solved many of the problems relating to the principles of all teaching method based on the democratic ideal.

The purpose of the second section of this chapter is to present the objectives of group dynamics that have implications for teachers. To determine these objectives an extended study was made of the literature in this field. The objectives that are given in this section are the result of much research and careful thinking by investigators and

experimenters who are interested in fostering better feelings and more efficient functioning of the members of groups.

In the third section of this chapter, the method of group dynamics, it is pointed out that research and experimentation in the field of social studies, psychology, and science have made a direct contribution to group dynamics. The purpose of this section of the study is to review this contribution.

The fourth section of this chapter presents some of the basic principles emerging from research in group dynamics. Since research is constantly going on and since its very nature is to revise its conceptions, these principles will have to be modified and improved as time passes. They represent the thinking of leaders in the field of group dynamics and now serve as guideposts to crystallize our thinking on the underlying principles of this new science. It is believed that these principles have many applications for professional groups, conference groups, workshops, small study groups, groups doing research work, and classroom groups.

Out of this background comes the motivation for this chapter. It seems necessary that teachers understand the basic point of view which underlies group dynamics. This understanding should help them implement the philosophy of



group dynamics and give it new life and meaning through practice and use.

### Theory of Group Dynamics

Since the preference for democracy as a way of living is a tradition in our society, it is easy to understand why there is concern for school programs to reflect such a tradition. If schools are to be established for the purpose of preparing youth to become effective citizens in a democracy, it appears logical to expect a wider use of democratic practices and principles in our schools.

Throughout the literature used for this study there appears consistent references to democratic principles basic to group dynamics. An examination of these principles of our society strongly suggests that group dynamics is anchored firmly to tenets of democracy.

Schools are responsible for the continuous improvement of our democratic society and take their direction from the ideals of our culture. Three of these ideals underline the purpose of our democratic society.

The first declares the dignity and worth of the individual. The development of each individual's potentialities to the fullest extent is considered to be consistent with the best interests of society.<sup>1</sup>

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1. Educational Leaders--Their Function and Preparation, p. 5. A Report of the Second Work Conference of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Madison, Wisconsin, 1948.

The second ideal of democracy places reliance on the method of intelligence.<sup>2</sup>

The third ideal of democracy places reliance on the cooperative use of intelligence in the solution of problems common to the group.<sup>3</sup> This ideal introduces the element of cooperative action.

The first ideal of democracy referred to above is emphasized in the following statements:

Each individual is regarded as a valuable member of society, who possesses potentialities and creative individuality which can make a valuable contribution to all.<sup>4</sup>

The dignity and worth of the individual is basic. Man is placed first; things are subjugated to the welfare of man. Merit, real or potential, is ascribed to every individual. Because every person has merit, each person becomes responsible for the development of all other persons. The best society is composed of individuals who achieve their best, their fullest potential.<sup>5</sup>

The method of intelligence referred to above as the second ideal of democracy has to do with thinking in a logical pattern. It is also a method which can be applied to individual problem solving as well as group work. In support of this principle the following statement is given:

Man's problems can be solved through his own intellectual efforts.... The method of intelligence is diametrically opposed to the concept that man's problems may be solved by appeals to authority.<sup>6</sup>

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2. Educational Leaders--Their Function and Preparation, loc. cit.

3. Ibid., p. 7.

4. Curriculum Planning for Our Schools, p. 12.  
State Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee, 1950.

5. Educational Leaders, op. cit., p. 5.

6. Ibid., p. 6.



To achieve the third ideal of democracy requires that opportunities be provided in each classroom in order that students will have the opportunity to learn how to work in groups. This implies that people are not born with the ability to be cooperative, and that this competency must be learned. If this is true and our society demands such a skill of its citizens, it becomes necessary to provide the experiences to develop this skill.

Cooperative action is action which will bring the individual intelligence of each member of the group to bear most fully and appropriately in the solution of a common problem.<sup>7</sup>

It is believed that the skills and techniques of group dynamics will be of value in achieving these ideals for democratic living in our schools. Learning how to live and work together in groups is the essence of democracy.

Boys and girls do not learn about democracy and good citizenship merely through reading and reciting about it. The skills, attitudes, and knowledge necessary for good citizenship are learned best when boys and girls participate in democratic activities that are meaningful to them.<sup>8</sup>

Klausmeier gives four democratic ideals to guide classroom activities in democratic living. They are as follows:

1. Every person respects the unique individuality of every other person. When adults respect the unique

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7. Ibid., p. 7.

8. Course of Study in the Social Studies for Secondary Schools, p. 13. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Department of Public Instruction, 1951.

individuality of children in the school, these provisions are made: (a) each child feels that he belongs in the group, that he is wanted and worthwhile; (b) each child participates in the activities of the group; (c) each child feels that he has a place in the group, that he has status; (d) each child feels secure in his group.<sup>9</sup>

2. Every person employs intelligence rather than force in the solution of problems. The pattern of using force becomes deeply ingrained in behavior unless boys and girls learn to use intelligence in solving problems.

3. Every person cooperates for the welfare of the group. The efficiency of classroom groups will be improved if children, under adult leadership, are given opportunity to develop competence in identifying group goals, planning activities to achieve the goals, learning communication skills, defining and assuming responsibility for carrying out work activities, and evaluating the final outcomes of the work of the group.

4. Every person accepts responsibility for his activities in a society of free men. Freedom in democratic living means acting on one's own intelligence in making choices and at the same time assuming responsibility for such action in the social groups of which the individual is a part.<sup>10</sup>

It can be seen from these principles that an understanding of group dynamics will help solve many of the problems relating to the teaching method based on the democratic ideal.

If teachers are to implement democracy by providing experience in its use, an understanding of the democratic method of teaching is necessary. The underlying principles

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9. Herbert J. Klausmeier, Principles and Practices of Secondary School Teaching, p. 105. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953.

10. Passim, pp. 105-115.



of the democratic method are given by Ragan in the following statements:

1. Method should provide for teacher-pupil cooperation in planning, executing and evaluating.
2. Method should provide for a proper balance between pupil freedom and teacher guidance.
3. Method should provide for pupil participation in the solution of problems arising in connection with school living.
4. Method should provide opportunities for the pupil to develop skill in group processes.
5. Method should provide for the stimulation of individual effort through the use of group approval.
6. Method should provide opportunities for pupils to make decisions and assume responsibilities.
7. Method should provide for the gradual development of self-direction on the part of pupils.<sup>11</sup>

If the school is to contribute to the building of democratic citizenship, the methods of teaching must be organized to achieve this goal. An understanding of the principles and skills of group dynamics will implement the use of democratic method in the classroom.

As teachers apply the skills of group dynamics in teaching, the following criteria may be used for evaluating the democratic quality of classroom activities:

1. Are the goals such that group activity will expedite their attainment?

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11. William B. Ragan, Modern Elementary Curriculum, p. 168. New York: The Dryden Press, 1953.

2. Is the work that is undertaken relevant to the goals the group wants to achieve?
3. Is the sequence of activities somewhat as follows:
  - (a) Clarification of goals or purposes
  - (b) Discussion of means for the attainment of these goals
  - (c) Action in terms of the means decided upon
  - (d) Appraisal or evaluation
4. Is there a free interplay of minds at all stages of the project?
5. Is a consensus of opinion striven for?<sup>12</sup>

Summary.--A democratic philosophy of education becomes effective only as it is implemented and given life and meaning through practice and use. The principles of group dynamics give new emphasis to the method of democracy and help meet the challenge of developing an instructional program that will prepare American youth for living and working in a democracy.

### Objectives of Group Dynamics

The purpose of this section is to point out the objectives of group dynamics. To determine these objectives a careful study was made of the literature in this field. The objectives given in this section are the result of research and thinking by investigators in the area. It is not to be assumed that the objectives of group dynamics are limited to

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12. National Education Association, Group Planning in Education, Yearbook of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, p. 138, 1944-45.



teaching solely, but for the purpose of this study it seems necessary to include only those objectives that show how group dynamics can contribute to teaching.

Other sections of the study have indicated these implications but in order to present a composite picture of the contribution of group dynamics to teaching, the following objectives are given:

1. To help groups grow in ability to work together.
2. To develop appropriate techniques for managing emotional problems that arise within a group.
3. To increase the efficiency of a group by bringing out and using potential member contributions.
4. To increase their objectivity in dealing with group problems through self-study and evaluation groups.
5. To seek continuous improvement in group efficiency.
6. To improve in the ability to absorb the shock that results from the loss of a member, inclusion of new individuals, conflict over leadership, or incompetent or group dominating leadership.
7. To explore and experiment in the phases of group growth and development, the problems and skills of group decision making, the process of group productivity, and the responsibilities and skills of group leadership and membership.
8. To develop understanding, skills, techniques, and instruments for analysis of group situations and bringing about group improvement.
9. To develop ways of training people to assume leadership and membership responsibilities for better group functioning.<sup>13</sup>

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13. Leland P. Bradford, Kenneth D. Benne, and Ronald Lippitt, "The Promise of Group Dynamics for Education," NEA Journal, 37 (September, 1948), 350-351.

Janie Derieux focused attention upon the objectives of group dynamics in her thesis, "Principles of Group Dynamics," written at the University of Virginia. They are as follows:

1. Group dynamics shows how a certain type of structure, in both man and group, can be created and maintained.
2. Group dynamics points out the skills needed by man to maintain his status within the group of which he is a member.
3. Group dynamics encourages widespread participation within a group.
4. Group dynamics teaches the art and skills of leadership.
5. Group dynamics has profound implications for teachers in service in our American schools.
6. Group dynamics helps develop democratic citizens.
7. The study of group dynamics, while it cannot give easy answers or magic panaceas for group ills, can open the doors to greater understanding of the many complex forces operating in group situations and thus to ultimate solutions of group problems.
8. Group dynamics can sensitize us to problems of group behavior whether in the classroom, staff meeting, professional organization or community committee.
9. Group dynamics can help us gain the instruments and skills for diagnosing group ills.
10. Group dynamics can help us become familiar with the many facets of leadership and membership as necessary group responsibilities.
11. Group dynamics can help us train ourselves and others as more productive group members and leaders.
12. Group dynamics can help us plan and carry on action research designed to bring improvement in our group situation.



13. Group dynamics can help us measure and evaluate our own progress in group growth.<sup>14</sup>

In this section it has been pointed out that group dynamics can make a valuable contribution to education. Since group dynamics is a frontier field it is not possible to recognize now all its potentialities. As teachers develop a greater understanding of its basic philosophy and acquire skill in the use of its techniques, new areas in which its application to their problems is practical become evident.

#### Method of Group Dynamics

#### Contribution of the social studies to group dynamics.--

Research and experimentation have made a valuable contribution to group dynamics. The following statements point out some of the basic concepts of the social studies program. From a study of these concepts it can be seen that the social studies provide an excellent frame of reference for the use of group dynamics.

Basically, the social studies are concerned with people living in their place and in their time. The study of ... people living in their place and time, reveals useful knowledge and understandings, social skills, and human attitudes and values.<sup>15</sup>

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14. Janie Derieux, "Principles of Group Dynamics," Teacher Education, 2 (March, 1950), 23-27.

15. Course of Study in the Social Studies for Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 12.

Social studies programs function in a variety of ways. Regardless of what direction is taken, the primary purpose is that of providing experiences for the development of good citizens to participate in a democratic society.<sup>16</sup>

The social studies are concerned with the wide dissemination of information, the development of social skills, and the improvement of social behavior.<sup>17</sup>

The social studies program in the modern school does not place major emphasis on the mastery of logically organized bodies of subject matter; it emphasizes the functional use of subject matter from many sources to develop socially desirable behavior.<sup>18</sup>

The primary objective of the social studies program is the improvement of group living. It is designed to develop intelligent, responsible, self-directing citizens. The school provides opportunities for the child to acquire useful information relating to social problems; it also provides a laboratory for social living in which he has an opportunity to develop his own potentialities and contribute his maximum effort to the improvement of group living.<sup>19</sup>

It can be seen from the above statements that the use of group dynamics in the classroom is a modern emphasis in the social studies program. Activities are provided in such a program for standards to be met and for students to provide help in formulating plans and reaching group decisions. Ideas are exchanged and leadership responsibilities are shared.<sup>20</sup>

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16. Ryland W. Crary, Education for Democratic Citizenship, p. 75. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1951.

17. Klausmeier, op. cit., p. 140.

18. Ragan, op. cit., p. 168.

19. Ibid., p. 170.

20. Course of Study in the Social Studies for Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 12.



Students learn from one another through group planning. Individuals find a place in group projects for making a contribution. Morale is higher when students work together cooperatively on group projects.<sup>21</sup>

Teachers of the social studies and students of group dynamics recognize the importance of the principle of interaction and understand how it contributes to cooperative learning. Therefore a classroom setting should be provided for its use. Olson has illustrated this by use of the terms "coaction" and "interaction:"

Coaction is involved when the group as a whole acts in response to a command from a leader, such as the teacher. Interaction is between the teacher and a pupil or between members of the group.<sup>22</sup>

In the interactive groups members are arranged in a face-to-face situation around a table, in a circle, or in a semi-circle. The leader in this case assumes certain responsibilities for group management. All the members of the group are encouraged to participate, to discuss with each other, and to grow in their ability to conduct themselves as effective members of a social group.

An attempt was made in this section to describe the contribution of the social studies area to group dynamics. It has been pointed out that the basic concepts of the social

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21. Ragan, op. cit., p. 172.

22. Ibid., p. 173.

studies place major emphasis upon the development of social skills, the functional use of subject matter, and the improvement of group living. Therefore, it is believed that an understanding of group dynamics will give direction to a better social studies program.

Contribution of psychology to group dynamics.--Group dynamics is closely related to a relatively new study called "sociometry" which is the measurement of the social interaction of people in groups. It is also interrelated with "topology" which has to do with the social space or life regions of individuals and of groups.

Interpreted broadly, group dynamics with some justification could be called applied psychology. It is, in fact, a product of the long development through the centuries of the study of mankind.<sup>23</sup>

The basis of group learning processes is the field theory of psychology. This theory holds that:

1. All individuals are born with the inherited potentiality to learn, thus all groups have a potentiality for learning.
2. Learning takes place whenever the individual interacts with his environment or the members of his group.
3. In the interactive process the whole individual, as well as the group, is affected.
4. In the interactive process all aspects of behavior of the individual, and of the group, are affected.

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23. Derieux, op. cit., pp. 23-27.



5. Conscious learning takes place whenever an individual, or the group, moves to satisfy a felt need.

6. Best results accrue when learning is accompanied by satisfaction to both the individual and the group.

7. Interests are a means of improving the learning of individuals and of groups.

8. The group is greater than the individuals in it; however, the group exists for the individual, not the individual for the group.<sup>24</sup>

The findings and research in modern psychology set no limits or boundaries on the ages or mental levels of the people within groups to which these psychological principles apply. Whether the groups are high school students or college students, this psychology of learning will be practical for helping this group acquire attitudes, skills, and information. These principles are the guideposts to esprit de corps that will permeate the group and inspire the members to greater learning achievement.<sup>25</sup>

If a group is to function satisfactorily and if group learning experiences are to be meaningful, there must be:

1. Adequate communication
2. Agreement on a value system
3. Group control of behavior

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24. Enriched Learning in Business Education, p. 39. American Business Education Yearbook, Volume X. Eastern Business Teachers Association and National Business Teachers Association, Somerville, New Jersey: Somerville Press, 1953.

