

THE GROUP: A DYNAMIC PROCESS FOR THERAPY AND BEHAVIORAL CHANGE

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to survey literature, reviewing the many facets of the group. Such aspects as the history of groups, formation of groups, function of groups, interaction of groups, and the function of leadership have been reviewed. Types of groups and how they may be used depending on particular needs or situations have been discussed.

Special emphasis has been placed on the role of the counselor. The perceptive counselor is in the unique position of one who can best determine the use of groups for the most good.

The intent of this work was to apprise the reader of the vast possibilities for group therapy or multiple counseling. In the final analysis, it should be pointed out that the individual in any group is the prime reason for the group to exist. This survey, then, was to show how healthy active participation in a deliberate, therapy group helps the individual realize self-awareness which is conducive to positive constructional behavioral change, making the person acceptable to society.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Group interaction seems to aid an individual member of the group to find himself. Through this means he gains insights to his problems and hopefully finds somewhere in his being the courage to accept his shortcomings. Once he has accomplished this then he can begin to see himself in the mirror of his mind. He can take inventory of himself, bring the problems out in the open, inspect them, think about them, and verbalize them. Perhaps he has not entirely eliminated the turmoil within himself for he may still need the support of the group for reinforcement, reassurance, and strength. The individual may now have progressed, however, to the point where he realizes the need for individual therapy. With this feeling and the sense of knowing he cannot handle the situation alone a big step is being taken toward the readjustment of his personality.

A group is here taken to mean a small body of interacting individuals. In this paper reference may be made to a T-Group (T for Training). The "T-Group" is an innovation in the technology of education. Interaction refers to that exchange of ideas, feelings, attitudes; also the behavior that takes place within the group. A group always has a common sociological bond. The members have warm, intimate personal ties with one another; their solidarity is un-selfconscious, a matter of sentiment rather than calculation. Such a group is termed a Primary Group.

Secondary Group characteristics are more divergent and the opposite or complement of those of the primary group. Relations among members are "cool", impersonal, rational, contractual, and formal. Secondary groups are typically large, such as a segment of society or a state.

Apparently there are two approaches to the study of groups. The external approach which studies the group as one of the building blocks of society. The group is viewed from outside. The internal approach deals with the individual within the group. His patterns and behavior are studied in relation to the life of the group. The group is viewed from the inside and each individual is studied, guided, observed and evaluated in the group interaction (18).

The paper shall deal with the group dynamics of the therapy group, basically the small, informal, primary or face-to-face group. Also, some consideration shall be given to the group and community relationships.

CHAPTER II

RESEARCH OF LITERATURE

History

The earliest philosophical literature contains a great deal of knowledge about the nature of groups and the relations between individuals and groups. Literature also contains a variety of specifications concerning the "best" ways of managing group life. During the period from the 16th through the 19th centuries there was created in Europe an impressive literature dealing with the nature of man and his place in society. In this literature one can find most of the major orientation, or "basic assumptions" which guide current research and thinking about groups.

The study of groups has been interesting in acquiring knowledge about the nature of groups and, especially, about the psychological and social forces associated with groups.

The study of groups known as "group dynamics" is strictly a 20th century development and significantly different from that of preceeding centuries.

The term has gained popular familiarity since WWII and with increased use its meaning has become imprecise.

Of the several terms in current use, the following is most appropriate for this paper. "The field of inquiry dedicated to achieving

knowledge about the nature of groups, the laws of their development and their inter-relations with, individuals, other groups, and larger institutions."

In this sense then, it is a branch of knowledge or an intellectual specialization. Being concerned with human behavior and social relationships, it can be located within the social sciences. And yet it cannot be identified readily as any subject of any of the traditional disciplines.

As was pointed out earlier, an interest in groups can be found throughout history. Because of the evident interest we cannot distinguish "group dynamics" from its predecessors. The difference lies in how this interest was exploited. Until the beginning of this century those who were curious about the nature of groups relied primarily upon personal experiences and historical records to provide answers to their questions.

Consequently, during this speculative era thinkers devoted energies to the creation of theoretical systems. These systems were created by such intellectual thinkers as Cooley, Durkheim, Freud, Giddings, LeBon, McDougall, Ross, Tarde, Tönnie and Wundt. The ideas of these men are much in evidence in contemporary discussions of group life.

In the 1920's, a few people were no longer content with speculations about groups. Theorists began to seek out facts and to attempt to distinguish between objective data and subjective impression. The work they did demanded that a proposition be supported by reliable data. Major effort went into the devising and improving of techniques of empirical research that would provide reliability of measurement, standardization of

observation, effective experimental design and the statistical analysis of data.

By the mid-1930's conditions were ripe within the social sciences for a rapid advance of empirical research on groups. A flurry of such activity did take place just prior to the U.S.'s entry into WWII. In a period of a few years several important research projects were undertaken.

Group dynamics began as an identifiable field in the U.S. toward the end of the 1930's. Kurt Lewin (12) is given primary credit for having originated group dynamics as a specialty and popularization of the term group dynamics. He made contributions to both research and theory and group dynamics and in 1945 established the first organization devoted explicitly to research on group dynamics.

While his contribution was great, group dynamics was not the creation of just one person. Group dynamics was the result of many developments over a period of years and in several different disciplines and professions. Group dynamics was a product of certain trends within the social sciences and the society in which it arose. The development did not come about by accident, but rather American society in the 1930's provided the conditions for encouragement of such an intellectual movement. Today group dynamics has taken root primarily in the U.S. and Europe with important developments in Israel, Japan and India. Over the years only a few countries have had favorable conditions for the growth of group dynamics. Three conditions seem to provide a favorable climate for its conception and growth.

1. If this field of inquiry is to prosper it must have a

supportive society to provide the institutional resources required.

2. The development of other professions and leaders of these professions who are quick to see that systematic research on group life can make a significant contribution to their professions.

3. Advances must be accomplished in the social sciences.

In 1936, Sherif (12) published a book containing a systematic theoretical analysis of the concepts of social norms and an ingenious experimental investigation of the origin of social norms among groups of people.

From 1935-1939, Newcomb (12) conducted investigations similar to Sherif but with different methods. Newcomb's study showed that the attitudes of individuals are strongly rooted in the groups to which people belong, that the influence of a group upon an individual's attitudes depends upon the nature of the relationships between the individual and the group and that groups evaluate individual members, partially on the basis of their conformity to group norms.

In 1937, W. F. Whyte (12) using the method of "participant observer" moved into a Boston slum. Here he conducted a three and one-half year study of social clubs, political organizations, and racketeering.

Between 1937 and 1940, Lewin, Lippitt, and White (12) conducted a most influential work at the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. Their investigations dealt with group atmospheres and styles of leadership.

So by the end of the 1930's, then, the new field of group dynamics began to take shape. The practical and theoretical importance of

groups had been documented and the feasibility of conducting objective and quantitative research on the dynamics of group life was no longer debatable (12).