25. Ibid., p. 38.

4. Satisfaction of individual needs
5. Utilization of the skills of all<sup>26</sup>

Understanding these characteristics and directing all effort toward achieving them will ultimately result in the group members attaining growth in knowledge, skills, and social traits.

The door to group learning hinges on the environment in which the group functions. The environment, which is frequently referred to as the climate or atmosphere may take one of the three following forms in the classroom: (1) autocratic, (2) laissez-faire, (3) democratic.<sup>27</sup>

In an autocratic climate the teacher tells the student what to do, with whom to work and how. Hostility, insecurity, aggressiveness, and frustration develop out of this atmosphere. This climate develops bullies among students, and the group frequently makes a scapegoat of one or two of the weaker members. Dishonesty, quarreling, tattling, and vying for the teacher's favor are just a few of the behavior patterns teachers will encounter in the autocratic climate.

Directly opposite to the autocratic climate is the laissez-faire climate, a classroom climate in which the field

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26. Ibid., p. 37.

27. Ibid., p. 42.



of study is very broad. The group has no defining of the problems its members are supposed to solve. This climate is usually short-lived, for in this climate some domineering individual rapidly develops into an authoritarian leader. The teacher who conducts a classroom with a carefree attitude permits a laissez-faire climate in which the defiant student--or the pert social leader--becomes the leader and directs the students' activities into channels of behavior alien to those needed for efficient classroom work.

Between these extremes of laissez-faire and autocratic climate lies the democratic climate that will develop a spirit of cooperation. This climate is created as the teacher and students direct their attention and effort to solving problems that are important to them. Here the teacher is a participant-leader of small groups of students. It is his responsibility to guide the students in their selection of problems that will be of vital concern to them.<sup>28</sup>

Certain learning outcomes result from each of these climates. In the autocratic climate forced on the learners, where assignments have been dictated to the students rather than growing from an understanding of why they were asked to perform certain tasks, students are able to answer rote

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28. Enriched Learning in Business Education, op. cit., p. 44.

questions and remember factual information. It is from this enforced learning that many people acquire an active dislike for study.

Slipshod work habits, misinformation, or a smattering of unrelated and meaningless information are the learning outcomes to be expected in a laissez-faire climate. The most effective individual learning, the most coherent group progress is achieved in the democratic climate, for the learning is based on interests and needs of the individuals within the group.

The democratic climate fosters maximum learning, for there the students and their teacher are working together to attain mastery of a common goal. The democratic climate provides the right environment for using the techniques and skills of group dynamics. Within the framework of the democratic climate, teachers have opportunities for fostering more efficient functioning of the total group.<sup>29</sup>

From the evidence presented in this section it can be seen that basic principles of psychology underlie group dynamics and contribute to its use.

Contribution of the method of science to group dynamics.--It seems appropriate in this section to consider the contribution to group dynamics of the method of science. This, as the name implies, is a process of inquiry which was

29. Ibid., p. 46.



developed and has been successfully used in the sciences. An accurate characterization of this method is given by Otto in the following statement:

The scientific method has been characterized variously as "the method of intelligence," "the method of reason," or the "problem solving method," depending upon the situation in which it was used, and the completeness with which it was applied.<sup>30</sup>

The scientific method was developed for use in the pure sciences, but its principles are generally accepted and used by education. The belief that the pure sciences have no monopoly on the use of scientific method is supported by Pearson when he writes:

The scientific method is one and the same for all branches, and that method is the method of all logically trained minds.... The man who classifies facts of any kind whatsoever, who sees their mutual relation, and describes their consequences, is applying the scientific method and is a man of science. The facts may belong to the past history of mankind...to the social statistics of our great cities. It is not the facts themselves which make science, but the method in which they are used.<sup>31</sup>

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that the scientific method is serviceable in two major respects. It provides an overall pattern or design for the conduct of group

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30. Max Otto, "Scientific Humanism," The Antioch Review, (Winter, 1943), 532. As found in Harold S. Pryor, "A Study of Accomplishments and Existing Problems in State-Supported Teacher Education Institutions in Tennessee, unpublished Doctor's Dissertation. Knoxville, University of Tennessee, 1951, p. 222.

31. Karl Pearson, Grammar of Science, London: Adam and Charles Black, 1911, 3rd edition, pp. 10-11. As found in Pryor, op. cit., p. 223.

learning situations and it represents a process by means of which the effectiveness of these learning situations may be appraised.<sup>32</sup>

The reasoning pattern of the "method of science" <sup>into</sup> implies the following procedures in group problem solving:

The identification of problems, concerns, or needs.

The thorough exploration and analysis of the problem through the collection, organization, and interpretation of pertinent data.

Hypothesizing solutions, remediations, or ameliorating plans.

Testing the hypotheses or trying out the plans in the situation for which they were intended.

Constant evaluation of hypotheses and plans in the light of their practical effectiveness and modification of plans and procedures as needs suggest.<sup>33</sup>

It can be seen that the steps in group problem solving are similar to those used by the individual in problem solving. It is only as we apply the group concept to the use of the method of science that these procedures may be identified.

Further implications of the scientific method in group procedure are found in Dewey's five steps for thinking in discussion. They are as follows:

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32. Adapted from Cooperative Study for the Improvement of Education, pp. 37-38. Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. As found in Pryor, op. cit., p. 224.

33. Ibid., p. 38.



1. A felt difficulty, a recognized problem
2. Location, definition and analysis of the problem
3. Suggestion of possible solutions
4. Analysis and choice of solution with appropriate follow-up action
5. Further observation, study and experiment (verification)<sup>34</sup>

It is believed that group dynamics is an area of scientific study:

Essentially the term group dynamics describes an area of study and research in the social sciences. Even though the same type of controlled experimentation may not be possible in group dynamics as in the pure sciences, the general pattern of inquiry may be used with good results.<sup>35</sup>

Admitting that group dynamics, with the behavior of people its very essence, is very complex and replete with variables, it is believed that the scientific method may be utilized in its processes.

### Some Principles of Group Dynamics

It is the purpose of this section of the chapter to focus attention upon certain underlying principles of group dynamics. These principles represent research and careful

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<sup>34</sup>. Ruth E. Litchen, "How to Use Group Discussion," No. 6, How to Do It Series, National Council for the Social Studies, p. 2, 1950.

<sup>35</sup>. David Jenkins, "What Is Group Dynamics?" Reprint from Adult Education Journal, (April, 1950), 56.

thinking by investigators and experimenters in the field of group dynamics.

Dorwin Cartwright listed the following principles of achieving change in people the "group dynamics" way:

1. If the group is to be used effectively as a medium of change, those people who are to be changed and those who are to exert influence for change must have a strong sense of belonging to the same group.

2. The more attractive the group is to its members the greater is the influence that the group can exert on its members.<sup>36</sup>

Kurt Lewin described this principle well in the following statement:

The normal gap between teacher and student can be a real obstacle to acceptance of the advocated conduct...the teacher and the student have to feel as members of one group in matters involving their sense of values. The chances for re-education seem to be increased whenever a strong we-feeling is created.<sup>37</sup>

This principle has been extensively documented by Festinger and his co-workers. They have been able to show in a variety of ways and settings that in more cohesive groups there is a greater resistance of members to influences that would tend to break up the group and a greater readiness

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36. Dorwin Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People, the Group Dynamics Approach," Toward Better Human Relations, p. 84. Edited by Lloyd Allen Cook. Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1952.

37. Kurt Lewin, Resolving Social Conflicts, p. 67. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948.



of members to attempt to influence others and to be influenced by others.<sup>38</sup>

How to increase the attractiveness of the group is a major problem for teachers. Evidence supports the belief that a group becomes more attractive as it satisfies the needs of its members.

3. In attempts to change attitudes, values, or behavior, the more relevant these are to the basis of attraction to the group, the greater will be the influence that the group can exert upon them.<sup>39</sup>

Dorwin Cartwright illustrated this principle in the following statement:

This principle gives a clue to some puzzling phenomena. A labor union is able to exert strong discipline over its members in some matters, (let us say in dealings with management) while it seems unable to exert anything like the same influence in other matters, say in political action.... If a man joins a union to keep his job and to improve his working conditions, he may be largely uninfluenced by the union's attempt to modify his attitudes toward national and international affairs.<sup>40</sup>

4. The greater the prestige of a group member in the eyes of the other members, the greater the influence he can exert.<sup>41</sup>

Lippitt, Polansky, and Redl have demonstrated this principle in a series of studies in children's summer camps.

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38. Leon Festinger, et. al., "Theory and Experiment in Social Communication," Toward Better Human Relations, p. 85. Edited by Lloyd Allen Cook, Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1952.

39. Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People," op. cit. p. 86.

40. Ibid., p. 86.

41. Ibid.

From a practical point of view it must be emphasized that the things giving prestige to a member may not be those characteristics most prized by the official management of the group. The teacher's pet may be a poor source of influence within a class. This principle is the basis for the common observation that the official leader and the actual leader of a group are often not the same.<sup>42</sup>

5. Efforts to change individuals or supports of a group which, if successful, would have the result of making them deviate from the norms of the group will encounter strong resistance.<sup>43</sup>

Evidence to support this principle is given by Dorwin Cartwright in the following statement:

Groups can exert great pressure upon members to conform to the group's norms. The price of deviation in most groups is rejection or even expulsion. If the member really wants to belong and be accepted, he can hardly withstand this type of influence.<sup>44</sup>

6. Strong pressure for changes in the group can be established by creating a shared perception by members of the need for change, thus making the source of pressure for change lie within the group.<sup>45</sup>

Marrow and French report a case study which illustrates the principle quite well.

A manufacturing company had a policy against hiring women over thirty because it was believed that they were slower, more difficult to train, and more likely to be absent.

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42. N. Polansky, R. Lippitt, and F. Redl, "An Investigation of Behavioral Contagion in Groups," Human Relations, pp. 319-348, 1950. As found in Lloyd Allen Cook, editor, Toward Better Human Relations, p. 86. Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1952.

43. Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People," op. cit., p. 87.

44. Ibid.

45. Ibid., p. 88.



The staff psychologist was able to present to management evidence that this belief was unwarranted. The psychologist's facts, however, were rejected as a basis for action.

Then the psychologist proposed that management conduct its own analysis of the situation. With his help management collected all the facts which they believed relevant, making them their facts rather than those of an outside expert. Policy was altered without undue resistance. The point is that facts are not enough. They must be the accepted property of the group if they are to become the effective basis for change.<sup>46</sup>

7. Information relating to the need for change, plans for change, and consequences of change must be shared by all relevant people in the group.<sup>47</sup>

Another way of stating this principle is to say that change in a group ordinarily requires the opening up of communication channels.

Newcombe has shown that one of the first consequences of mistrust and hostility is the avoidance of communicating openly and freely about the things producing the tension.

In a group that has trouble making decisions or coordinating member efforts, it is evident there are strong restraints in that group against communicating vital information. Until these restraints are removed there can be little hope for any real and lasting changes in the group's functioning.<sup>48</sup>

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46. A. J. Marrow and J. R. P. French, Jr., "Changing a Stereotype in Industry," Journal of Social Issues, I, No. 3, pp. 33-37, (1945). As found in Cook, Toward Better Relations, op. cit., p. 88.

47. Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People," op. cit., p. 88.

48. T. M. Newcombe, "Artistic Hostility and Social Reality," Human Relations, I, pp. 69-86, 1947. As found in Cook, Toward Better Human Relations, op. cit., p. 89.



Janie Derieux presented certain principles of group dynamics that have implications for teachers in her thesis, "Principles of Group Dynamics." They are as follows:

1. A group, in addition to being a collection of individuals, is an organic unity with a structure of its own, which has fundamental characteristics and trends regardless of occasional deviations.

2. An individual and the group to which he belongs have similar characteristics and are mutually interdependent.

3. Through social measurement the structure of a group of persons as well as its opinions, attitudes, and interpersonal relations may be determined and expressed in quantitative terms.

4. By practice in a variety of roles better patterns of behavior are experienced and eventually integrated into the spontaneous roles taken in real-life situations.

5. Democratic leadership is an art and a skill that may be acquired.

6. Democratic leadership arises from the group and is responsible to the group.

7. Democratic leadership is open to any member of the group who has a contribution to make and skills to offer.

8. In a democratic group every member has the potential power as well as the obligation to make a contribution to the work of the group.

9. It is through total participation that the maturity of a group may be achieved.

10. Communication is a vehicle that conveys concepts, not mere verbalisms, through a variety of media.

11. The attitudes and behavior of individuals and of groups of individuals may be changed by a slow-moving, continuous process.

12. It is knowing that one belongs where one wants to belong that brings security, stimulation, and success.



13. It is through the give and take of association with others that the zest of living and learning takes place.<sup>49</sup>

In this section certain principles of group dynamics have been identified. It is believed that studies of the dynamics that underlie group action support these principles and that they may be used by educators in the solution of the problems that are involved in working with groups.

### Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to present the underlying point of view or basic philosophy of group dynamics. To accomplish this purpose it seemed necessary to divide the chapter into four sections.

In the first section of the chapter the theory of group dynamics is presented. In this section it was pointed out that group dynamics is a method to implement democratic teaching in the classroom and is based upon the democratic ideals of our society.

The objectives of group dynamics were stated in the second section of the chapter. It is believed that knowledge of these objectives will contribute to a better understanding of the basic philosophy which underlies group dynamics.

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<sup>49</sup>. Derieux, op. cit., pp. 23-27.

The third section of the chapter considered the method of group dynamics and the contribution of the social studies, psychology, and the method of science to group dynamics.

Certain underlying principles of group dynamics were identified in the fourth section of this chapter. Studies of group dynamics support these principles and they provide new insights and techniques for working with groups.

Each of these techniques. Evidence in the literature supports the belief that careful planning by the teacher is necessary for the successful utilization of these principles of group dynamics in these techniques.

Finally, the chapter describes the following: role-playing and sociodrama, sociometric techniques, planning, group guidance and counseling, and other activities that involve group participation.

### Group Discussion

The value of discussion.--This section of the chapter in detail the use of group discussion as a technique. Values of such a technique are shown in the following statement:

In group discussions, pupils learn to work toward common problems; to express



## CHAPTER IV

### TECHNIQUES AND PRACTICES

#### Introduction

In this chapter important techniques and practices that are designed for classroom use will be presented. It will be pointed out that group dynamics is the force or power which underlies each of these techniques. Evidence in the chapter supports the belief that careful planning by the teacher with the class is necessary for the successful utilization of the principles of group dynamics in these techniques.

Specifically, the chapter describes the following: group discussion, role-playing and sociodrama, sociometric techniques, group planning, group guidance and counseling, and co-curricular activities that involve group participation.

#### Group Discussion

Educational values of discussion.--This section of the study describes in detail the use of group discussion as a classroom technique. Values of such a technique are shown in the following statement:

Through effective group discussions, pupils learn to direct their thinking toward common problems; to express

their ideas clearly and critically; to consider and respect the ideas, opinions, and data shared by others; to assume responsibilities delegated to them by the group; and to experience the dynamics that emerge when mind plays upon mind in the solution of common problems.<sup>1</sup>

Teachers in the modern secondary school find group discussions a valuable help in furthering their understandings of individual pupils within the group.