The unrest in Europe and impending WWII produced an exodus of psychoanalysts and psychiatrists to the United States. They exerted a subtle effect on the development of psychoanalytic therapy through the intrusion of Freudian theories into American practice. At the same time the democratizing influence of American life was being felt by the psychoanalysts themselves. Much of the bitterness and "contempt" for Sigmund Freud in Europe was being softened in the New World in the 1930's (7).

Through the works of Paul Schilder, Harry Stack Sullivan, J. L. Morena, William McDougall, and Karen Horney (7) analytic psychotherapy began to be the characteristic of social orientation and signaled the "new" approach. Therapy broadened to include more than a "group of two". The therapists were gradually turning to the emphasis of sociology in analytic thinking and practice.

From this diverse background arose "social psychiatry" which represents a cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences in the area of normal and abnormal behavior. One author has said "it stands upon the shoulders of Freud." Social psychiatry developed from the pressures of international conflict, arising from the struggles of political-social ideologies during the past two decades, plus a conscious global effort to learn to live together, has attained a natural direction from the standpoint of 20th century living (7).

Formation of Groups

Man is essentially a group animal. His destiny whether for good or bad is tied up with the group. His growth and development are conditioned by the group's values and attitudes. In the healthy personality, group associations expand to include ever wider areas and larger numbers of people. When this does not occur, the personality is a defective one. Three decades ago the focus of interest was the effect of individuals upon one another. But as the effect of the group upon the individual has been studied and positive influence has been observed, the emphasis has shifted to the potency of group life in character formation and in psychotherapy. The important value hoped for in group experience is that it increases the ability to feel with other people; to establish positive identifications (5).

Sociologists were early concerned with classification of groups. They had hoped to be able to locate a distinct group under this category or that category so that a generalization could be made which would apply to this specific group. This has been virtually impossible, yet over the years many schemes for classification have been proposed. A common procedure has been to select a few characteristics and to define other groups on the basis of these characteristics.

Some of the characteristics most commonly employed are (12):

1. Size
2. Amount of physical interaction among members
3. Degree of intimacy
4. Level of solidarity
5. Locus of central group activities

6. Extent of formalization of rules governing relations among members
7. Tendency of members to react to one another as individual persons or occupants of role

To construct a large number of types of groups by combining these properties in various ways would be impossible, and usually only dichotomies of one type or another have resulted.

Another procedure is used whereby groups are classified according to their objectives and social settings. These are said to be (12):

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Work groups | 6. Gangs |
| 2. Therapy groups | 7. Teams |
| 3. Social groups | 8. Coordinating groups |
| 4. Committees | 9. Religious groups |
| 5. Clubs | |

In the field of counseling the therapy groups are employed to a greater extent than any of the others, except possibly a variation of the work groups.

The purpose of a client or therapy groups is to "improve" in some way the members who may be seeking help with mental illness, delinquency, poor academic performance, alcoholism, drug addiction, obesity, or a disability. The members or others in their behalf may wish to increase their sensitivity to human relationships to improve their skills of leadership, or learn how to have friends. Such persons may desire to become better informed, or they may be looking for an opportunity to develop a hobby or engage in some form of recreation. The formation of such groups by a social agency or educational agency is based on the judgment that such a service is more effective or efficient if the clients are treated as groups rather than an individual.

Every group in society has been formed with some specific purpose in mind, spurred by conditions at the time. With such a diversity of groups it would seem that there are no definite criteria by which a group might come into existence. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify three different levels of circumstances under which groups come into being (12):

1. A group may be created deliberately in order to accomplish some objective.
2. A group may be formed spontaneously by the people who come to participate in it.
3. A collection of individuals may become a group because they are treated in a homogeneous way by other people.

Of the three types of groups which come into existence we shall examine the first. The formation of a group by deliberate means has a basic condition. It is the judgment by one or more people that a collection of individuals can accomplish some purpose not otherwise possible. They may even do so at a higher level of efficiency than could be accomplished as an individual endeavor.

A multitude of purposes has been suggested by creators of groups but they may be classified under a few general headings that serve to classify types of groups (12):

1. Work groups
2. Problem-solving groups
3. Social-action groups
4. Mediating groups
5. Legislative groups
6. Client groups

Types of Groups

Group therapy as Slavson (22) employs the term, is treatment in which no discussion is initiated by the therapist: interpretation is given only in very rare instances and under specific conditions. Emotional re-orientation comes from the very fact that the child experiences actual situations, lives and works with other children, comes into direct and meaningful interaction with others, and as a result modified his feelings, tones and habitual responses. Group therapy is an aggregation of three or more persons engaged in an informal face-to-face interaction, and as a result the personality of each member is fundamentally modified. Small numbers and age and sex homogeneity are implied (22).

The children making up the group must feel they have relatively common needs and interests. The physical environment should be familiar to the members and conducive to participation. Plans should be made in advance so that the members are ready to participate voluntarily. Also, it is a good idea for the members to share in planning the experience as well as carrying out the ideas.

Activity groups engage in various types of play or handicraft to release certain emotional tensions of the participating children. They are subtly guided activities and discussions, set up with diagnostic as well as therapeutic intent (9).

Many authorities have pointed out the strong need for group acceptance that is characteristic of all children. Slavson (22) calls this "social hunger" and in his opinion it "is one of the strongest drives

in human beings." It is the chief motivation utilized in group therapy.

The strong desire to find group acceptance helps with the rebuilding of the child's conscience into a more adequate facility for self-criticism. The strengthened conscience is patterned on and identified with the group conscience. The first step is to free the childish conscience from a too heavy load of anxieties. The child may be criticizing himself by standards that are so stern that he has lost hope of following them.

Children who have been rejected, unwanted and punished have the concept that a parent is a person in authority, that is akin to that of a lord-high-executioner. The children suffer from strong guilt anxiety with heavy pressure from the super-ego. Through complete acceptance of the child and his behavior the therapist disassociates himself from the parent figure which the child has built up. The therapist regards destruction and aggressive behavior, for these children do react in such manner, as a release and as a temporary expression of the child's personality needs, through which he can grow toward more effective control without creating further severe anxieties (16).

Slavson (22) points out the purposes of unconditional love and acceptance:

In order to convince the child that the group and the group therapist do not intend to continue the persecuting and rejecting treatment to which he has been accustomed, we accept him fully with all his faults, shortcomings, destructiveness, and hostilities. We relieve him of all censorship, disapproval, nagging, punishment, that he suffered in the past and from his own guilt feelings as well. This is unconditional love.

In this permissive and accepting environment, the child does not find approval for his aggressive, destructive behavior. Through group pressures and through the establishment of a more effective relationship with the therapist as a positive parent-substitute, he starts to construct a new and more effective super-ego, built on affection and positive identification. As the group atmosphere becomes relaxed, then can the group achieve a healthy cohesiveness, and only then can the diagnostic and therapeutic values be attained.