Democracy means, among other things, the widest possible participation in solving problems and making decisions.... Group discussion is one fundamental technique by which we gain democratic experience and it influences our conduct as citizens in the democratic community.<sup>2</sup>

Types of group discussions.--Pupils need to learn to participate in various types of group discussions. These types may be classified as follows: the informal group discussion, the panel discussion, the forum lecture, the forum dialogue, and the symposium.<sup>3</sup>

1. The Informal Group Discussion. In this type of discussion, a small group usually gathers around a table or sits in a circle to discuss an issue, topic, or problem common to the members of the group. The need for the discussion may have been introduced by the pupils, the teacher, or both. The leader of the group, whether it be the teacher or a pupil, briefly states the topic or issue to be discussed. He attempts to guide the discussion in such a manner that maximum participation occurs, opposing points of view are voiced and examined, thinking remains pointed to the topic being considered, significant ideas are isolated, and conclusions are reached.

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1. Paul R. Grim, The Student Teacher in the Secondary School, p. 160. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1953.

2. Ibid.

3. Ibid., p. 161.



The informal group discussion provides abundant opportunities for each pupil to participate in the discussion. A premium is placed upon individual thinking and sharing of information, ideas, and opinions. The face-to-face relationship of pupils fosters pupil-pupil as well as teacher-pupil interaction. The informal group lends itself well to periods of various lengths and to all kinds of problems, issues, or topics.

2. The Panel Discussion. The panel consists of the chairman and usually not more than six other pupils who are seated in a semicircle before the rest of the pupils. The chairman first presents the topic to be discussed, guides the discussion, attempts to gain balance in participation, and summarizes the discussion. After the panel has finished its discussion, the chairman invites questions from the audience and, when necessary, directs these questions to various members of the panel. At the close of the period, the chairman makes a final summary of the significant points stressed and the conclusions reached.

The panel discussion lends itself well to a large group. The audience is able to secure, in a rather informal atmosphere, the ideas and thinking of the various members of the panel. The audience has limited opportunities to raise questions, to express opposing points of view, and to seek clarification or further discussion on various aspects of the topics discussed by the panel. Panel members are provided abundant opportunity to assume leadership roles.

3. The Forum Lecture. In this type of discussion, the chairman, who frequently is the teacher, presents a pupil who has prepared himself to address the group on a particular topic. After the address, the group may ask questions or challenge statements made by the speaker. Although members of the audience participate relatively little, they gain the ideas, opinions, and understandings resulting from the extensive efforts of the one pupil.

The forum-lecture type of discussion lends itself well to the utilization of specific interests and abilities of individual pupils within the group. For example, John may be able to bring to the group a wealth of information and opinions regarding the effects of aviation upon the economic, social, and political life of the community. This type of discussion also provides for the effective use in the classroom of community members who are experts in various lines of work or areas of understanding.

4. The Forum Dialogue. In the forum dialogue, two pupils rather than one appear before the group. In some



cases one of the two pupils serves primarily as an inter-lecturing capacities. The major advantage of the forum thinking of each expert is stimulated and criticized by the other. This type of discussion lends itself especially well to the discussion of controversial issues.

5. The Symposium. A symposium consists of three or more pupils who systematically discuss a specific topic before a group of pupils. Each member is responsible for briefly discussing a prearranged specific aspect of the topic. The chairman introduces each member according to a prearranged plan. After each member has discussed his part of the topic, members of the audience may raise questions or challenge members of the symposium. Near the close of the period, the chairman summarizes the pertinent points of the discussion and the conclusions that have been reached.

The symposium provides for a number of pupils to assume a leadership role in a rather formalized manner. A wide variety of topics can be discussed in a systematic manner. Little provision, however, is made for members of the symposium to interact with each other except in planning for the symposium discussion. Also, audience participation is confined largely to the role of listening.<sup>4</sup>

Conditions conducive to group discussion.--Conditions are important in establishing and maintaining an atmosphere conducive to democratic group discussion. Some of these conditions which are common to all discussion groups and which tend to facilitate the process are contained in the following:

There are some conditions common to all discussion groups which tend to facilitate the process. As mentioned previously, an informal, democratic atmosphere is conducive to thinking and discussion. So far as possible, pupils should be seated comfortably and in a face-to-face arrangement. Maximum communication normally does not take place when one pupil is forced to talk to the back of another

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4. Ibid., pp. 161-163.



pupil's head. The situation should be as free as possible of noises and actions that tend to distract the thinking of the pupils. A pleasant, friendly, and permissive relationship should exist between the teacher and the pupils. The pupils should understand clearly not only what is to be discussed but also the purposes of the discussion. Major responsibilities should be clearly defined and delegated. If a pupil is to serve as a discussion leader, a recorder, or a group observer, he should have a clear concept of his duties in fulfilling the responsibilities delegated to him by the group. The group may need to help him formulate his duties.

The pupils should be encouraged to express their own ideas and opinions clearly and to the point. Speech-making, arguments, and excessive participation on the part of any one pupil should be discouraged. Pupils should be attentive, courteous, and respectful toward one another. Criticisms and disagreements should be offered in a friendly, constructive manner. Emphasis should be placed upon "what seems to be right" rather than "who is right." Questions should be raised for purposes of clarifying meanings and testing the adequacy of data, opinions, and conclusions. Each contribution should tend to move the thinking of the group forward.<sup>5</sup>

Ways of starting classroom discussion.--It is a mistake to think that discussions may be started only by a teacher-posed question. Discussions may come out of any activity which is stimulating. Class discussions may be suggested by any of the following resources:

1. Motion picture or filmstrip
2. Bulletin board displays
3. Odd or unusual objects
4. Resource visitors
5. Newspaper items
6. Pictures
7. Local events: school, community, national

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5. Ibid., pp. 165-166. William J. Iversen, Modern  
New York: The Dryden



8. Commemorative days, for example, United Nations Day
9. Radio recordings<sup>6</sup>

The teacher must be careful in the use of the above devices. Jean D. Grambs and William J. Iverson give the following warnings concerning their use:

1. The teacher should be alert to the controversial aspects of the resource used. If an unusual object is brought to class, it should be displayed because it will excite curiosity and open up an important area of inquiry. It is essential, then, that the teacher preview the material and assess the discussion possibilities of any such resource.

2. The medium used to promote discussion may itself take up all the available time. This is particularly true of motion pictures, visitors, and recordings. If any of these take the whole class period, there will not be time to exploit the interest aroused. The next day may be too late.

3. The medium used may raise more questions than the teacher is interested in opening for discussion at this time. The teacher may be startled and upset to find the students interested in some other area than he anticipated.<sup>7</sup>

Guiding group discussion.--The teacher holds one of the most important positions in guiding group discussion. The teacher should be concerned with promoting the maximum of thinking, growth, and skill in participation in group discussions by each pupil. No pattern can be evolved which will fit every situation; however, the following suggestions by Burr, Harding, and Jacobs may be helpful:

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6. Jean D. Grambs and William J. Iverson, Modern Methods in Secondary Education, p. 175. New York: The Dryden Press, 1952.

7. Ibid.



1. Ask questions at the appropriate times. ("What do you mean?" "Could you give an example or illustration?" "How is that different from what Mary said?")
2. Keep the discussion to the point. ("Let's come back to the point directly." "We seem to be wandering." "Perhaps we need a summary of what has been said so far." "That is a very different matter, John.")
3. Guide the group to see more in the discussion than they would see independently. ("We can see more than that, I'm sure." "There are at least two other points that might be made." "What does the author mean when he says this?" "Let's look at the matter from this point of view, which you haven't mentioned so far.")
4. Help pupils develop discriminating use of words. ("Isn't that an undesirable kind of name-calling?" "Can you be more exact as to what 'patriotism' means to you?" "What proof do you have that the Japanese people all look alike?")
5. See that various points of view are given a fair hearing. ("Who has a different idea?" "Would you like to say something from a different point of view?" "John, would you like to reply to Mary from the point of view you expressed?")
6. Summarize at times when definite progress has been made. ("Where do we seem to stand now on this matter?" "Let's see what are the good ideas we've had so far?")
7. Interpret clearly with the group the individual's contribution. ("Let's be sure we see what Jean means before we go on." "If we accept what Tony says, it may change our conclusions." "Perhaps if Jack gave some examples, we'd get his point better.")
8. Point out neglected angles that have a bearing on the discussion. ("We seem to have overlooked this matter." "Maybe we should think about this, too, in our discussion.")
9. Clear up misconceptions, contrary-to-fact statements, invalid interpretations of data. ("Did you all get the same meaning from the quotation that Paul just told us about?" "The facts do not bear you out on that point, Jo." "What proof can you offer when you make that general statement?")



10. Work for the constructive expression of ideas. ("Could we restate that idea in a more helpful way?" "Does your suggestion give us clues as to what to do as well as what not to do?" "How might that be said so that we'd see better what is possible rather than just what is impossible?")<sup>8</sup>

Personal qualities for discussion leaders.--Some special personal qualities are needed in a discussion leader. They are:

1. A personal and lively interest in the subject under discussion. Good leaders do not try to promote a discussion about topics that they find boring or dull. Excitement generated by the teacher is most contagious and will help enliven a classroom group. Choosing for leaders those students with a more-than-usual interest in the subject will also help to promote student discussion.

2. An open mind about the outcomes or the pattern to be taken by the discussion. Group thinking changes as groups change. While one class arrived at one decision, another class might arrive at an opposite one. When choices are to be made, it is not wise to have a personal stake in any one choice; this is apt to spoil the genuineness of leadership. Students soon descend to the guessing-game level of participation under this kind of leadership.

3. A sense of the humorous as well as a sense of the serious. Being able to shift from low gear to high, from the light to the heavy and back again, is part of the leadership art. Ability to laugh at the unexpected remark or retort will keep young people with the leader in the more serious parts.

4. A real interest in the opinions of young people. Some adults enjoy discussions with other adults, but become bored when youngsters express naive, bigoted, or ignorant ideas. Discussion does not flower in this sort of an atmosphere.

5. An ability to repress the expression of his own opinion most of the time. Students are quick to detect what the teacher thinks is the correct point of view unless the

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8. James B. Burr, Lowry W. Harding, and Leland P. Jacobs, Student Teaching in the Elementary School, p. 257. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950.



leader is skillful in summarizing impartially both sides of an issue. As rapport is established, the teacher may, however, use the assertion of an opinion in order to encourage disagreement. However, this technique should be used carefully.<sup>9</sup>

Roles in group discussion.--All members in a study-discussion group have responsibilities. The following is a suggested list of designated functions:

Each group member:

- Helps decide on specific problems and ways of working as a group.
- Contributes ideas and suggestions related to the problem.
- Listens to what other members say and seeks helpful ideas and insights.
- Requests clarification when needed.
- Observes the group process and makes suggestions.
- Assumes various roles as needed.

The leader:

- Helps group get acquainted.
- Helps group establish ground rules.
- Reports results of pre-planning for work of group.
- Helps group proceed with planning and deciding.
- Calls on group to clarify, analyze, and summarize problems and suggested solutions.
- Draws out the "timid soul" and keeps the dominant person from monopolizing.
- Knows particular contributions which different persons can make.
- Assists recorder and observer.

The recorder:

- Keeps a record of the main problems, issues, ideas, facts, and decisions as they develop in the discussion.
- Summarizes points and reports to group from time to time as needed.
- Consults with group about kind of final reports they would like made.
- Prepares resolutions and other final reports with other designated members of the group.

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9. Grambs and Iverson, op. cit., p. 181.

Attends any scheduled clearing house or intergroup sharing committee sessions.  
 Prepares a final group report and is responsible for getting it to proper clearing house.

The observer:

Gives special attention to group progress in respect to formation and clarity of goals, degree and kind of participation and interaction, clarity and discussion, effectiveness of leadership, use of resources, progress toward goals.

Helps group decide upon ways of evaluating group progress.

Helps group observe and evaluate group progress toward goal without losing sight of the content of the discussion.

Reports to the group, if asked, regarding observation.

The resource person:

Supplies information or material at request of group or when such seems pertinent to discussion.

Cites experiences at request of group or when such seems pertinent to discussion.

Assists leader in moving toward achievement of goals.<sup>10</sup>

Evaluating group discussion.--Critical evaluation of

the processes of group discussion by the teacher and the pupils makes the group discussion increasingly effective.

Each pupil assumes responsibility for improving group effectiveness as well as improving his own skill in group participation.

Groups may wish to develop an informal check sheet upon which pupils may indicate their feelings about their own work and the work of the others in the group. Such check sheets may include a list of behavioral characteristics such

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10. Ruth E. Litchen, "How to Use Group Discussion," No. 6, How to Do It Series, p. 4. National Council for the Social Studies, 1950.



as the following: understanding of the problem, listening while others speak, interest, injecting of ideas at appropriate points, considering of ideas contrary to his own, sticking to the topics, getting to the point without delay, speaking clearly and distinctly, using appropriate language, interest in comments of others and using concepts accurately. In this way the teacher may be able to note the progress or lack of progress of each student, discover ways in which a pupil may need help, and develop plans for more effective group discussions.

Part of the discussion of the group should be devoted to an evaluation of the group procedure. The group may discover weaknesses and ways of greatly increasing its outcomes:

The following list of questions offers a brief list of some of the criteria which a group may use in evaluating its ways of working. An answer in each case toward the "yes" end of the scale indicates successful democratic process; an answer toward the "no" end of the scale indicates symptoms of poor process. A group can gauge its growth by noting whether it is moving from the "no" to the "yes" end of the scale in each respect.

1. Does every member make contributions to the discussion?
2. Is every member intensely involved in the discussion at all stages?
3. Does the discussion move toward common agreements in terms of the solution of the problem being discussed? Do all members of the group understand and accept as important the problem being discussed?
4. Is the discussion oriented toward decision and action at all times?

5. Does the group accept and understand the conflicts encountered and move toward their resolutions?

6. Does the group recognize its need for information? Does it know how to go about getting such information?

7. Does the group use resource persons or resource material as an aid to its own thinking, not as giving the final action-solution of its problem?

8. Is the group unduly dependent upon the leader or on some of its members? Does the group use its leadership as an aid to common solutions, not as a source of final solutions?

9. Is the leader accepted as a member of the group, with special functions to perform?

10. Is there an atmosphere of friendly cooperation in the group at all times, particularly when conflicts of ideas and points of view are encountered?

11. Does the group resent attempts at domination by its leader, one of its members, a clique of its members, or by a visiting expert?

12. Is there a feeling of progress toward common goals?

13. Is the group "realistic" in its choice of problems and in setting its goals?

14. Does the discussion move readily toward decision when decision is required?

15. Does the group find it possible to dispense with the creaking machinery of parliamentary procedure?<sup>11</sup>

Group discussion is an effective teaching technique.

Through discussion pupils learn to direct their thinking toward common problems and to express their ideas clearly.

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11. Grim, op. cit., pp. 169-170.



Pupils learn to respect the opinions of others and to assume responsibilities that are given by the group.

Group discussion is also of value for teachers in understanding individual pupils in the group. Through group discussion teachers develop a better understanding of the pupils' opinions, attitudes, behavior, and needs. As a result, the teacher is in a much better position to guide pupils toward democratic living.<sup>12</sup>

### Role-Playing and Sociodrama

In this section role-playing and sociodrama will be discussed. It is believed that these techniques have value in any classroom. The following statement lends support to this belief:

Role playing provides an excellent medium in which one can easily educate, guide and therapeutically treat children. It is not only a very effective method but it is great fun.... It can build a bond of friendship between children and between children and adults.<sup>13</sup>

Role playing is the spontaneous acting out of problems and situations. This idea has great value in any classroom for: gaining insight through putting oneself in another's place, exploring and practicing various approaches in solving a problem, imparting or interpreting information.<sup>14</sup>

12. Grim, op. cit., p. 160.

13. National Training Laboratory in Group Development, Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session, p. 45. Sponsored by the National Education Association and Research Center for Group Dynamics. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, 1948.

14. Mildred Fenner, "Role Playing in the Classroom," Portfolio of Teaching Techniques, p. 25. Washington, D. C.: Arthur Croft Publications, 1952.



To gain a better understanding of the techniques described in this section the following definitions are given:

We call the technique sociodrama when we are concerned mainly with the development of deeper understanding of social relations.

The technique is called psychodrama when it refers to the deeper personal-emotional problems encountered by the individual in his own life. The latter technique is used mainly by therapists and psychologists and should be used only by those trained in dealing with deep emotional problems. For the high school teacher, sociodrama is the more appropriate.

Role playing is another term that has been used recently to denote a technique very similar to sociodrama. As the name indicates, the emphasis is on the role, whereas in sociodrama the emphasis is on the problem.

The word role comes from the French word meaning a roll or scroll, on which an actor's part in a drama was written. Hence, a role is merely one part in a dramatization of a social situation, and role-playing implies acting a part in relation to other people in a group in a particular situation.<sup>15</sup>

Principles of role playing.--An analysis of the technique reveals certain underlying principles; they are as follows:

1. Role-playing is a means toward an end--something the teacher wants to achieve. It is not a cure for everything that ails a child, a class, or a school. But it is the tool which may be useful in the exploration of any situation--curricular or extracurricular--in which actions or emotions or beliefs of people are considered.

2. Successful role-playing demands that the teacher think in terms of goals and purposes. Sometimes this means detailed guidance. For this purpose particular scenes are set up to bring out varying interpretations, facts, and opinions.

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15. Grambs and Iverson, op. cit., p. 187.



Sometimes the skill lies in the exact opposite of this careful control, that is, in creating conditions in which the role-playing arises spontaneously on the suggestion of students.

3. Role-playing should be a stimulant to thinking, not an escape from the discipline of learning. Points of view of wide variety may be expressed. Role-playing, when used as an aid in teaching subject matter, can introduce a unit. It can also serve as a transition from one topic to another.

4. There is no one best way of choosing the characters. Circumstances determine the method.

The teacher may choose the parts. Sometimes the group may do the assigning--if the teacher can be sure no child will be the victim of spite or tactlessness. No one should have to play a part which embarrasses him or hurts his feelings.

Students who volunteer identify themselves with a particular role. No matter how the characters are selected, enthusiasm, sincerity, and willingness to enter wholeheartedly into a role are more important than dramatic ability. And giving everyone a chance--in small casts of two or three or four at a time--is more to be desired than letting a talented few monopolize.

5. Rehearsal kills the sociodrama. The temptation to coach the characters, to develop dialogue and script, to introduce a plot, and to run through the scene ahead of time can be almost irresistible. To yield to this temptation is to defeat the spirit which gives life to role-playing. Each participant will be much more likely to identify himself with the person he represents if he speaks on the impulse of reactions to the conversation as it progresses.

Often the role-players need to have a short time in which to plan, away from the larger group, what the setting and the characterizations are to be. This opportunity for planning is, of course, quite different from rehearsal.

6. The most valuable part of the experience is often not the role-playing itself but the threshing-out period following the drama. Teacher, members of the cast, and those who have been watching can make the episode much more meaningful by asking questions after role-playing.

7. Role-playing can, and usually should, be brief. It is a slice out of life. There is much to be said for cutting at the height of interest. This may be after three minutes; certainly not more than ten.



When in doubt, cut too soon rather than too late. If the boys and girls protest that they are not given the chance to round out ideas they had in mind, allow them a little more time. Or let them decide, as audience or cast, when a given role-playing should end.

8. Misuse of role-playing is worse than no role-playing at all. Use of role-playing demands planning and thought. Role-playing does not take the place of other types of teaching and learning. It is a supplement and a challenge to both.<sup>16</sup>

Uses of role-playing in the classroom.---The following uses of role-playing will be of value to teachers in working with groups:

1. Preparing for new experiences such as the first airplane ride,...junior-high or high-school life, taking up a vocation, dating and interest in the opposite sex....

2. Preparing for the unexpected emergencies and accidents such as a fire in the house, what to do when the adult in charge faints or becomes unconscious, what to do when lost from one's family or group, helping the adolescent assume responsibility.

3. Increasing social acceptability and understanding of other people's point of view such as meeting people, introducing, including a non-group member in an activity....

4. Helping solve social conflict situations by... teaching the adolescent to make group decisions, etc.

5. Furthering an understanding of subject matter and increasing vocabulary.<sup>17</sup>

Introducing role-playing.---It is easy to introduce role-playing by entering an already existing play and becoming a part of the dramatic play. The teacher is accepted as a

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16. Fenner, op. cit., pp. 26-28.

17. Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session, op. cit., pp. 45-46.



member in this type of activity. When planning for such activity it is important to:

1. Keep the episode well within the realm of the pupil's knowledge and experiences.
2. Make it simple at first so they can be sure to guess the answer.
3. Help them verbalize what you are doing if necessary.
4. Be sure it's fun.
5. Invite pupils<sup>18</sup> to join in the activity with you when they show interest.

After gaining the pupil's cooperation and interest, you can introduce much more complex situations. When the feeling of friendship is well established, the pupil should be encouraged to take the leadership role and the teacher should only give suggestions when necessary.

Suggestions for continuing role-playing.--After the pupil is introduced to role-playing, care must be taken to keep his interest at a high level. The following are some suggestions:

1. Always give approval and praise even for the poorest attempt at role-playing. People need assurance in trying a new skill. However, it is necessary to give a few suggestions of how it might be done differently to further their growth. In the older ages this can be done as group evaluation.

2. It is very important to relate the episode to the individual's experience, his needs.

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18. Ibid., p. 46.

3. Always vary the situation so that no one pattern becomes a habit.

4. Follow the players' lead.

5. Creativity and flexibility are essential to successful role-playing.

6. Always have plans ready but be willing to take the players' suggestions.

7. With older ages use discussion to clarify important points.<sup>19</sup>

Role-playing is especially useful in any situation where various kinds of leadership problems are being discussed. A teacher who advises the student council may need to aid the president of the student body in appropriate role behavior. By acting out some of the typical experiences in presiding, the president may become better equipped to carry out his responsibilities. Similarly, an athletic team captain may be able to work out appropriate ways of encouraging the members of his team.

Role-playing can often be used in guidance. A group of boys may be unable to participate in social affairs because they completely fear the tete-a-tete situation with a girl. Sometimes a visitor can act the girl's role, since it might be difficult to get a student to act this role without feeling embarrassed.

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19. Ibid., pp. 46-47.



Sociodrama.--In the introduction to this section it was pointed out that role playing and sociodrama are very closely related, and the difference between the techniques was defined. Although the underlying principles of sociodrama and role-playing are similar, it seems necessary to describe certain facets of each technique separately.

Sociodrama differs from the usual type of dramatic work in that no script is needed, no memorizing of parts or rehearsal is required. The value of sociodrama as a teaching device lies in the spontaneity of presentation. Three prerequisites for sociodrama are as follows:

The class should have a cooperative group feeling and a common interest in the issue at hand; the experience should be regarded as a means of learning, not entertaining.<sup>20</sup>

Steps in giving a sociodrama.--The specific steps to be taken in putting on a sociodrama are described below. These steps are merely suggested. After one or two tries, the teacher probably will want to alter or adapt them to suit his own situation.

1. Selecting the situation. The situation should, first, be a fairly simple one, revolving about one main idea or issue. Secondly, the situation should be one involving personalities. The issues should be those that arise because people have different desires, beliefs, hopes, and aspirations, or they should be problems that arise from the inability of people to understand the point of view of others. When introducing this technique for the first time, the teacher should have an idea for a sociodrama situation clearly in

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20. Grambs and Iverson, op. cit., p. 187.



mind. Later, the class members will be eager to describe situations of their own choosing and select the roles that should be taken. Situations that require from two to four characters are easiest to begin with. Larger numbers are confusing until students know more about what they are supposed to do.

2. Choosing participants. When first trying out sociodrama, the teacher should select the students who are fairly well informed on the issue to be presented, and who are imaginative, articulate, and self-assured. The "show-off" often freezes up or clowns absurdly; the shy student feels insecure and inadequate. Both types can be assisted in their own personality adjustment by first being given minor prop roles, such as that of secretary or doorman, and later being allowed to take larger roles. It will also be found that those with dramatic training are not necessarily the best participants in spontaneous dramatics, since sociodrama draws upon the individual's own resources of feeling and imagination.

It would probably be advisable not to ask for volunteers for sociodrama until such time as the students initiate the program themselves. In selecting participants, the teacher should also make use of his knowledge of each student's background and needs, placing the student in roles and situations that will be of benefit to him.

3. Setting the stage. When the participants have been selected, they should be sent out of the room or to some quiet corner for about two minutes. They should be instructed to "think themselves into" the roles they are to take. The participants may want to decide together how the scene will look, where the furniture will be, who will enter first, and other details of staging. Later, the class as a whole may describe the complete setting before the participants are selected.

4. Preparing the audience. While the participants are out of the room for their two minutes of thinking, the teacher should direct the class to observe the action as though each one were acting in it. The students should ask themselves: Is this the way these people act and feel in real life? The students should be concerned with how a housewife would act and what she would say when defending her interest in soap operas, rather than how Harriet Smith acted as the housewife.

5. Acting out the situation. When directing sociodrama the teacher becomes a cross between director and audience. When a student seems to be slipping out of his



role, the teacher should remind him of what he is trying to do. When the students seem to reach a dead end, the teacher should cut the situation short. However, the teacher should otherwise allow the action to follow its own pattern as completely as possible, since this very naturalness, the feeling of freedom to become wholly involved in the situation, contributes immeasurably to the reality and the success of the sociodrama. Few sociodramas will last more than five minutes, unless the situation is very complicated or the students have a great deal of information.

6. Follow-up. When the situation is finished, the class will be eager with comments. This stimulation of discussion, centering on how people feel and why they act as they do, is one of the basic contributions of sociodrama. The students may have so many ideas for a re-enactment of the situation that it may be appropriate to go through it again with new actors. On the other hand, the students may feel that more knowledge is necessary before trying again and may want to do more reading and study about the personalities involved. This outcome of course is most desirable, and the alert teacher will make the most of his opportunity.

The participants should also report upon how they felt as they acted through the sociodrama. This feeling will provide a clue to the teacher of the depth of insight of the students into the wellsprings of human emotion.

In the follow-up, as in the preparatory period, the teacher should always stress that no one is expected to do a perfect job in sociodrama. The teacher should make a point of expressing pleasant surprise at how well the students have succeeded in the task. Sociodrama can, in this manner, be an effective learning medium, providing both students and teacher an opportunity for joint creative experience.<sup>21</sup>

Examples of sociodrama.--The situations given below illustrate the kind of situations that are possible in high school classrooms for the use of sociodrama:

1. The young people in a small community have started a youth group. They meet for a few weeks at a local church. Even the minister agrees with them that social dancing is an appropriate activity for them, but because of local tradition, he does not feel free to have them dance at the church.

21. Ibid., pp. 189-191.



Failing any other meeting place, the young people decide to approach the high school principal for the use of the local school building after hours. The principal is responsible to a tough school board, which includes church members.

2. Ted works for his father on the farm. He knows that the war years have been the first financially easy ones his parents have ever had, and that every penny of the family is accounted for in advance. He gets a moderate allowance from the profits, but, since he last year chose the farm as his life's work, he feels that some more businesslike arrangements should have been made with his father. For example, he may want sometime to marry or to have a car of his own when he can afford it. Right now both seem impossible. He does need more allowance, however, because he has a girl he's known for a long time and whom he's just asked to go steady.

3. Larry has been working hard to become financially independent of his parents by raising and selling some live-stock of his own. While he is having a late breakfast with his father and mother on Sunday morning, a hot-tempered neighbor storms in to accuse Larry of letting a bull get out and destroy his vegetable garden. Neither Larry nor his parents have even met the neighbor, who keeps vicious dogs around his place and discourages visitors of any kind.

4. Since finishing high school John Rowan has worked with his father at farming. The family is well enough off, and John has been thinking for a year or so about going to college. He could take agriculture, but lately he's thought about being a veterinarian, or perhaps, a rural sociologist. He is an only child, and his parents have always thought of him as wanting to stay at home. John's father, too, hasn't much patience with college education for farmers and is supremely happy that John seems never to have mentioned wanting to go away from home. With John's help, now, Mr. Rowan is sure that he can take it easier around the farm. Finally, John can just take over, but that will not be for some time.

5. Bruce Schaeffer and his wife Mary are both interested in leadership jobs in their rural community. They want to begin by organizing not only the young people but the parents into some community recreation. A major problem is how to approach all the different religious and cultural groups (each will have different attitudes) in the town. Many difficulties are encountered in getting all these groups



working together. Parents are harder to bring together than the young people.<sup>22</sup>

There are many variations on this technique which the teacher will soon find out for himself. Experience in a sociodrama is the best way to discover what this method can accomplish for the participants.

Evaluating sociodramas.--The sociodrama technique works better if frequent evaluations are held. For instance one history teacher assigned portions of the textbook chapter to groups of two or three to act out. After each series of enactments, an evaluation committee reported on the presentation of the sociodramas and suggested improvements for next time. Some of the suggestions were like these: "Don't turn your back on the audience." "Don't giggle or act silly." "Make clear to the group just what you are supposed to represent." "Select something exciting." These suggestions provide impetus toward a better job next time. Through constant encouragement to improve, the students learn discrimination as well as gain in poise and freedom before a group.

Sometimes the sociodrama group may summarize in writing the main principle that it hopes to project. The principle is not announced in advance, of course, but the audience is alerted to its responsibility to catch the main

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22. Harshfield, H. W., and J. P. Schmidt, Playing Out Our Problems in Sociodrama (Pamphlet), pp. 22-23. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Agric. Extension Service, 1948.

idea. A brief quiz to check up after a series of sociodramas used for review will show how well the group made its point. The success of the groups in projecting concepts may furnish guides for continuing training in selecting problems for sociodrama.<sup>23</sup>

### Sociometric Techniques

It is the purpose of this section to describe some sociometric techniques that may be used for studying groups. Although many of the techniques were intended by their originators for use in the study of individuals, their results and findings may be interpreted in terms of groups.