The actions and activities through which the subjects in the group give expression to their inner feelings represent the main therapeutic device in this method. By having an opportunity to give vent to aggression and hostility, in a permissive setting without fear of adult reprisal, the subject attains emotional release from inner tensions. Thus he is able to free himself of the infantile ego and build in its place a more adequate super-ego. He is restored to a feeling of self-respect and can establish satisfying and positive relationships with other children, and eventually with adults.

Frequently the social experiences of the group give the subjects opportunity to express their feelings as in free discussion groups. Here the child is able to say what he likes to examine, to criticize, to support, to complain, to explain his own experiences and relationships with others as they bear on his crucial problems of daily living. He is provided with opportunity to ventilate and do so without fear of retaliation or punishment. The process is so structured that the subjects can relate the discussion material to their own problems of personal and

social adjustment. As self-understanding is realized he becomes able to establish new and more effective relationships with others.

Methods of group therapy afford maximum mobility for the individual in his relationships with other members of the group. The individual may withdraw to solitary activity, he may shift his center of interest by changing individuals in the group. This social mobility is achieved spontaneously, naturally, and without harmful complications (16).

During the catharsis of group activity, much material can be gained by careful observation and recording. The material thus collected can be of aid in further study and diagnosis and of help to those whose group therapeutic sessions are supplemented by individual counseling (16).

A variation of activity group therapy used by Slavson is the interview. This variation can be used to meet individual needs of clients. The therapist carries on regular interviews with most of the clients using group play and discussion at the same time. Under leadership of the therapist the youngsters discuss many of their problems such as birth, sex, masturbation, defecation, and attitudes toward parents, siblings, teachers, and other persons in their lives. They are given freedom of speech and action and are able to discharge their aggressions. Limitations are imposed only when members become excessively aggressive and there is danger of hurting other children or damaging property. They are provided with handicraft materials, eat together and, as nearly as possible, resemble a substitute family.

Feelings and inhibitions are released and the children realize

they are no different from other children. They are able to play out the family set up and relive their sibling rivalries in the group situation. Satisfying and constructive behavior results. Contacts may be made with parents and schools whenever this is indicated. Stresses and strains in the school and home should be relieved for the youngsters and attempts should be made to change attitudes of parents and teachers. Through a diagnostic approach it must be determined, however, what combination is best for the individual.

Another type of interpersonal therapy is group discussion. This involves older youngsters also interested in arts or crafts and perhaps a more manual type of work activity. The conversation and discussion centers around personal problems of the teenage client. The discussion and interpretation together bringing the members into a close relationship and one of revelation.

In play groups children are grouped according to their interpersonal therapy possibilities. They are provided with a variety of appropriate play materials and group situations. These situations might include eating together and sharing toys, materials, and equipment.

In the family substitute group, the therapist becomes the parent substitute. Members are sibling substitutes and the total group is the substitute family to which the children look for their satisfactions. The success of this arrangement is seen in the spontaneous remarks which escape the members by referring to the group as "happy family", "our family", and to workers as "Mom", "Unk", and "Papa".

Actual situations in the life of the client are employed in

situational therapy. The idea employed is that the patient constantly meets up with life and its problems. The success with which the therapist can set up and manipulate the situation in accordance with the needs of the client determines the effectiveness of treatment (22).

Sociodrama offers a method which aids the individual to mobilize his personality resources for communication. A sociodrama is a process of warming up to, embodying, and portraying of actions by individuals whereby they can disclose their feelings, ideas, attitudes, and frames of mind. There are three main criteria of sociodrama (24).

1. The sociodrama should regard common situations, which the members have met or may be about to meet in their social contexts.
2. When the sociodrama is to be portrayed before a group, the group members must have a like concern and interest in the problem; hence, any given problem must also be one which is likely to, or presently may, confront the majority of the members of the group - that is a common problem.
3. The problem should connect, as much as possible, with several broad problems falling into the category of common themes so that sociodramatic importance is compounded.

Moreno compares role-playing and role taking thusly. "Role-playing may be considered as an experimental procedure, a method of learning to perform roles more adequately." He points out the term "role" comes from the language of the stage. "In contrast with role-playing, role-taking is an attitude already frozen in the behavior of the person." He says role-playing is a spontaneous playing and role-taking is a finished product. Role-playing goes on with spontaneity and improvisation, it is not confined by a set of rules or behavior laid down by tradition. It can be modified to ever changing and novel situations (24).

Patterson and Weinberg (19) seem to prefer the term role-taking, describing it as the basis for communication; the ability to take the position of another, understand his point of view, and see oneself as others do. The person who is unable to do this indicates a loss of role-taking with accompanying lack of ordered behavior and personal development. Role-taking helps the individual revise and control his conduct accordingly. He becomes more realistic as he responds to attitudes which actually exist in others and are not imagined. Role-taking enables the individual to learn to control his behavior in accordance with demands and expectations of other persons. It is then a means by which the individual becomes aware of and is able to acquire the attitudes, values, and standards of behavior of his society and culture.

Haiman (13) suggests role-playing as a way of stimulating emotional involvement. It can be used to present a group with a concrete sample of the problems they face so that the issues are personalized and made to come alive. The members can then discuss the problem in terms of a common experience. Many of them will have emotionally identified themselves with one or another of the persons involved in the scene. The issues will come alive and the group will become more strongly motivated to solve the problem.

Role-playing is one of the oldest forms of human communication, but the structural and contrived use of this device as a group technique introduces many new elements. Role-playing is one of the most effective means known by which to communicate and motivate a group. Caution must be taken in setting up a situation with regard to the depth of the

anticipated emotional involvement of the role players as well as the group. Role-playing often invades deeply into the individual's feelings and personal problems. Skill in the retrieval of a group from an over-involvement is a most valuable tool (5).

Treatment centered around the interpersonal reactions of the actors as expressed spontaneously in the impromptu dialogue formulated by the actors themselves is known as psychodrama. The attitudes, of the client, toward parents, siblings and others in his life are clearly seen as he responds to his fellow actors. Different participants in the play activate different responses from the same patient toward the same situation (22).

As boys and girls in various therapy groups reach a level of development when they can adjust to a larger social experience they may be transferred to what is termed a transitional group. This exposes the group to a larger environment and during this transitional stage they may form their own club or individually join other clubs. The group therapist, meanwhile, guides, suggests, and acts with more authority, helping the adolescents adopt to social living and all it implies. Some of the youngsters are not quite ready for organized clubs, with definite aims and objectives, rules, laws and group pressures. The value of the transition group lies in helping these people make a gradual adjustment (22).