Classroom social distance scale<sup>24</sup>—The value of this technique for teachers in understanding group behavior is described in the following statement:

This is one of the most revealing devices for the observation of group behavior. Results of its use give us insight into the wide range of acceptance the group extends to individual members, as well as the range of acceptance individuals feel for the group.<sup>25</sup>

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23. Grambs and Iverson, op. cit., pp. 194-195.

24. See Appendix, p. 145, for sample classroom social distance scale.

25. Ruth Cunningham, et. al., Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls, p. 352. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951.



Check sheet of opportunities in human relations.<sup>26</sup>--The

major purposes of this check sheet are to discover the range of activities in which members of the group engage, and the values they place upon them. There are also opportunities to indicate the pupil's opinion of the degree of adult control and to show to whom the pupil would go for help with personal problems.

Springfield interest finder.<sup>27</sup>--This technique is an

important tool to discover the range of group interests and reactions.

Social analysis of the classroom.<sup>28</sup>--This technique is

a modification of the "Guess Who" type of tool. Each member of the class is asked to list those members of the group who could be described by the statements on the form.

For purposes of group study, if five or more members of the class indicate a certain statement as being descriptive of a person that fact is significant about his behavior.

California Test of Personality.--Although devised as a test of individual personality, this test is valuable when scored as a group measure. That is, the score for each item

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26. See Appendix, p. 146, for check sheet of opportunities in human relations.

27. See Appendix, p. 154, for a copy of the Springfield Interest Finder.

28. See Appendix, p. 155, for sample social analysis of the classroom.

is computed for the group instead of for each pupil. This makes it possible to identify group problems.<sup>29</sup>

Wishing well.<sup>30</sup>--This device is helpful in discovering children who feel a lack of belonging. Its major value lies in group scores. It is devised to be used without names of individuals, but it is even more valuable when pupils sign their names. When rapport is high, there is no reason for not using names. If good rapport has not been established, the results will be valueless in any event.<sup>31</sup>

Guide for group observation.<sup>32</sup>--This is a guide for observation and recording of what is in group process, rather than what ought to be. The major purpose of this form is to help in making objective observations of what actually happens in the group.<sup>33</sup>

Identification sheet of group behavior.<sup>34</sup>--This sheet is an excellent guide for recording under certain behavior

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29. The California Test of Personality is available from the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

30. Developed by Test Bureau, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

31. The Wishing Well is available from Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

32. See Appendix, p. 150, for observation form.

33. Adapted from guide prepared by College Study in Intergroup Relations, American Council of Education.

34. See Appendix, p. 153, for identification sheet.



items the names of children who consistently show this behavior.<sup>35</sup>

Study of group composition.--This study lists certain categories in which to list the names of children who are in your group whom you feel to be outstanding in the characteristics.

Sociogram.--A sociogram is an important technique that enables the teacher to gain insight into the network of relationships in his classroom. As its name implies, the sociogram measures social relationships. It reveals mutual choices, cliques, isolates, and those who are rejected by the group.

#### Group Planning

In the literature pertaining to group dynamics there appears a significant body of material that deals with group planning. It is evident in such phrases as the following: "Teacher-pupil sharing,"<sup>36</sup> "Teacher-pupil planning,"<sup>37</sup> and "cooperative group planning."<sup>38</sup>

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35. Prepared by Gertrude P. Driscoll, Teacher's College, Columbia University.

36. Lindley J. Stiles and Mattie Dorsey, Democratic Teaching in Secondary Schools, p. 299. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott, 1950.

37. Grim, op. cit., p. 172.

38. Group Planning in Education, op. cit., p. 131.

The task of learning to think together is not easy, and it is the school's responsibility to equip students with the competences necessary for effective group planning.

The role of the teacher.--The teacher must help students determine the objectives toward which they will work in the classroom and help students achieve their goals.

Evidence in support of this view is presented as follows:

Pupil planning and pupil-teacher planning, used steadily, consistently, and intelligently will carry the children far toward realizing successfully their adult role in the school and community.<sup>39</sup>

A good lesson for teachers is that much responsibility may be placed on students, not only for determining their objectives, but for planning ways of achieving these objectives.<sup>40</sup>

The outcomes to be achieved in the application of the process of group planning in the classroom are conditioned by the understandings of teachers regarding certain procedures and requirements involved in teacher-pupil planning experiences.<sup>41</sup>

The idea that no planning by the teacher is needed in advance of planning with the pupils reflects a gross misunderstanding of the teacher-pupil planning process. The successful teacher finds it necessary to include the following in pre-class planning:

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39. Ibid., p. 74.

40. Toward Better Schools in Tennessee, p. 8. Nashville, Tennessee: State Department of Education Bulletin, 1948.

41. Group Planning in Education, op. cit., p. 12.



1. Consideration for appropriate sequence between previous classroom situations and anticipated classroom experiences.

2. Consideration of means to care more adequately for individual and group needs.

3. Consideration of ways to secure improvement in responses of pupils when planning.

4. Selection of materials and references.

5. Examination of problems and difficulties that may be encountered by pupils.

6. Selection of content that may evoke new interest.

7. Consideration of procedures to motivate reflective discussion and thinking by the pupils.<sup>42</sup>

A second concern of the teacher in planning is expressed in the following statement:

Purposeful planning must give attention to the expressed interests of the pupils, although planning cannot be restricted solely to their immediate interests.... If the work of the classroom is confined to immediate interests, the pupils suffer from expressing the discovery of new interests<sup>43</sup>

Teacher-pupil planning requires that the teacher keep an eye on long range planning and provides a definite responsibility for the teacher to provide meaningful activities that use group planning in the classroom.

It is important that the teacher in planning provide an opportunity for every student in the group to participate in planning. One of the purposes to be achieved in the

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42. Ibid.

43. Ibid., p. 14.

classroom is an exchange of thinking on the part of every member of the group. Pupils who are too ready to offer suggestions or to give ideas should be encouraged to recognize that one of their responsibilities in the group situation is to give other pupils a chance to be heard.

The dangers are evident in situations where a teacher attempts to use the planning process as a means to sell ready-made plans or ideas to the group.

The role of the student.--In the classroom setting the student should be given opportunity to plan in a group the objectives of the group. This is to be done with the help of the teacher. It is believed that he must learn through his classroom experiences the techniques and attitudes that are necessary for effective planning. These activities in classroom situations can not only meet the interests of children but at the same time help them develop qualities that are essential in members of a democratic society. The following statements support this belief:

Teacher-pupil planning activities in the various types of classroom situations can be so directed as to meet the needs of children and at the same time help them become aware of their responsibility for thinking about the needs of society and the duties of citizens in a democratic society.

The teacher does not do all of the planning for the activities that go on in the classroom or school. Pupils, too, should have a share. Opportunities for pupil cooperation



are necessary in order to develop the social skills needed by members of a democratic society.<sup>44</sup>

Through cooperative planning, pupils have an opportunity to develop qualities essential to participation in the democratic way of life.<sup>45</sup>

It is in the classroom setting that the process of teacher-pupil planning has meaning. Only as teachers and pupils are able to work together toward commonly accepted goals does the process become a reality.<sup>46</sup>

The practice of democracy is difficult. It will require the utmost effort to achieve progress toward it. The school which attempts such practice is in for an arduous adventure--arduous but it is a great adventure, the attempt to embody the world--all striving of all men for a full and happy life. How do you begin? By planning. Who will plan? All concerned.<sup>47</sup>

#### Criteria and principles for evaluating group planning.

The following criteria and principles may be used in an evaluation of group planning in teaching:

Criterion 1: Does the planning described:

- a. Give opportunity and encourage all members of the group to participate in thinking, doing, and evaluating?
- b. Give employment to varied kinds of interest and present ability?
- c. Begin with the question of why planning is important in achieving liberty, equality, and opportunity?

Principle: Every normal human being desires to grow and to learn. We learn by doing.

Criterion 2: Does the planning start with all members of the group exploring possible subjects, materials, methods, forms of expression, evaluation?

<sup>44</sup>. Curriculum Planning for Our Schools, p. 101. Nashville, Tennessee: State Department of Education Bulletin, 1950.

<sup>45</sup>. Ibid., p. 105.

<sup>46</sup>. Ibid., p. 100.

<sup>47</sup>. Group Planning in Education, op. cit., p. 142.



Principle: Every normal human being has special interests and attitudes.

Criterion 3: Does the planning give scope to individual interests?

Principle: Every normal human being wants to "belong," to have status in and recognition by the group.

Criterion 4: Is the planning broad and inclusive as to subject matter, so that it centers on problems or inquiries which are of real importance to all members of the group?

Principle: For the healthy individual and society, the life process is continuous, and so is growth and education.

Criterion 5: Does the group planning lead to continuity, connection with past and future experience? Does the program lead to more seeking, learning, and so forth, and to refinement of skills?

Principle: Life and growth are not stable and absolute in quality. There is constant change and interaction.

Criterion 6: Is the planning itself and are the things planned flexible? Is there evidence of provision for new definitions of purpose and procedure as new elements are met?

Principle: Human desires and attitudes, like human experiences, are of many kinds. They promote many degrees of understanding and skill.

Criterion 7: Does the planning extend to many uses of many kinds of resources suited to many interests and skills?

Principle: Self-confidence is a prime requisite to adventurous, healthy, continuous learning.

Criterion 8: Does the planning include ways to recognize as well as stimulate the contributions of all to the common purpose?

Principle: An order, a logic, a chance for experience is desired by every person.

Criterion 9: Does the planning itself, as well as the thing planned, have order and form?<sup>48</sup>



It is believed that these principles and criteria should be of help to teachers in determining the educational value of group planning.

### Group Guidance and Counseling

The purpose of this section is to describe the role of the classroom teacher in group guidance and counseling. Techniques that the teacher may use for understanding the interpersonal relationships of the classroom will be presented. Group activities that have value in a guidance program will be enumerated.

The classroom guidance situation.--The kind of classroom atmosphere under which group guidance takes place most effectively is developed by consideration of the following criteria for classroom practice:

1. Creation of freedom with rules.
2. Providing significant areas of choice.
3. Providing for participation by all members.
4. Creation of a feeling of responsibility on the part of all members.
5. Creation of a feeling of being valued.
6. Use of the experimental approach to subject matter.<sup>49</sup>

To carry on adequate group guidance, the teacher must have greater than average ability to create a permissive atmosphere, that is, one in which the teacher actively accepts the way students feel and think.

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49. Grambs and Iverson, op. cit., p. 65.

The following statement describes this permissive atmosphere in the classroom:

The permissive atmosphere is one in which a minimum of information and advice is handed out to the child. This applies not only to advice on personal matters but to advice which is carelessly distributed in the process known as teaching.... The permissive and understanding atmosphere is one in which independence, rather than dependence, is developed.<sup>50</sup>

Classroom teachers do a large amount of counseling as they direct the group, but they do not counsel at the same level as clinical counselors. Carl Rogers supports this belief in the following:

Attitudes learned in the clinical setting even though they are genuine, are not easily transferred to other social settings.... There is, however, a social therapeutic approach of leadership.<sup>51</sup>

The principles of leadership in group guidance are much the same as those for individual nondirective counseling. They include the following:

1. The leader's comments are basically reflections and clarifications of the expressed feelings of the speaker, or a comment which indicates an understanding and acceptance of the feeling.

2. If a student does not wish to speak, he is not pressed to join the conversation.

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50. Dugald S. Arbuckle, Teacher Counseling, p. 159. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Addison Wesley Press, 1950.

51. Carl R. Rogers, Client Centered Therapy, p. 32. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951.



3. If the conversation lags, the teacher does not direct the thinking of the students in the "right" channels.

4. The leader at no time criticizes, moralizes, or acts as judge.

5. The atmosphere is permissive so that each student may say as much or as little as he wants.<sup>52</sup>

Suggestions for group counselors.--The Commission on Character Education of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association has listed sixteen "suggestions to non-professional counselors" as follows:

1. The best attitude is one of cheerful, thoughtful objectivity, avoiding pronounced sympathizing, condemnation, or an air of easy optimism or slap-'em-on-the-back.

2. Remember the whole child. While you work for one character objective, take care lest you get undesirable by-products in other character objectives.

3. The child with extreme withdrawing, recessive characteristics is as much a problem in need of individual help as is the child with extreme aggressive characteristics. Too great shyness may mean more potential trouble than too great forwardness.

4. Utilize all readily accessible data, such as those relating to health, school progress, and home conditions. Cumulative pupil records already available in most schools furnish a large amount of valuable information.

5. Avoid treating symptoms. Try to find out why the child acts as he does, and then fit the treatment to the cause of the difficulty.

6. In some cases, the counselee should be kept informed of the purpose of the counselor, and should be

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52. Arbuckle, op. cit., p. 447.



appealed to consciously to aid in solving the problem. In other cases the counselee may be kept in partial or complete ignorance of the changes desired in him. The counselor should use whichever plan seems appropriate in any particular case.

7. Single experiences do not afford grounds for generalization. Vivid incidents are particularly to be distrusted. Habitual and recurring behavior is the significant source of data.

8. Do not offer authoritative explanations. By the use of other cases and of questions, build up in the counselee his own reasonable interpretation of his behavior.

9. Expect patterns. Among the more common are dependence, fear of the new, avoidance of people, breakdowns, running away from a situation, projecting the blame onto an individual of a given type, and displacement that makes a mountain out of a molehill.

10. Do not give advice. Give the experience of yourself and others so far as it is useful, taking particular care to emphasize the differences in the situation faced by the counselee. No two persons have faced exactly the same situation. What the counselee needs is ability to handle situations himself, not advice to follow.

11. Emphasize success rather than failure. Seek to arrange situations which will give the child a taste of success.

12. It is sometimes necessary to study other persons than the one immediately involved. A problem child means at least one and probably two problem parents.

13. It is seldom possible to depend exclusively upon the readjustment of the persons and objects in the environment, or upon the new insight and attitude of the person being advised. Both are usually in need of some readjustment.

14. Keep confidences inviolate.

15. Avoid letting the plans focus on too distant goals without adequate attention to immediate steps. Help the counselee plan on improving adjustment this week, not console himself with phantasy. The past and future exist to enrich the present.



16. Learn to identify early the cases which require a specialist, and be willing to refer them to him.<sup>53</sup>

Role-playing as a guidance technique.--Role-playing and sociodrama are of special value as group guidance techniques.<sup>54</sup> An example of the use of role-playing in guidance is given in the following:

If the situation is one revolving around the personal problems of boys and girls much value is derived from playing out the situation. Suppose that the school realizes that one of its problems is the early school leaving of some of the older boys. A homeroom might play out some of the typical situations involved in this problem. The teacher could introduce the idea, "What is the value of a high-school education?" and develop a class sociodrama about whether it is, or is not, worthwhile to stay in school as long as possible.<sup>55</sup>

It is believed that such acting out of important real-life problems, based upon a well-founded study of the students, is a valuable technique of group guidance.

Sociometric techniques.<sup>56</sup>--Sociometric techniques reveal the relationships that exist in the class, and have value for promoting group adjustment. Further values of these techniques are given in the following statement:

53. A. L. Threlkeld, Chairman of the Commission, Character Education, Tenth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association, 1931, pp. 251-252. As found in Barbara H. Wright, Practical Handbook for Group Guidance, p. 90. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1948.

54. See Chapter IV, section on Role-Playing and Sociodrama, p. 94.

55. Grambs and Iverson, op. cit., p. 448.

56. See Chapter IV, section on Sociometric Techniques, p. 105.

Where a teacher finds a class difficult to handle, where discipline problems emerge often, where teacher-pupil conflict is apparent, a sociometric questionnaire is useful. The teacher may thus be aided in identifying group leaders and the inner groupings of the class. With these indicators the teacher can plan group activities to obtain a better social structure.<sup>57</sup>

Sociometric techniques are valuable guidance aids for teachers. Group activities based on sociometric choice improve group morale and permit more group planning. It is believed that teachers should be familiar with sociometric techniques as a way of studying and working with young people.

Activities for group guidance.---The all-school assembly is probably the most common group meeting in American high schools. Guidance workers testify that the school assembly ranks with classes and homerooms as a helpful guidance vehicle.<sup>58</sup>

Careful planning and skillful guidance are needed if the school assembly proves a valuable educational experience. Assembly programs providing interesting group experiences may be those which:

1. Promote good sportsmanship.
2. Emphasize correct audience habits.
3. Give information concerning curricular and co-curricular activities.

curricular activities.

57. Grambs and Iverson, op. cit., p. 462.

58. Wright, op. cit., p. 75.



4. Stimulate interest in all-school projects. The

5. Dramatize the customs, traditions, and ideals of the school.<sup>59</sup>

Assembly programs should be carefully planned with adequate pupil participation under friendly guidance. The best secondary school assemblies grow out of the work of some class or club. Teachers might suggest that:

1. A class present a vocational guidance skit.<sup>60</sup>

2. The commercial club dramatize correct business manners.

3. The home economics class present a style pageant.

4. The English club dramatize a recent book.<sup>60</sup>

School clubs provide a framework within which the students learn independent action and have a chance to develop skill in exercising judgment. The role of the teacher as a club sponsor is described in the following.

The teacher then must be able to be neutral, to let the young people talk as they wish about subjects that seem significant to them. Unless this can be established, the club situation like any other adult-dominated situation will not permit students to learn responsibility.<sup>61</sup>

Many schools include guidance-conference techniques in planning their group-guidance programs. The conferences of

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59. William A. Yeager, School Community Relations, p. 174. New York: Dryden Press, 1951.

60. Ibid.

61. Grambs and Iverson, op. cit., p. 500.

are variously called "Career Days," or "Guidance Days." The procedure ordinarily involves a check list on which each pupil records areas of his greatest interests. These interests are compiled, and a number of different sectional meetings are held. Then representatives from the fields involved are invited to speak and to counsel individual members of the group. <sup>62</sup>

Orientation programs are important ways to build school morale and to insure a "sense of belonging." Invitations may be sent to all students who will be freshmen in a school the next year to visit the school on a certain afternoon or evening.

The new students are then introduced to the principal and their homeroom advisers who show them about the building and help them get acquainted with the students of their new group. It is not to be assumed that this list of activities for group guidance purposes is complete. It contains only representative activities in the many areas of group guidance.

Guidance units in regular courses are so important that they should not be left to chance. They should be written as units into the courses of study. More and more of such units are finding their way into the organized curriculum. The following topics for guidance units are important:

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62. Wright, op. cit., p. 80.



1. The (name of school) High School Code of Behavior.

2. Human Relations

3. Taking Stock (Self-Evaluation)

4. The Wise Use of Leisure Time

5. How to Study

6. The Importance of Planning

7. Getting the Most out of School

### Co-Curricular Activities

The purpose of this section is to present a brief description of some major co-curricular activities and to point out ways in which groups gain experience in them.

The student council.--The student council consists of elected representatives from the student body. Its functions are described in the following statement:

The chief function of the student council is to provide pupils with an opportunity to learn the meanings of democratic citizenship.... If the council functions properly, it uncovers the varying viewpoints of pupils and bases its recommendations on the general needs of pupils and the policies of the school.<sup>63</sup>

Among the activities often discharged by student councils are the following:

1. Providing for the election of school representatives.
2. Cooperating with faculty council or representative.

63. Grim, op. cit., p. 345.

3. Supervising school charity.
4. Assigning penalties.
5. Developing a code of behavior.<sup>64</sup>

Student publications.--Student publications provide activities which enable the pupil to express himself, form his opinions, present and receive needed information about the school and through these means to create better understandings between the school, the home and the community?

These usually include the school newspaper, the magazine, the yearbook and other miscellaneous student publications which foster better school relations with administrators and the community as a whole.<sup>65</sup>

Assembly programs.<sup>66</sup>--The assembly program offers an opportunity through pupil participation to interpret the work of the public school. Assembly programs should be carefully planned with adequate pupil participations under friendly guidance.<sup>67</sup>

Club activities.<sup>68</sup>--Club activities and school societies must have a place in the daily program, and provision should

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<sup>64</sup>. Joe Smith, Student Councils, p. 40. New York: Columbia University, 1951.

<sup>65</sup>. Yeager, op. cit., p. 171.

<sup>66</sup>. See Chapter IV, section on Group Guidance and Counseling, p. 119.

<sup>67</sup>. Yeager, op. cit., p. 174.

<sup>68</sup>. See Chapter IV, section on Group Guidance and Counseling, p. 120.



be made for limiting and encouraging participation. There are scores of activities that are available for pupils in all schools. On what basis should these activities be selected?

In answering this question, the use of some standards or criteria as the following should be helpful.

1. Will the activity be interesting to the group?
2. Will it encourage initiative and originality?
3. Will it enlarge the student's horizon?
4. Will it develop group responsibility?
5. Will it lead to further interests in the group?
6. Will it help to develop cooperation with school-

mates, teachers, and administrators?

7. Will it promote school citizenship?

8. Will it help members of the group assume adult

responsibilities?<sup>69</sup>

Music, drama, and athletic activities.--The glee

club, school chorus, drama clubs and athletic teams are of marked value as group activities. Students know that the part they play must be blended and coordinated with the activities of the group. The very nature of these activities gives them a strong socializing effect. Important and prominent though these activities may be, some cautions need to be

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69. E. Feuerstein and M. R. Martin, "Activities of a School Council," Elementary School Journal, 37 (January, 1947), 370-371.

exercised in their administration. There is strong pressure for each group to excel all others in the school, as well as those in other schools. The temptation to submerge all values except excellence of production becomes so great that an activity established to serve wide group participation will exploit a few pupils to give the school fame. Then no longer are these activities valuable for group use.

These co-curricular activities provide excellent opportunities for using the techniques and skills of group dynamics. Within this framework teachers have many opportunities for working with students in cooperative group work.

### Summary

This chapter of the study has included techniques and practices that involve the use of group dynamics. The following techniques were considered:

Role-playing and sociodrama were presented as effective ways to engage active participation by students. It was pointed out that teachers can determine the values that students hold from participation in these techniques.

It was shown that through effective group discussions pupils learn to direct their thinking toward common problems and to consider and respect the ideas and opinions of others. In addition, the chapter has shown that teachers find group



discussion a valuable means of furthering their understanding of individual pupils within the group.

Emphasis was placed upon group planning as a technique for putting group thinking into action. Evidence in the chapter has shown that group planning emerges as pupils define a group problem and consider ways and means of solving it.

Sociometric techniques were included that have value for teachers in understanding emotional problems in the group and problems of individual adjustment to the group.

The role of the classroom teacher in group guidance and counseling was described and activities for a group guidance program were suggested.

To accomplish the purpose of the chapter, it seemed necessary to include a study of the techniques that have been described. It is not to be assumed that this list includes all the ways and means of using group dynamics in the classroom. It is hoped that a careful study of these major techniques will establish a frame of reference for other techniques that utilize the principles of group dynamics.

## CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It has been the purpose of this study to determine the implications of group dynamics for teaching in the secondary school. To reach this objective three sub-problems have been investigated.

1. To review and analyze the literature that is related to group dynamics.

2. To determine the underlying point of view for philosophy of group dynamics.

3. To identify and suggest techniques and practices in group dynamics that have value for teachers in the secondary school.

Through the use of the documentary type of research, data was collected for this study. The chief sources of information were: books, brochures, reports, and periodicals related to this investigation; and experimental, case, and survey studies that have contributed to the advancement of group dynamics as an area of scientific investigation.

The data from these sources was carefully analyzed and classified, making it possible to determine the separate facets of group dynamics and definite implications of group dynamics for teaching.



## Review of the Literature

To achieve the purpose of the study it seemed necessary to review the literature that is related to the investigation. It is not to be assumed that it was possible to include all the research that has been done in this area or all the literature that has contributed to an understanding of group dynamics. An attempt was made to secure information that would determine the implications of group dynamics for teaching. Consistent with this point of view, a careful survey of the literature was made.

Since the pioneer research in group dynamics was conducted by the Research Center for Group Dynamics, it seemed necessary to include in this study a review of the work that has been done in the last decade by this organization. From such a review it was possible to determine the kind of research that has been done in this area, and to trace its progress from the early efforts of scientists to develop research techniques that were applicable to group life to scientifically created group situations in laboratories and the invention of "action research" with its emphasis upon conducting experiments in natural groups.

To provide organization for a review of the literature in this field, it seemed logical to use the six areas of

investigation that were considered by Dorwin Cartwright in his report of the Research Center for Group Dynamics. The areas are:

1. Group Productivity
2. Communication and Spread of Influence
3. Social Perception
4. Intergroup Relations
5. Group Membership and Individual Adjustment
6. Training Leaders and Improving Group Functioning<sup>1</sup>

The data that has been included in each of these areas of the study was presented there after careful analysis and classification by the writer. In many cases this classification of data proved difficult because of the overlapping of the areas and the scientific nature of the studies.

It is believed, however, that from this background of studies that consider the operation of group in industry, labor, government, community, professional organizations and education can be determined a basic philosophy of group life and implications for its use in teaching. To summarize clearly the findings of research in this study, a review of the findings as they were identified will be presented here.

It is only in recent years that the term "group productivity" has been used in speaking of the amount of work

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1. Dorwin Cartwright, The Research Center for Group Dynamics, pp. 10-17. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, 1950.



or production that could be expected of a group. Many methods and devices have been used to increase the productivity of classroom groups.

From the literature that was included in this study it was evident that a growing accumulation of research data supports the belief that rapport and group decision exercise a strong influence upon increased effort and efficiency in the classroom.

Teachers have often observed that when they have taught a group of students in which the degree of rapport was high, increased efforts were made by students and their achievements were superior in comparison to other groups in which little rapport was apparent.

Modern studies in group productivity have also revealed that groups learn more when the subject matter is functionally adapted to the needs and interests of the class and the group is permitted to share cooperatively in its development. This suggests a new approach to teaching that provides an excellent framework for the use of group dynamics.

Communication within the group was the second area of research investigated in this study. Sometimes teachers are happy about the effectiveness of their communication--it goes well. Again they may be worried that ideas have not gotten across. Problems in communication often separate teachers and

members of a classroom group. Often the misunderstandings are caused in groups because the lines of communication are not kept clear. Resistance, hostilities and aggression result.

Research was included in this study to show how the functioning of a group is mediated by interpersonal communication from one part of a group to another part. When groups plan together and determine their goals, there is less opportunity for barriers of communication within the group.

Social perception, or the awareness of social relationships within the group, was the third area for consideration in the study. It is believed that social perception plays an important part in the adjustment of the individual to the group. It is evident that group efficiency can seldom be maintained without a favorable reaction of members to the group.

In the high school class or a first grade room, rapport is improved when groups are so arranged that members are in contact with persons whom they like and who like them. The study of group dynamics reveals certain group member roles that may be identified. These roles are affected by the perception the members of the group have of the action of the group.



It was pointed out in the fourth section of the study that valuable contributions have been made by research in group dynamics to the improvement of intergroup relations. Teachers need to understand their responsibility for improving intergroup relations and only as they learn to discharge that responsibility will needed progress be made.

The fifth area of research considered was group membership and individual adjustment. It was pointed out that group adjustment affects group discipline in the classroom. Evidence was presented to show that an understanding of the skills eminent in group dynamics will improve group discipline. When groups decide upon their problem, determine their procedures and goals, there is less teacher domination and more pupil participation.

In the section of the study on "Group Leadership" of research revealed that leadership could best be understood as a set of functions performed within the group and that it is as much a property of the group as of an individual. Emphasis was given in this section of the study to the kind of leadership exercised by the classroom teacher and the effect of this leadership upon classroom groups.

An attempt has been made in this section to present a summary of the literature that was reviewed for this study. It has not been possible to include all of the research

that has been done in the field of group dynamics, but it is hoped that from this study new insights into the meaning and use of group dynamics will result.

### Point of View or Philosophy of Group Dynamics

In an analysis of the underlying point of view or philosophy of group dynamics it seemed necessary to investigate the following areas: (1) theory of group dynamics, (2) objectives of group dynamics, (3) method of group dynamics, and (4) some principles of group dynamics.

The first section of this chapter was designed to show the relation of the theory of group dynamics to the principles of our democratic society. It was pointed out that the teacher who understands the meaning of group dynamics and who uses its techniques and skills wisely has solved many of the problems of teaching method based on the democratic ideal.

We do not learn about democracy and good citizenship just by reading about it. These skills are learned best when opportunities are provided in the classroom for democratic planning and problem solving.

The principles of group dynamics give new emphasis to the method of democracy and are a challenge in providing an educational program that will prepare youth for living in a democracy.



The purpose of section two of this chapter is to present the objectives of group dynamics. An attempt was made to choose from the literature that was reviewed for this study those objectives that have implications for teaching.

The third section of this chapter pointed out that the social studies, psychology, and the method of science have made a contribution to group dynamics. It was pointed out in this section that group dynamics is one of the modern emphases in the social studies program. From a study of the concepts of the social studies program, it has been seen that emphasis was focused on the following areas: (1) providing experiences for the development of good citizens in a democratic society, (2) development of social skills, and (3) the improvement of group living.

Activities in the social studies provide opportunities for the use of the skills and techniques of group dynamics. Students learn from one another through group planning. Individuals find a place in group projects and make a contribution. Morale is higher when students work together cooperatively on group projects. Therefore, it is believed that an understanding of group dynamics will give up direction to a good social studies program.

Attention was directed in this chapter to the contribution of psychology to group dynamics. Interpreted

broadly, group dynamics could with justification be called applied psychology. A close relation exists between group dynamics and "sociometry," a relatively new study.

The group learning process has its basis in psychology and whether the groups are high school students or college students the psychology of learning is practical for helping the group acquire skills and information. These underlying principles of psychology are the guideposts to esprit de corps that should permeate the group and inspire the members to greater learning achievement.

It seemed appropriate to consider in this chapter the contribution of the method of science to group dynamics. For the purposes of this study it was assumed that the scientific method was serviceable in two major respects. It provides an overall pattern or design for the conduct of group learning situations and it represents a process by means of which the effectiveness of these learning situations can be appraised.

It was pointed out in this section that the procedures in group problem solving are similar to those that are used by the individual in problem solving. As the group concept is applied to the use of the method of science these procedures may be identified.



In section four of this chapter certain underlying principles of group dynamics were identified. It is believed that studies of the dynamics that underlie group action support these principles and that they may be used by teachers in working with groups.