An Innovation

According to Miles (23), one of the social trends apparent in America today seems to be an increase in public concern about the schools as instruments of intellectual excellence. Much of the concern centers around the idea of "achievement" which involves the mastery of "subject matter". Another trend might be named "the growth of the tough human relations approach" and is exemplified in "T-Group" training. The technology and, possibly, some of the basic goals of laboratory human relations training are diffusing steadily through various strata of American occupational life.

Goulder (23) has pointed out that the skills of the social scientist are becoming more and more crucial to the operation of bureaucratic organizations.

While Americans are spending large amounts of money to understand "human relations" in their work; they deny such learning to their children because it is not "subject matter", because it is the province of the family, the church, or the social agency, or because it is somehow irrelevant to "national survival" (23).

Studies have shown that a minor portion of the adolescents' energy goes into classroom learning. A great deal of learning goes on in extra-curricular and informal friendly relationships outside the classroom. There are those critics who emphasize the learning of disciplines rather than subject matter memorization, yet insist the school has no business with "social conditioning", personality development, or the teaching of

"acceptable conduct within a group and between groups". The school is basically a social institution. Therefore, wouldn't it seem reasonable that giving some attention to classroom group processes may free more energy for content learning?

The "T-Group" is a fairly recent innovation in the technology of education. It has its roots in a system of values relative to mature, productive, and right relationships among people. The "T-Group" is grounded in assumptions about human nature, human learning, and human change. Part of its meaning stems from the commitment of practioners and participants to a set of educational goals - both personal and social.

A "T-Group" is a relatively unstructured group in which individuals participate as learners. The data for learning are not outside these individuals or remote from their immediate experience within the "T-Group". The data are the transactions among members, their own behavior in the group, as they struggle to create a productive and viable organization, a miniature society; and as they work to stimulate and support one another's learning within the society. Involving experiences are a necessary but not the only condition for learning. "T-Group" members must establish a process of inquiry in which the data about their own behaviors are collected and analyzed simultaneously with the experience which generates the behaviors. Learnings thus are achieved, are tested, and generalized for continuing use. Each individual may learn about his own motives, feelings, and strategies in dealing with other persons. He learns also of the reactions he produces in others as he interacts with them. From the confrontation of intentions and effects, he locates

barriers to full and autonomous functioning in his relations with others. Out of these he develops new images of potentiality in himself and seeks help from others in converting potentialities into actualities.

Each individual may learn also about groups in the process of helping to build one. He may also develop skills of membership and skills for changing and improving his social environment as well as himself. Workers with "T-Groups" do not see any necessary opposition between participation in groups and autonomous individual functioning, though they are well aware that opposition does occur in many associations of our lives and that group forces may be used to inhibit personal development. The "T-Group" objective is to mobilize group forces to support the growth of members as unique individuals simultaneously with their growth as collaborators. Influences among peers are paramount in this learning process. "T-Group" members develop their own skills in giving and receiving help. Members learn to help the trainer (or teacher) as he assists in the development of individual and group learnings.

While there are many obvious similarities between the "T-Group" and the therapy group, the "T-Group" differs in a number of important ways. The tendency is to utilize data about present behavior and its consequences rather than delving into genetic causes, and to deal with conscious and preconscious behavior rather than unconscious motivation. The "T-Group" makes the important assumption that persons participating are well rather than ill (23).

Leadership

Leadership refers to that process whereby an individual directs, guides, influences, or controls the thoughts, feelings, or behavior of other human beings. Leadership may be of many types but it is the direct face-to-face type that will be discussed. Another important distinction of leadership, regardless of the term used, is that it implies a purpose on the part of the leader. Much of leadership is spontaneous and the leader may not even be consciously aware of his intentions. Even so, whether planned or unplanned, conscious or unconscious, a purpose and a goal are always present.

Leadership is an interaction process. There can be no leadership without followership. Attempts at leadership must be responded to favorably by others before they can be described as acts of leadership. The follower must move to a small degree at least in the direction indicated by the leader (13).

When emotional involvement is achieved, if it is not to get out of hand, steps must be taken to encourage mutual respect and understanding among the participants. When people become emotionally involved in a discussion they are quick to doubt the sincerity and intelligence of those with whom they disagree. If emotional problems are to be solved constructively people must be free to air their feelings without fear of condemnation. Obviously it is impossible and undesirable for a leader to censor the thoughts and words of group members. But he can exert his influence against bigoted behavior in an attempt to discourage its repetition.

Fair minded members of the group will back him up in such a stand. The intolerant ones must be brought to understand the disruptive nature of their behavior, be made to feel the full force of social pressure.

The "group dynamics" concept provides a methodology for the fulfillment of the basic philosophy that final authority and leadership responsibility rests upon the members of a society. The man officially called leader performs only those tasks which the group itself is not yet mature enough, intellectually or emotionally, to handle for itself. The leader's goal is to work himself out of a job.

Basically there are three styles of leadership roles which the therapist or leader can assume. They are democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire.

Apparently the most comprehensive and extensive study in the field of leadership was done by Lippitt and White (25) under the supervision of Lewin, the Gestalt psychologist.

Although the study was undertaken in the 1930's, it stands as a landmark in the study of group behavior because it dealt with questions which mattered, as well as being a ground-breaking in experimental techniques (18).

Democracy is a social process in which the group as a whole is self-governing and in which all members of the group are equally represented in the making of collaborative decisions. If differences exist, the majority rules and the rest are expected to comply. The democratic leader guides and coordinates the groups decision-making process. He also recognizes the freedom of the individual within the limits of physical

safety and respect for property (13).

Authoritarianism is a social process wherein the making of decisions for a social unit is placed in the hands of one man who is presumed to know better than others what the group should believe and do. The autocratic leader directs the behavior of others toward his predetermined ends. His methods of control may vary and even have the appearance of democratic procedures. The crucial factor is that the leader has "authored" the decision and the followers accept it without question. This implies that the leader is thought of as superior to the followers (13).

Lippitt and White's (25) experimental definition of autocratic leadership called for "high goal and means control". The leader wants to insure successful achievement and perhaps also set up what he feels are worthwhile and feasible goals. He also gives orders to the group to be sure achievement and goals are realized. Lippitt and White feel that this "giving orders" behavior of the leader is not bad. There are many situations in which the giving of orders is consistent with a realistic regard for the ultimate welfare of the individuals concerned. For instance, there are many work situations in which a work goal is genuinely desired by all or most of the people in the group, and orders by the leader are accepted as simply a necessary way of getting the job done.

Laissez-faire is a do nothing type of leadership and implies a low degree of control by the leader. Though friendly, he plays a passive, hands off part in proceedings. The leader gives almost complete freedom to do as the participants wish, standing ready to help if asked for

assistance but making few suggestions.

Lippitt and White reported that the behavior of a group is determined by the style of leadership. Under democratic leadership members tend to be more personal and friendly. Members are more group minded and look to one another for mutual approval. More originality and creativity is displayed by both individuals and the group as a whole. Less scapegoating and a steadier level of work when the leader is out of the room is observed.