#### Techniques and Practices

It was the purpose of this chapter to present techniques and practices of group dynamics that can be used in teaching. Specifically, the chapter described the following: group discussion, role-playing and sociodrama, sociometric techniques, group planning, group guidance and counseling, and co-curricular activities that involve group participation.

It is not to be assumed that this list includes all the techniques and practices of group dynamics that can be used in teaching. The resourceful teacher will recognize further opportunities for group activities and provide experiences for the students that require group participation.

The material that was included in this chapter was collected after a careful survey of the literature in these areas. It is the hope of the writer that such a summation will be of practical value for teachers.

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## APPENDIX A

### INSTRUMENTS AND EXHIBITS<sup>a</sup>

#### Description of Classroom Social Distance Scale

##### Purpose

The purpose of this instrument is to discover the social tone of a group as a whole, and the degree to which individuals and subgroups are accepted by the group and accept others in the group. It is devised to extend the usual sociometric approach, which allows a limited number of responses (e.g., three friends), to include an opportunity for every child to give a reaction to every other in the group.

##### Administering

As the responses requested are of a highly confidential nature, this instrument is valid only if honest responses are given. It should be used only in situations where the teacher has achieved a high degree of rapport with the group. If there is resistance on the part of boys and girls either to using the instrument or to signing their names, it is probable that it should not be used. Obviously, it should be used only by teachers with a professional point of view and a genuine interest in knowing more about children in order to provide more adequate programs for them.

It is recommended that this scale be used only with children over 9 years of age. If the teacher has good rapport with the group, he will have little difficulty in introducing it. His explanation may be that he is interested in knowing how people in the group feel about each other so he may know how to help the group get along together and enjoy each other.

##### Interpretation

Examining responses and calculating scores are beginnings, not ends. Results should raise questions rather than answer them. Too little is known about group psychology of boys and girls to allow generalizations to be drawn from

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a. Ruth Cunningham and Associates, Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls, pp. 401-426. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.



data provided through the use of an instrument such as this. Perhaps the greatest value in an examination of results is that it directs attention to certain aspects of inter-personal relations which lead to further observation of individual and group behavior. Such observations, carefully reported as anecdotes by teachers who are sensitive to problems of group relations, can make a great contribution to knowledge in this area.

### Characteristics of Group (To accompany Classroom Social Distance Scale)

Teacher's name \_\_\_\_\_ School \_\_\_\_\_  
 City \_\_\_\_\_ State \_\_\_\_\_  
 Grade \_\_\_\_\_ Age range \_\_\_\_\_ to \_\_\_\_\_  
 Boys \_\_\_\_\_ Girls \_\_\_\_\_

#### Part I

In a few sentences, describe what you consider to be characteristics of this group (e.g., wide range in ability; many isolates; overage or underage children; high or low morale; gangs, cliques; fighting; generally irritable, etc.).

#### Part II

On the basis of your experience with other groups of boys and girls of the same grade level, check each item to indicate whether you think this group is above or below average, or about average. Note that this check represents your impression of the group as a whole.

1. AGE: older \_\_\_\_\_ younger \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
2. DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE: more mature \_\_\_\_\_ less mature \_\_\_\_\_  
about average \_\_\_\_\_
3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND: more favorable \_\_\_\_\_  
less favorable \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
4. DEGREE OF ACCEPTANCE OF EACH OTHER: more acceptance \_\_\_\_\_  
less acceptance \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
5. DEGREE OF PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE: more accepted \_\_\_\_\_  
less accepted \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
6. ACTIVE-LETHARGIC: More active \_\_\_\_\_ more lethargic \_\_\_\_\_  
about average \_\_\_\_\_
7. INTELLIGENCE: more intelligent \_\_\_\_\_ less intelligent \_\_\_\_\_  
about average \_\_\_\_\_
8. PHYSICAL SKILL: more skilled \_\_\_\_\_ less skilled \_\_\_\_\_  
about average: \_\_\_\_\_
9. INTEREST RANGE: more interests \_\_\_\_\_ fewer interests \_\_\_\_\_  
about average \_\_\_\_\_



10. INTEREST INTENSITY: more interested \_\_\_\_\_ less interested \_\_\_\_\_  
 about average \_\_\_\_\_
11. HEALTH: higher physical tone \_\_\_\_\_ lower physical tone \_\_\_\_\_  
 about average \_\_\_\_\_
12. CONTROL OF TEMPER: higher degree of control \_\_\_\_\_ lower \_\_\_\_\_  
 degree of control \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
13. GROUP LIFE: more enjoyment of group life \_\_\_\_\_ less \_\_\_\_\_  
 enjoyment of group life \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
14. ATTITUDE TOWARD ADULT CONTROL: greater acceptance of \_\_\_\_\_  
 adult control \_\_\_\_\_ less acceptance \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
15. OPERATIONAL GROUP PATTERN: more democratic \_\_\_\_\_ less \_\_\_\_\_  
 democratic \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
16. CHARACTERISTIC OUTLOOK: happier, more cheerful \_\_\_\_\_  
 more tense, worried, unhappy \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_

### Classroom Social Distance Scale

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
 School \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_

We don't like all of our friends the same way. Some we like more than others. There may be some people we don't like at all.

The check list on the next page will give you a way of telling how close an acquaintance you would like to have with other boys and girls in your room. Under each name listed across the top of the page, put a check in the space opposite the statement which most nearly describes your feeling about the person. Of course you are to substitute "her" for "him" in your thinking when checking a girl's name.

When you come to your own name, check the space which describes how you think most of the boys and girls feel about you.

No one in your room will see this paper but your teacher.



# Check Sheet: Classroom Social Distance Scale

<u>Name</u>						
1. Would like to have him as one of my best friends.						
2. Would like to have him in my group but not as a close friend.						
3. Would like to be with him once in a while but not often or for long at a time.						
4. Don't mind his being in our room but I don't want to have anything to do with him.						
5. Wish he weren't in our room.						

## Check Sheet of Opportunities in Human Relations

You are asked to check the following sheet to help in a study of how young people get to know each other and people in the community. This material will be treated as confidential. Sign your name if you are willing to do so, but do not feel that you must.

**Directions:** Read the statement under the heading, "Experience." Then for each statement give the following information:

1. How often? How often do you have this experience? Check (x) in the appropriate column, as frequently, sometimes, or seldom, or never. If you honestly do not know whether you have this experience or how often, check ?.

2. How valuable? How valuable do you feel the experience is to you? Check (x) in the appropriate column as

important, O, K.,--good but not important, or unimportant (might have gotten along well without experience.) If you honestly cannot decide how valuable the experience is, check (?).

### Experience

	How Often?				How valuable			
	Frequently (almost every day)	Sometimes (once a week or so)	Seldom or never (not more than once a month)	?	Important	O. K.--good but not important	Unimportant	?
1. Be a member of a team for some sport.								
2. Be a member of a club.								
3. Be a member of a gang.								
4. Work or play with people of differing religious belief.								
5. Work or play with people of differing race.								
6. Work or play with people of differing nationality background.								
7. Work or play with people who are considerably more wealthy than my family.								
8. Work or play with people who have considerably less money than my family.								
9. Work or play with people whom I consider to be considerably smarter (quicker thinking) than I am.								







34. Work or play with people much older than I am (5 or more years older), not including teachers or youth leaders.
35. Work or play with people of opposite sex.
36. Do useful work for the community without pay.
37. Work or play in a group of four or five people.
38. Work or play in a group of ten or twelve people.
39. Work or play in a group of thirty to fifty people.
40. Work or play in a group of fifty to one hundred people.
41. If you had a personal problem about which you were worried, to whom would you go in your family? \_\_\_\_\_  
 To whom would you go outside your family? \_\_\_\_\_
42. How do you feel about the amount of adult control of you by your family? (check one) too much \_\_\_ about right \_\_\_ too little \_\_\_  
 How do you feel about the amount of control of you by your school? (check one) too much \_\_\_; about right \_\_\_; too little \_\_\_
43. Put a check in front of the words or phrases which you feel describe you:
- \_\_\_ find it easy to make friends.
  - \_\_\_ find it difficult to make friends.
  - \_\_\_ wish I had more skill in getting along with people.
  - \_\_\_ well liked by most.
  - \_\_\_ liked by few, but not many.
  - \_\_\_ disliked by many.
  - \_\_\_ shy.
  - \_\_\_ a leader.
  - \_\_\_ not understood.
  - \_\_\_ not so smart by comparison with most.
  - \_\_\_ more intelligent than most.
  - \_\_\_ prefer to be alone much of the time.
  - \_\_\_ want to be with people most of the time.
  - \_\_\_ more interested in people than in things or ideas.
  - \_\_\_ more interested in ideas or things than in people.
  - \_\_\_ wish the school would give more help in how to get along with people.
44. The three things I most want to improve about myself:
45. My three best friends in my room, home room, group, or section (boys or girls):



# Guide for Group Observation

(Adapted from guide prepared by College Study in Intergroup Relations, American Council of Education)

Group (grade or age) \_\_\_\_\_ School \_\_\_\_\_  
 Group activity observed \_\_\_\_\_  
 Date of observation \_\_\_\_\_ Time (hours and minutes) \_\_\_\_\_  
 Number of participants: Boys \_\_\_\_\_ Girls \_\_\_\_\_ Total \_\_\_\_\_  
 Teacher \_\_\_\_\_ Observer \_\_\_\_\_

From each group of behavior descriptions below, check the one which most nearly describes the group behavior during your observation. If none of the descriptions fits the situation, write your description under "Other." There is space provided at the end of this form for any explanation you may wish to make of your checks, and to record any unusual happenings to the group.

## 1. GENERAL TYPE OF GROUP ACTIVITY

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_ a
- b. Very formal, such as lecture, sitting still and watching or listening to teacher, question-answer recitation, extreme order. \_\_\_\_\_ b
- c. Rowdy, noisy, unmanageable \_\_\_\_\_ c
- d. Informal, group situation, "comfortable" but not active \_\_\_\_\_ d
- e. Active participation yet with control: vigorous play, discussion, work \_\_\_\_\_ e
- f. Other \_\_\_\_\_ f

## 2. GROUP REACTION TO TEACHER

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_ a
- b. Warm, friendly, personalized give-and-take \_\_\_\_\_ b
- c. Fear of teacher \_\_\_\_\_ c
- d. Apathetic, indifferent atmosphere \_\_\_\_\_ d
- e. Active negativism, open hostility toward teacher \_\_\_\_\_ e
- f. Other \_\_\_\_\_ f

## 3. INTER-PERSONAL RELATIONS

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_ a
- b. Group members willing and anxious to help each other \_\_\_\_\_ b
- c. Keen individual competition "me first" \_\_\_\_\_ c
- d. High group spirit and helpfulness within subgroups, but keen competition among subgroups or teams \_\_\_\_\_ d



- e. Range of responses within competitive situation: some engaged in cut-throat competition, others disinterested.
- f. Other \_\_\_\_\_

#### 4. GROUP STRUCTURE, INTERRELATIONS OF UNITS

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Unorganized, no indication of common goal \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Loosely integrated but with everyone working independently \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Extremely disunified, marked tensions, conflicts \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Well understood and accepted group goal, definite division of responsibility \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Common goal understood but no effective division of responsibility \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Other \_\_\_\_\_

#### 5. CONTROL PATTERNS

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Adult rule, child obedience \_\_\_\_\_
- c. No plan apparent, "catch as catch can" control \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Teacher plans with individuals \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Adult dominated group planning \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Group self-management through group planning \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Other \_\_\_\_\_

#### 6. LEADER CONTROL DEVICES

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Uses threats, scolds, "bawls out" \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Places stress on praise, rewards, friendly "pats" \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Controls chiefly by expressing personal approval or disapproval \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Resorts to action, such as isolating individual from group, physical punishment \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Children participate in formulation of guides to behavior \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Other \_\_\_\_\_

#### 7. AVERAGE GROUP MEMBER ROLE, GENERAL ATTITUDE

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Strained, fearful, marked tension \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Indifferent, pleasant, but a shade cool \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Warm respect for others, comfortably friendly \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Confidential, intimate, not inhibited \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Definitely unfriendly, irritable, selfish, unsocial \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Other \_\_\_\_\_



## 8. THE SOCIAL ISOLATE

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Group badly divided into high and low rated person, pairs, cliques \_\_\_\_\_ b \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Some children who do not seem to value good will of group \_\_\_\_\_ c \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Some children who are rejected by group \_\_\_\_\_ d \_\_\_\_\_
- e. No apparent isolates, general participation by all \_\_\_\_\_ e \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Other \_\_\_\_\_ f \_\_\_\_\_

## 9. STATUS DETERMINANTS OF LEADERS

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Group status due to favoritism by adult, appointment to leadership position by teacher \_\_\_\_\_ b \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Status due to general alertness, social ability, or likable personality \_\_\_\_\_ c \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Status due to physical strength, daring, or bravado \_\_\_\_\_ d \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Status due to sympathy aroused in others: crippled, etc. \_\_\_\_\_ e \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Status due to particular competence in special area \_\_\_\_\_ f \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Other \_\_\_\_\_ g \_\_\_\_\_

## 10. LEARNING ACTIVITY DURING OBSERVATION PERIOD

- a. I cannot determine \_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Largely memorizing \_\_\_\_\_ b \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Practicing skills through rote drill \_\_\_\_\_ c \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Individual problem-solving or research \_\_\_\_\_ d \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Group problem-solving, planning discussion \_\_\_\_\_ e \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Creative activity through arts, writing, constructive \_\_\_\_\_ f \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Appreciation, enjoyment; reading, looking, listening "for fun" \_\_\_\_\_ g \_\_\_\_\_
- h. Other \_\_\_\_\_ h \_\_\_\_\_

## Remarks:

Write below whatever comments you want to make in explanation of your checks above. Key remarks to numbers and letter when you can. Report any special happening, dramatic incident, general reaction of group, or impression you have received which may help in understanding this group.



## Identification Sheet\*

School \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_ Teacher \_\_\_\_\_  
 To Teachers:

On the basis of your daily work with the children in your class, write under the following behavior items the names of children who rather consistently show this behavior. Place as many names as you think appropriate in each category, or no names.

- 1- talk)
- a. Usually conforms to and accepts classroom regulations.
  - b. Needs frequent reminders about classroom regulations.
  - c. Unpredictable in response to classroom regulations.

- 2-
- a. Works steadily on assigned work.
  - b. Easily diverted from assigned work.
  - c. Seeks undue amount of help and attention from teacher.

- 3-
- a. Spontaneous in contributing ideas.
  - b. Never contributes unless called upon.
  - c. Inconsistent in contribution.

- 4-
- a. Apparently bright and is doing well.
  - b. Appears slow in comprehension.

- 5-
- a. Popular with other children.
  - b. Avoided or ignored by other children.

- 6-
- a. Continually seeks contact with other children.
  - b. Seeks undue attention from adults.
  - c. Seldom initiates contact with other children.
  - d. Ignores advances made to him by other children.

- 7- (name of city)
- a. Usually seems happy.
  - b. Appears tense; easily upset.
  - c. Has nervous habits.

\* Prepared by Professor Gertrude P. Driscoll,  
 Teachers College, Columbia University.