Groups governed by an autocratic leader display two patterns of behavior; the one "aggressive", the other "apathetic". Autocratic groups seem to exhibit more hostility, more discontent, demand more attention, less independence and individuality. Autocracy also creates discontent that does not appear on the surface. The quantity of work done in autocracy is somewhat greater than under other leadership.

Under the laissez-faire type of leadership less work is done and the quality is poor. Members tend toward more play and expression of discontent during sessions. The members ask more questions of the leader and lack the social techniques necessary for group decisions and cooperative planning. Individuality may be exhibited but cannot be channeled into useful fields. The general feeling of lack of progress tends to make the membership uninterested and apathetic (25).

CHAPTER III

GROUP SOCIOMETRY AND ROLE-PLAYING

Wherever human beings come together, they form lines of association and set up the process of social interaction. Interpersonal relationships are established and social experiences take place. According to J. L. Moreno the principle underlying these forms of interactions is encounter. The word encounter has many connotations and taken together encounter encompasses not only loving but also hostile and threatening relationships. The living concept of encounter conveys the idea that two or more persons meet not only face-to-face one another but to live and experience one another as actors, each in his own right (14).

The term, small groups, includes all those having from two up to about twenty members. Even larger groups may be considered small if face-to-face interactions is possible. For a collection of individuals to be considered a group, there must be some interaction. The most commonly used definition of a small group is that given by Bales (3).

A small group is defined as any number of persons engaged in interaction with each other in single face-to-face meeting or a series of meetings, in which each member receives some impression or perception of each other member distinct enough so that he can, either at the time or in later questioning, give some reaction to each of the others as an individual person, even though it be only to recall that the other person was present.

In studies done by Znaniecki and Sherif (14), it was found that several features of group life typically emerge as the group develops.

The one which best fits the classroom situation has been developed here; if interaction continues, a set of roles becomes stabilized and the new group becomes differentiated from other groups.

As groups grow in size and complexity, individuals tend to specialize in some aspect of the interaction process. The expectations for behavior in these specialties are represented by the roles of the group members.

Tracing the etymology of the word "role" we find it to be a fusion of private and collective elements down through the ages. Today, of course, it bears the connotation of being something theatrical, that is a part played on the stage. Thus by definition and analysis it is clear the term "role" came into the sociological vocabulary by the route of the drama and technological conserve, the book. J. L. Moreno (24) defines role as the unit of "conserved" behavior.

Role emergence precedes the emergence of self. Roles do not emerge from the self, but the self may emerge from roles. The hypothesis held by many is that role emergence and the genesis of language are simultaneous is not supported by experimental role research. Long before language-linked roles emerge in the child's world "psychosomatic roles" operate effectively - the role of eater, the sleeper, the walker. There seems to be resistance to intrusion of language in infants and some resistance against gestural infiltration. We should not assume that these silent areas are non-human. There is evidence that these "silent" areas have great potentialities for independent growth. There may be forms of

social communication without gestural involvement.

We can distinguish three categories of roles listed as (24):

1. Psychosomatic roles, as the sleeper, the eater, the walker.
2. Psychodramatic roles, as a mother, a teacher, a Negro, a Christian, etc.
3. Social roles, the mother, the son, the daughter, the teacher, the Negro, the Christian, etc.

The genesis of roles goes through two stages; role-perception and role-enactment. The role must be recognized as such before it can be acted or imitated.

The quality of the associations within a group produces an atmosphere for the group. Such is true in classrooms as well as in other social settings. It is within the context of education and the classroom that a review of sociometry may help determine who plays what roles. After roles and role players have been identified, there are a number of things which can be done: weak roles can be strengthened, misinterpreted roles can be corrected, and new roles can be taught. Surely, it will be evident that many roles in the group are performed satisfactorily, need no adjustment and may be used as an illustrative aid to proper role identification for other members of the group.

Just as there is a role which goes with the informal position of the best-liked person in a group, there is a role which goes with the formal position of a leader or officer in a group. In each case the term "role" refers to the set of expectations which group members share concerning the behavior of a person who occupies a given position in the group (4).

Within the social interaction, roles which individuals play is

determined. Some individuals come to the fore in the esteem of their peers, while others are resisted in their attempts to join in. In this atmosphere, some individuals become secure and happy, while others become frustrated or rejected in their efforts and become passive in their social participation.

Helen Hall Jennings (15) states that all learning in school takes place within the setting of pupil-pupil relationships. Most teachers realize that the individual's personal and academic growth can be affected adversely or favorably by his position in the group and that all pupils stimulate or thwart each other in many ways. What is not usually so well realized, however, is that the social atmosphere is very largely created and maintained by pupil interaction and only in part by the tone the teacher sets.

There are many ways of studying interaction among pupils. For instance much can be learned from direct observation, hearsay and reports of other people, from the boys and girls themselves, from formal associations, and from student records. But at best it is only partial information, often highly selective and consequently distorted. Such information can be of help, however, in addition to an analysis of the interaction of the group. Such sources of information do not reveal how a child would like to associate or how his wishes compare with the feelings of others toward him. This unsystematic observation and collection of data is accurate only at the extremes - it spots some of the highly chosen children and some who are left out. It is most inaccurate in the middle range of children who are not conspicuously chosen or left out.

We want to locate the major lines of communication or the pattern of attraction and rejection in its full scope. We want this information in a comprehensible form. In other words, we want a simple and graphical presentation of the entire structure of relations existing at a given time among members of the group. This is sociometry and a sociometric device or test is used to get the information. A diagram showing the structure of choice patterns is called a sociogram and it is this which gives us a picture of the interpersonal networks.

The first sociometric device was administered in 1932 in a public school in Brooklyn, New York. It was called a sociometric test by its originator J. L. Moreno. The term sociometry was derived from Latin and means social or companion measurement. The sociometric test is not a test in the sense that the term is commonly used, but rather a technique.

Since its original use in the public schools, its use has spread to prisons, industry, summer camps, and other places where interpersonal relations are considered important (24).

Its increased use in schools is due to several merging concepts: social adjustment and development; implications of group structure for the effective functioning of groups; influence of emotional climate of groups on the learning and behavior of individuals; values of social relations in the normal development of personality; and the importance of being accepted by others in the attainment of good personal and social adjustment. These emerging and merging concepts pointed out a need for a practical instrument to study the structure of classroom groups (2). Apparently the sociometric test is satisfying this need.

When Moreno (14) introduced sociometry, he insisted that a few simple rules be followed in using the sociometric test:

1. The limits of the group in which the test is given should be indicated.
2. There should be unlimited choices of other persons.
3. Individuals should be asked to choose and reject other group members with a specific criterion or activity in mind.
4. The results of the sociometric tests should be used to re-structure the group; that is, the group should be reorganized by placing people together who have chosen each other as liked.
5. The opinions should be given in private.
6. Questions should be phrased in ways that members can understand.

Lindzey and Borgatta (14), reported that in practice these rules are followed in only about 25 percent of all "sociometric" studies. The most frequent infractions of the rules are the limitation on choices, usually to about three, and the omission of the action step of actual re-organization of the group in line with the results of the test. It is assumed that individuals will be motivated to give more spontaneous and valid choices if the situation or activity is meaningful to them and they can see the consequences of their choices. The results are to be carried out in arrangements for living as wanted by all the members. The application is immediate; the action to be effective at once - tomorrow or next week, but not for some vague period in the future.

The basis of the choice on the sociometric test is commonly called the "sociometric question" or the "sociometric criterion". The question may be very general, or it may be very specific; it may call for positive choices, or it may include the use of negative choices. Since the test is basically a method of evaluating the feelings of the group members

toward each other with respect to a common criterion, the number of choices that each individual receives is referred to as his "sociometric status", his "social status", or his "group status". The pattern of choices to and from individuals, revealing the network of interpersonal relations among group members, is called the "sociometric structure", the "social structure", or the "group structure".

In addition to the above sociometric terms, there are terms which describe the individual as he is shown on the sociogram (11).

STAR - refers to an individual who receives a large number of choices on a sociometric test.

ISOLATE - an individual who receives no choices on the test.

NEGLECTEE - the individual who receives relatively few choices on the test.

REJECTEE - an individual who receives negative choices.

MUTUAL CHOICE - this term indicates that two individuals have chosen each other on the same criterion.

SOCIOMETRIC CLIQUE - indicates a situation where a number of individuals choose each other on the same criterion, but give few choices to individuals outside of their closely knit group. This clique forms a subgroup within the larger group.

The sociogram gives a simple graphic view of the patterns of interpersonal relationships in the class or group. From this it is readily seen that certain individuals are in need of help in understanding and improving their social role. With the help of peripheral information gathered in an unsystematic manner it is possible to sort out those individuals to whom immediate help would be most beneficial.

Role-playing if well planned, properly structured and timely will help the isolate, the neglectee, and rejectee improve his ability to correctly perceive his role and train him to spontaneity. Role-playing in itself has limitations and is not a cure-all for every case, but in

conjunction with individual counseling much anxiety about ones self-concept can be removed. The idea is to give the child an opportunity to gain self-confidence, develop better and more acceptable patterns of social behavior and make him happier with himself. This would help him to function better in his social sphere. Hopefully, then at each stage of life he would develop emotionally and socially in preparation for the next hurdle and meet it with confidence in his ability.

CHAPTER IV

THE GROUP METHOD OF PARENTAL COUNSELING AND EDUCATION

Formation of a Group

A time may come in the counseling process when it would seem to be to the best interest of the child for the counselor to have a conference with the parents. The counselor may find it worthwhile to confer with the parents in order to achieve a better understanding of his client. The perceptive counselor will gain insight as to why the child behaves as he does.

Conferences with parents of all clients may not be necessary. The emotional problems of many children have not ballooned out of proportion, while for others they have had a long time to grow to a point where he just cannot cope with the uncomfortable feelings within himself. Should the child be in the unfortunate position of not having anyone to turn to for understanding or help the strain becomes unbearable. When his internal conflict reaches this point it manifests itself in behavior patterns unacceptable to his peers and elders. Sadly enough, only when others become aware of these manifestations is the child branded with any one or possibly several of numerous labels. These labels are apt to cause more conflict and consequent damage to the whole being. This in turn is reflected in his relationships at home, at school and in society. Eventually, he finds himself before someone who is concerned, not so much

with the child himself as with the effect his behavior has upon the family and home, the classroom, the playground; anywhere someone feels threatened.

Perhaps this is what prompted a mother of an exceptional child to express what should be the ultimate aim of professional people who hope to help parents like herself when she wrote, "Our greatest need: constructive professional counseling at various stages in the child's life which will enable us as parents to find the answer to our own individual problems to a reasonably satisfactory degree." (17)

This simple plea is made by the mother of a child who has been identified as exceptional. Current usage of the term demands that a large strata of children be included in this category. However, it is not meant to deny the very real problems which must be faced by parents whose child somehow deviates from the child they had expected to produce (21).

The plea stands as a basic guideline to the professional counselor. The questions arise, then: What are the "various stages"? Who shall properly identify them? As far as most children are concerned they will demonstrate by behavior the stages. The parents will, by way of explaining away certain behavior, state it simply as a stage "he" is going through. Out of fear of the critical view of society the parents will try to cover up or hide the deviation of their offspring. They will deny the reality of the problem.

At school the teacher may be prone to call it a stage typical of the age level she teaches. She too, may feel so threatened by the

behavior that she will try to cover up, make excuses or put up with the child "for this year."

So far the institutions most involved with the child have been concerned with the overt problem. No one has "zeroed in" on the inner child. Like a house which seems to be in need of an annual paint job on the surface, no one has considered that the problem lies within the structure and only manifests itself on the surface. Hopefully, by this time, the child has come to the attention of a helping, listening and perceptive counselor.

The matter of identification falls upon the counselor. Through his interviews and personal assessment of the child the counselor may determine that he needs the aid of other professional people to help him prescribe a program by which the child can find the inner peace he desires. He may suggest physical examination, organic examination, psychometric testing or a combination of these. In view of these findings and his own observations, the counselor may elect to bring the parents in for further information and insight.

The professional counselor must guard that his own feelings don't interfere with what he desires of the parents and this in turn reduce the effect of the help they need from him. The counselor who is himself anxious and in conflict about the very problem with which the parent needs help may only serve to irritate the parents' difficulties. He should, therefore, attempt an honest examination of his own feelings and attitudes before he can expect to be helpful. If he is unable to do so he will have contributed the most if he refers the case to someone who can approach the

situation objectively (21).

A worker who has mastered his feelings can be more effective in helping the parents face the problems with which they are struggling. He will stand ready to share with them his knowledge of how these problems can be met, but he will not attempt to take over responsibility for meeting the problems (8).

The ultimate aim of the services we can render is to help parents see the child as a separate human being whose handicap (behavior) is an unfortunate happenstance. Parents must be helped to see the issues clearly and to make the necessary decisions in the light of reality. In this way the child can, in turn, be helped to develop his own individual potential to the fullest extent so that, insofar as possible, he can live happily and productively with others. This, as Jensen has stressed, is the goal for every child (21).

The direction of this paper presumes the counselor to uncover a number of clients with similar emotional problems. Several would be enough to warrant consideration of parent-group counseling.

Parent counseling may take place in individual or in group sessions and where or when a number of parents have similar problems the group approach may be a feasible method. As with individual counseling, group counseling is not to be confused with group therapy. The aim of group counseling is to give the individual parent emotional support and help in dealing with the reality he faces. Counseling is usually thought of as a one-to-one process, while group counseling as it is thought of here is a multiple counseling process. In multiple counseling, the

interchange of ideas and feelings and the social interaction of the group, under watchful leadership, provide the motivation for understanding and insight.