- 8- life:
- Attendance regular.
  - Absent frequently for minor illnesses (state general character of absences).
  - In school but seems listless, fatigued, pale, or unwell.

- 9-
- Particularly well coordinated.
  - Obviously awkward.

-10-

Has speech inaccuracies:

- Poor enunciation (baby talk)
- Lisping
- Stuttering or stammering
- Substituting letters

### Springfield Interest Finder\*

My three wishes:

What I'd like to learn more about at school:

What I don't care to study about:

What I like best in school:

What I like least or dislike most at school:

What I like best outside school:

What I like least or dislike most outside school:

What I want to be or do when I grow up:

The most interesting thing that I have done at school during the past week or so:

One of the places I especially like to go in (name of city):

\* Developed by Arthur T. Jersild and members of the Springfield, Missouri, Public Schools.

One of the happiest days in my life:

My three best friends in my room (boys or girls):

### Social Analysis of the Classroom

Below are some word pictures of members of your class. Read each statement and write down the names of the persons whom you think the descriptions fit.

Remember:

One description may fit several persons. You may write as many names as you think belong under each.

The same person may be mentioned for more than one description.

Write "myself" if you think the description fits you.

If you cannot think of anyone to match a particular description, go on to the next one.

You will have as much time as you need to finish. Do not hurry.

Now you are ready to begin.

1. Here is someone who finds it hard to sit still in class; he (or she) moves around in his (or her) seat or gets up and walks around.  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Here is someone who can work very quietly without moving around in his (or her) seat.  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Here is someone who likes to talk a lot, always has something to say.  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Here is someone who doesn't like to talk very much, is very quiet, even when nearly everyone else is talking.  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. Here is someone who plays active games like football and basketball a great deal, or who likes to run and jump.  
\_\_\_\_\_



6. This person seldom plays active games like football and basketball, but prefers to read or sit and play quiet games.

---

7. Here is someone who is always ready to take a chance at things that are new or unusual, and is never worried or frightened.

---

8. Here is someone who is always worried or scared, who won't take a chance when something unexpected or unusual happens.

---

9. Here is someone who will wait for somebody else to think of something to do and always likes to follow suggestions which others make.

---

10. Here is someone who always knows how to start games or suggests something interesting to do so that others like to join in.

---

11. This person always seems to have a good time and seems to enjoy everything in school, on the playground, at a party, everywhere.

---

12. This is someone who never seems to have a good time, who never seems to enjoy very much anything he (or she) does.

---

13. This is someone who is always cheerful, jolly, and good-natured, who laughs and smiles a good deal.

---

14. Here is someone who always seems rather sad, worried, or unhappy, who hardly ever laughs or smiles.

---

15. This is someone who is thought to be very good-looking.

---

16. Here is someone who is thought not to be good-looking at all.

---

17. Here is someone who always tries to keep himself (or herself) neat and clean and tidy looking.

---

18. Here is someone who never tries to keep himself (or herself) clean and neat and tidy looking.

---

19. Here is someone whom everybody likes; people are always glad to have him (or her) around.

---

20. Here is someone whom nobody seems to care much about; people do not notice when he (or she) is around.

---

21. Here is a girl who likes to read boys' books, play boys' games, or would prefer to be a boy.

---

22. Here is a boy who prefers girls' books or girls' games, or would prefer to be a girl.

---

23. Here is a girl who often goes out with boys, or a boy who often goes out with girls. He (or she) likes to go to parties or dances.

---

24. Here is a girl who isn't much interested in going out with boys, or a boy who isn't much interested in going out with girls. They do not care to go to parties or dances.

---

25. Here is someone who can enjoy a joke and see the fun in it even when the joke is on himself (or herself).

---

26. Here is someone who can never appreciate a joke when it is on himself (or herself).

---

27. This person is very fond of a good joke, is the first to laugh and always sees the point.

---



28. Here is a person who doesn't care much for jokes or who has to have them explained before he (or she) sees the point.

---

29. Here is someone who enjoys a fight; he (or she) often fights rather than let the other person have his (or her) way.

---

30. Here is someone who never fights but lets the other person have his (or her) way.

---

31. This is someone who is always trying to get others to watch what he (or she) can do or to listen to him (or her) tell about the things he (or she) can do.

---

32. Here is someone who does not care whether or not he (or she) is the center of attention.

---

33. This is someone who is always telling others about what to do, bossing them.

---

34. Here is someone who does not mind being told what to do, who does not mind being bossed.

---

35. Here is someone who is very friendly, who has lots of friends, who is nice to everybody.

---

36. Here is someone who doesn't care much to make friends or who is bashful about being friendly, or doesn't seem to have many friends.

---

37. Here is someone who is one of my very best friends in this room. (Note: Most people think that about three names is enough to include the very best friends. If you really feel that this is not enough you may write as many as five names, but not more than five.

---

## Study of Group Composition

School \_\_\_\_\_  
 Teacher reporting \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_

## Part I

Place under each category the names of the children in your group whom you feel to be outstanding in the characteristic. Place as many names as you think appropriate in each category, or no names.

1. AGE  
 Oldest \_\_\_\_\_ Youngest \_\_\_\_\_
2. DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE  
 Most mature \_\_\_\_\_ Least mature \_\_\_\_\_
3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND  
 Most favorable \_\_\_\_\_ Least favorable \_\_\_\_\_
4. DEGREE OF ACCEPTANCE BY OTHER CHILDREN  
 Most accepted \_\_\_\_\_ Least accepted \_\_\_\_\_
5. DEGREE OF ACCEPTANCE BY PARENTS  
 Most accepted \_\_\_\_\_ Least accepted \_\_\_\_\_
6. ACTIVE-LETHARGIC SCALE  
 Most active \_\_\_\_\_ Most lethargic \_\_\_\_\_
7. INTELLIGENCE  
 Most intelligent \_\_\_\_\_ Least intelligent \_\_\_\_\_
8. PHYSICAL SKILL  
 Most skilled \_\_\_\_\_ Least skilled \_\_\_\_\_
9. INTEREST RANGE  
 Many interests \_\_\_\_\_ Few interests \_\_\_\_\_
10. INTEREST INTENSITY  
 Vitally interested \_\_\_\_\_ Mildly interested \_\_\_\_\_
11. HEALTH  
 High physical tone; much alive \_\_\_\_\_ Low physical tone, lacks vigor \_\_\_\_\_
12. CONTROL OF TEMPER  
 High degree of control \_\_\_\_\_ Lacks control of temper \_\_\_\_\_



13. ATTITUDE TOWARD GROUP LIFE  
Enjoys being in group \_\_\_\_\_ Resents need to be in group \_\_\_\_\_
14. ATTITUDE TOWARD ADULT CONTROL  
Accepts adult control \_\_\_\_\_ Resists adult control \_\_\_\_\_
15. OPERATIONAL GROUP PATTERN  
Acts democratically \_\_\_\_\_ Acts autocratically \_\_\_\_\_
16. CHARACTERISTIC OUTLOOK  
Happy, cheerful, unworried \_\_\_\_\_ Tense, worried, unhappy \_\_\_\_\_

## Part II

On the basis of your experience with other groups of boys and girls of the same grade level, check each item to indicate whether you think this group is above or below average, or about average. Note that this check represents your impression of the group as a whole.

1. AGE: older \_\_\_\_\_ younger \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
2. DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE: more mature \_\_\_\_\_ less mature \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND: more favorable \_\_\_\_\_ less favorable \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
4. DEGREE OF ACCEPTANCE OF EACH OTHER: more acceptance \_\_\_\_\_ less acceptance \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
5. DEGREE OF PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE: more accepted \_\_\_\_\_ less accepted \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
6. ACTIVE-LETHARGIC: More active \_\_\_\_\_ more lethargic \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
7. INTELLIGENCE: more intelligent \_\_\_\_\_ less intelligent \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
8. PHYSICAL SKILL: more skilled \_\_\_\_\_ less skilled \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
9. INTEREST RANGE: more interests \_\_\_\_\_ fewer interests \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
10. INTEREST INTENSITY: more interested \_\_\_\_\_ less interested \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
11. HEALTH: higher physical tone \_\_\_\_\_ lower physical tone \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
12. CONTROL OF TEMPER: higher degree of control \_\_\_\_\_ lower degree of control \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
13. GROUP LIFE: more enjoyment of group life \_\_\_\_\_ less enjoyment of group life \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_
14. ATTITUDE TOWARD ADULT CONTROL: greater acceptance of adult control \_\_\_\_\_ less acceptance \_\_\_\_\_ about average \_\_\_\_\_

15. OPERATIONAL GROUP PATTERN: democratic            about average            more democratic            less
16. CHARACTERISTIC OUTLOOK: happier, more cheerful            more tense, worried, unhappy            about average

How good was our meeting?

(Circle one of group topic)

Write below at the point which best indicates  
about your group meeting:

All Right

Not very Good

No Good

What best thing about the meeting?

What main weakness of the meeting?

Any suggestions?

Do any need to be anonymous, using only

names in order to protect individual

members? If the teacher has studied them it may be

of reports to each group to review. Or a

selection of all members of the group can be

of individual groups or to the whole class in

group morale and intergroup competition to

group participation form

Group name: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher's name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher's name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_



## APPENDIX B

MEETING EVALUATION AND GROUP PARTICIPATION TECHNIQUES<sub>b</sub>

## Meeting-Evaluation Form

At the end of the period when the groups have been meeting for some time, the teacher might use a very simple form in order to get a quick check on the level of satisfaction with their meeting.

How Good Was Our Meeting?

Name \_\_\_\_\_ (or group no. or group topic)

1. Check on the line below at the point which best indicates your feeling about your group meeting:

Very Good	Good	All Right	Not very Good	No Good
2.	What was the best thing about the meeting?			
3.	What was the main weakness of the meeting?			
4.	Comments and suggestions:			

These forms may need to be anonymous, using only group number or project in order to protect individual respondents. After the teacher has studied them it may be useful to give the reports to each group to review. Or a summary of the reactions of all members of the group can be reported to the individual groups or to the whole class in order to increase group morale and intergroup competition to be "the best group."

## Group-Participation Form

Put the names of group members around a circle. Whenever a person makes a contribution his name is checked. The group-participation pattern may be recorded in three different ways:

b. Jean D. Grambs and William J. Iverson, Modern Methods in Secondary Education, pp. 221-222. New York: The Dryden Press, 1952.

1. Quantity-participation record: A tally mark is recorded after each person's name every time he makes a contribution. This gives a sum of contributions.

2. Quality-participation record: As each person makes his contribution, an evaluative mark is put after his name. These marks are:

- plus = a contribution that aids the group thinking
- minus = a contribution that delayed or interfered with group progress in thinking
- zero = a remark that neither aided or hindered-- a "blah" remark

? = individual asks a question

In using this scoring method, it is often difficult for observers to put down many minus remarks, since it is likely to hurt the feelings of those so evaluated. However, if the discussion about the scoring is objective and everyone sees that a minus score might mean just lack of skill in group participation, then the negative factors may be recorded without damage to morale.

3. Group-interaction record: An arrow is used to join the names of individuals whenever they talk to anyone else. When an individual addresses a remark to the group as a whole, the arrow should point out toward the edge of the paper. The pattern recorded here is one of the most interesting, since it is possible to note whether the leader or chairman is dominating the discussion, or whether two people are carrying on a personal argument to the exclusion of everyone else.



## APPENDIX C

THE GUESS WHO? TEST<sub>c</sub>

Please fill in the following questions with the name or names of students who best fit the description. Your answers will be confidential; you are asked not to discuss your answers with anyone. Be as honest as you can. Your opinions here will help us understand you and your classmates better so that our school program may be improved.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ is the best sport in the class.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ is the student who always knows the answer.
3. The most popular girl in class is \_\_\_\_\_.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ is an apple-polisher.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ will always help you if you need help.
6. The person no one likes very much is \_\_\_\_\_.
7. The most popular boy in class is \_\_\_\_\_.
8. \_\_\_\_\_ is someone who likes to laugh and be jolly.
9. \_\_\_\_\_ always brags and boasts.
10. The best-dressed person in the room is \_\_\_\_\_.
11. \_\_\_\_\_ has the best ideas for group projects.
12. \_\_\_\_\_ is the friendliest person in the class.
13. The person who always gets his/her feelings hurt is \_\_\_\_\_.
14. \_\_\_\_\_ acts very snobbish.
15. \_\_\_\_\_ gets mad whenever you say anything.
16. The person who is dirty and sloppy is \_\_\_\_\_.
17. \_\_\_\_\_ is a real "glamour girl."

Other questions:

Best athlete

Tells lies

Acts silly

Acts too old for us

Acts too young for us

Is so shy and quiet can't get to know him/her

Always tries to boss everyone

Isn't friendly

Isn't like the rest of us

Is a sissy

Someone who doesn't like me



## APPENDIX D

### EVALUATION CHECK LISTS<sup>d</sup>

#### Check List for Group Self-Evaluation

This type of evaluation should be a continuous process throughout the meeting. Such questions as these might be used:

1. Do we have a direction toward a goal? How successful have we been in keeping oriented in that direction, staying on the subject, not wandering off course?
2. Where are we now located in our discussion? Are we in the stage of diagnosing the problem, of suggesting solutions, or are we ready for final decisions?
3. What has been our rate of progress? Are we actually moving ahead in our discussion at a reasonable or efficient rate, or have we bogged down?
4. Are we applying our total group potential, the creative and analytic abilities of all our members to our problem or are we operating with half of our furnaces banked?
5. Are we making any improvement in our ability to work together more efficiently?

#### An Observer Check List

It is easy to devise an observation check list to guide observers toward important clues of group action. Such a check list might include these questions for the observer:

1. To what extent do we understand what we are trying to do?

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d. Mimeographed material, Austin Peay State College, Clarksville, Tennessee.

7. David H. Jenkins, "Feedback and Group Self-Evaluation," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. IV, No. 2 (Spring, 1948), 50-51.



2. To what extent are we stymied by lack of information?
3. Was interest maintained or did it lag?
4. Was the general atmosphere of the group friendly or hostile?
5. Were contributions by members on this beam or off at a tangent?
6. How many of the group participated?
7. How well did the leader serve the group?<sup>8</sup>

### Self-Evaluation Check List for the Discussion Leader

It is helpful for the leader to evaluate his activities before and after a session. Some such questions as these might be used:

1. Was there any evidence that the leader knew what he was trying to accomplish?
2. Was the leader able to handle this discussion so as to avoid confusion of thinking either on the part of the group or his own part?
3. Did the leader try to force his ideas on the group?
4. Was the leader able to keep still and let the group talk?
5. Did the leader allow time for the group to think it out for themselves?
6. Did the leader show good judgment as to the proper time for summarizing or crystallizing the discussion?
7. Did the leader avoid being sidetracked and demonstrate ability to hold the discussion to the main topic

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8. Educators Washington Dispatch, "So You Appointed a Committee," Educational Trend, p. 7. Washington, D. C.: Arthur C. Croft, 1948.

under consideration, or did he know when and how to get back to the main question after being sidetracked?

8. Did the leader throw questions back to the group for discussion?

9. Was good distribution of discussion secured or were a few individuals permitted to monopolize it?

10. Did the leader maintain control of the group without appearing to dominate?<sup>9</sup>