Multiple counseling should be used only where it is honestly deemed to be the most effective method for helping a particular parent. Some parents are better able to make use of help in individual sessions while others can benefit more from group sessions. Beck has pointed out that group sessions are not more economical in terms of time or professional effort; it's economy only lies in the fact that if it is the more appropriate form of treatment it becomes the more effective one (6).

It is up to the professional person to evaluate which type of approach - individual or group - is the more suitable for a particular parent or parents. The kinds of parents for whom group processes are most helpful have been described by Beck. These are parents who are basically mature and emotionally stable but whose functioning is temporarily impaired. Others are parents with a tendency to project or intellectualize, to whom an experience with a group of other parents can become emotionally corrective. Still other parents who can benefit from group processes are those with pronounced yet well-controlled feelings of hostility, for these can find relief through some of the limited acting-out made possible in a group setting. Finally, the group identification and group support can be helpful to parents with dependency needs which might come to interfere with the relationship to an individual counselor (6).

On the other hand, there are parents who can either not benefit from a group or who have personality patterns which tend to disrupt

groups. These are parents with highly individualized needs which must be dealt with in face-to-face interviews; parents with strong emotional dependency which might result in their monopolizing the attention of the group leader; or parents with intense masochistic tendencies who might too readily make themselves the object of the group's hostilities. A certain type of passive-aggressive individual who tends to disrupt the group process through indirect opposition and subtle sabotage, and finally, the parent with psychotic tendencies will also be among those for whom group counseling is counter-indicated (6).

Auerbach (2) has described a group counseling plan in which giving emotional support and factual information takes place in a program which she identifies as parent group education. Through such a program parents gain the factual knowledge they want about their children and about the immediate situations they face in dealing with them. Auerbach (2) further states:

Toward this end, the group members share their everyday experiences, encouraged by the leader who helps them to focus the discussion, strengthens their contributions and, where this is necessary, adds information and interpretation which the parents show they do not have. Parents also express some of their expectations, fears and fantasies, and check them against reality; they look at their own emotional reactions and come to know and accept themselves a little better; and finally they begin to think differently about things they can and want to do regarding their children, choosing, each one for himself, what seems best for him and his particular children. Here, with the help of the trained leader, parents can learn at their own pace and focus on what is most significant for them.

The benefits parents can derive from participation in group counseling come about through the exchange of ideas and experiences among the members. One mentions a problem and another, reminded of his own similar

experience, discusses how he handled this situation. Many suggestions of what to do at a very practical level are thus brought out and through the subtle process of group interaction each member can slowly clarify his or her own ideas. Since the group provides a protection to each of its members, individuals are able to discuss feelings which they may be hesitant to reveal in a one-to-one relationship. As Auerbach has put it, "The parents seem to gain courage from the other group members; the dam bursts and ideas and feelings pour forth. Once they are out, the parents seem better able to look at their situations more realistically." (2)

Leadership

To be a leader of a parent group requires preparation and skills which are different from those of the professional engaged in individual counseling. A knowledge of the group process is vital and can best be obtained by working under expert supervision. Like his colleague engaged in individual counseling the group leader should have a good knowledge of the special problems of the children with whose parents he is working as well as an understanding of normal child development, parent-child relations, and personality dynamics. The group leader should have familiarity with the cultural background from which the parents come so that he can understand some of their feelings and fears. He should also have knowledge of other community resources which might need to become involved for additional services. Since group settings, often more so than individual interviews, bring out dependency needs and hostilities of group members the leader must be aware of his own feelings and reactions to these.

While he may be able to deal quite easily with the hostility of one individual in a face-to-face contact, being confronted by the mutually supported hostility of five or six people can constitute a considerable threat (21).

The many different things which parents gain from group meetings, include a better understanding of their children and the implications of the problem and how to handle it, a better recognition of their own feelings and attitudes and the ways in which these affect the child as well as the rest of the family. When counseling, whether in individual or group sessions, can accomplish all this it has been truly a helping relationship.

Ruth Duvall states that counseling is an important means of parent education. If possible opportunities for it should be provided in connection with every study group. Like surgery, she says, it is a difficult and often delicate matter (10).

The type of counseling which is described earlier in this paper takes place after the fact. However, the best counseling is preventative. When the perceptive counselor senses the need for such counseling then it seems reasonable that he should launch a preventative program. After all, a problem of long duration is far more difficult to deal with constructively. The counselor or counseling service would be wise to organize and support programs of parent education.

Perhaps the single most important step in initiating such a program is that of selecting leadership for the study-group situation. George K. Pratt (20) says "Leadership in parent education is an art and

and like other arts in human relationships it is a process of continuing development." Today, increased attention is being given to one factor present in every study-group situation and we might add in every one-to-one situation. This factor now recognized as having tremendous potential for influence of the inter-relationships is feeling. Since this element is so dynamic then it is an imperative qualification the leader must fulfill.

If learning is regarded as a process of educating the emotions as well as informing the intellect, then it is recognized that another consideration is involved, namely that the only place to begin the learning process is where one is not where one thinks (or fears) one ought to be. This obstacle to a simple beginning generally exists in study groups. In this context, the obstacle is the belief that there is such a thing as an ideal perfection in the performance of the parental role. Though it may not be expressed in so many words, it is implicit in much of the literature used in parent education, as well as in the attitudes of many leaders.

Members come to study group meetings with this concept. This belief itself may make it difficult if not impossible for the member to be a natural self. The implication for the role of leader is that learning about human relations cannot come about by glossing over with generalizations those qualities which people need in order to become better parents. In the last analysis, each member of a group must be responsible for his or her education using the group experience as well as resource materials in the group as may be significant. Factual information about child training is of great help to members in their striving for

educational growth, but some leaders are beginning to think that even more helpful is the vicarious experience shared through the study and discussion of special material (20).

A "feeling" leader naturally enters a study-group situation aware of its emotional undercurrents and relatively free from ideas of what or how much he should be getting across to his group. He is reasonably immune from the need to intrude his personal point of view into the lives of others even when tempted by a member of the group who wishes unconsciously the leader to take over the responsibility for solving her problem. This kind of leader knows that no leader can ever solve the problem of any group member. The leader also realizes that his function in this respect is limited to providing as favorable an emotional atmosphere as possible in which the group member encounters no needless obstacle to working out his own problem for himself.

The leader is free also from the urge to alter a members' ways of living "for their own good." The leader brings to the study-group situation the same liking for people and confidence in them which is hers in everyday life situations, the ability to see people and accept them as they are, without judgmental or wishful thinking. The leader is honest and does not appear to be one kind of person rather than another.

The perceptive leader or counselor who can play the basic role as described before will be encouraged by signs of a successful study-group. Some parents may outgrow the concept of perfection and strive for the "right" thing in their relations with their children. They will show evidence of becoming unshackled from the anxiety and feelings of guilt and

discouragement which follow the inevitable frustrations of their efforts to achieve such an ideal. The leader will observe that group members are beginning to accept the natural difficulties in their own family situations with diminishing anxiety, with less fretting and self-accusation or self-justification, as the case may be. Once acceptance has been achieved the next step of dealing with those difficulties more impersonally and sensibly may be well within reach (20).

Direction of the Group

Much has been said about the leadership of a study-group and little about the course of study the group should pursue. Frankly, in some cases the very reason for organization of the group will pretty much determine the study. In other groups the leadership will determine topics for study while in other groups the topics for discussion may arise from within the group itself.

Dr. Pratt (20) proposes the use of the illustrative family narratives as a springboard for discussion in study-group meetings. These materials lie close to the everyday experience of parents. Experience in parent education leadership has shown that the most stimulating discussion of all is that which revolves around a living situation similar to those in which parents ordinarily find themselves.

The leader selects the narrative to be used, realizing of course that each individual parent at any meeting is going to use the experiences of the people in the story in her own special way feeling toward these characters each according to her own emotional needs (20).

The Duvalls (10) would explore the interests of the group. The leader would consider their specific interests and felt needs as the basis for the program. The idea is to get expressions of interest out into the open as quickly and comfortably as possible.

Once the direction of study has been determined, helpful materials are collected. Pamphlets, books, mimeographed outlines and statements are used. Community resources such as money, agencies and personnel are marshalled to help promote and support parent study-groups (10).

Ruth Andrus and Mary E. Peabody (1) produced a series of outlines for group discussions. The object of their work is to facilitate the task of the leader. Andrus and Peabody assume all the ground work has been done and that the leader might need guidelines to help give direction to the program. Regardless of the way in which the aims of the group are implemented, the Andrus and Peabody study units idea would be valuable to the leader.

So it may come about that through the discussions the members of a study group may achieve understanding and insights into human relationships which they have not had before. From such discussions, they may obtain more tolerance for their children and less anxiety about themselves as parents. Such response could possibly prove to be a step on the way toward a lasting tolerance and freedom from guilt or anxiety. Perhaps if this experience can be repeated often enough, these parents may some day be themselves with their families a greater part of the time. Consequently, our basic purpose of parent education through study-groups will have been achieved: parents may gain the emotional freedom they need

to build a more satisfying family life. A satisfying family life will enable the child to develop as a happy confident person who knows he is loved, wanted and accepted. Within himself he will be comfortable and imbued with a love and zest for life.

Community Concern

Many forces in the community affect the growth, development and ultimate behavior of every child. On the negative side these forces may include unhappy family life, inadequate housing, cultural conflicts, the inconsistent value systems of the gang and neighborhood. Among the positive constructive influences in the community would be stable and cohesive family life, good schools, neighborhood clubs and playgrounds, child health and welfare services, and the church with its various organizations. The forces for good or evil are multiple, varied and complex. All children find themselves in the stream of these influences in the course of their daily living, at the same time these forces involve the adult members of society. However, child growth and development and the control of delinquency are not the exclusive concerns of the home, school, church, police, and courts. Child growth and development are the concerns of every citizen, every parent, and every worker who comes in contact with children and youth (16).

The task of safeguarding the children of the community is not one that can be accomplished easily or by one individual or group alone. Similarly, any such endeavor will succeed only to the extent to which all community members, organizations and agencies join forces in study

and planning. Likewise, any program of aid to youth cannot progress beyond the level of understanding and community acceptance. A good public relations program plus effective community education is necessary to achieving a successful community youth program.

Every community has within its framework a number of services established for the benefit of children and youth. Many times the existing facilities, however, are seldom the result of any planning and organization. The development has not formed any meaningful, closely-knit pattern of planned service to youth. The result is an overlapping, agency rivalry, antiquity, and lack of coordination.

When such problems are overcome, there is a vast selection of groups which the members of the community can organize, support and give its youth an opportunity to join. Naturally the adult sponsors, individuals or community groups will expect the group to perform specific functions for specific members or categories of people.

If the available youth-serving agencies and organizations are to be improved; if needed services not presently available are to be procured; if all resources are to be so articulated that the specialized needs of children are to be met at the strategic time and with the most promising of service; two conditions must prevail (16).

1. A continuous study of local youth problems and local youth-serving agencies is necessary.
2. Some community system or body should be established that will insure over-all organization, planning, and coordination of services to all youth.

A valuable service can be provided by youth organizations in the community as regards student adjustments. The counselor or therapist

ought to make himself cognizant of the groups which are functional and worthwhile. He should have a roster of the available clubs, their functions and qualifications for membership. He must know what kind of leadership is provided and the scope of the benefits offered children.

Above all, the counselor should be very careful in making referrals so that no new problems are created by entering the child in a new social group. Making this adjustment may offset any gains sought for another purpose.

The counselor should also be aware of adult groups which help youth of the community, indirectly, through their own programs, or directly through sponsorship of a club or youth group activities. The counselor can be instrumental in encouraging and assisting adult organizations to sponsor clubs and activities which will attract the community youth and help keep them occupied. School administration and personnel could do well to encourage and lend support to such ventures for they can serve two purposes. School people can perform a preventative role by providing healthful, purposeful release for youthful energies. Secondly, such availability in the community offers referral opportunity for youngsters who need the personality adjustment derived from group experience.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

In summary of the research of literature on groups and group therapy, there seems to be a trend toward the group type of therapy. By whatever name it travels in society, education or business, the possibilities for reaching many people are great. The types of groups that may be employed are varied. Contemporary publications and literature and current group activities of this nature would have us believe it is the only way. While in some instances and under some circumstances its therapeutic effect is valuable, it does have an element of danger when practiced by the inexperienced. To some it poses a threat; to others it is a sure way to gain publicity. Used properly and sensibly, there is no reason why it cannot be a helpful means to a greater understanding of self, and a better development of personality for happier life.

Conclusions

The idea of group or multiple therapy carries implications for those in a position to use its potential. Teachers, ministers, and those who counsel must take a good hard look at the process. Hopefully, no one would use this method unless there was some real advantage. The most fruitful and satisfying counseling is done on a "one-to-one" basis.

Certainly no one should use the group approach because "everyone else is doing it." Circumstances and situations will have to be considered before such decisions can be made.

Recommendations

To the counselor who is working with children it may suffice to offer ideas for thought. Further study and even personal involvement in group sessions would be reasonable before attempting such an undertaking. More good can be done by being a helpful person to one individual at a time. Groups seem to offer a powerful therapy in their approach, but in the hands of the untrained and inexperienced, the emotional well being of a youngster should not be risked. Counselors should be aware that such therapy is not the only way - the only way is the way of a "helping" person.

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