# Group Dynamics: Instructional Resources

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These materials have but one purpose: to make teaching a course in group dynamics easier, more efficient, and more productive. The chapters in this resource collection correspond to the chapters in the book *Group Dynamics*, sixth edition, and each one includes: (a) Learning objectives for the key concepts and content of the chapter; (b) A list of the terms that are bold in the text and defined in the running glossary; (c) Group activities that examine the chapter’s key ideas.

One of the advantages of teaching group dynamics is that the subject matter itself can be created and demonstrated within the confines of the classroom—both traditional ones as well as those that make use of distance learning technologies. The explicit goals of group-process classes can vary from a heavy emphasis on experiential learning to an exclusive focus on theory and research, but the activities in this manual were designed to satisfy the needs of those who wish to demonstrate the application of theoretical principles and empirical results in a small group setting.

*Learning (not growth) Activities.* The activities offered here are linked to the content of the chapter in a direct way. They focus is on application and demonstration of text material to group experiences rather than personal growth or self-insight.
Grading and Engagement. Not all students enjoy, or take advantage of, small group learning experiences. Meyers (1997) and Forrest and Miller (2003) both note that some students will not work very hard when in groups, and they identify a number of steps to take to reduce social loafing. Meyers provides a very detailed summary of group activities that can be used in group dynamics class. In some cases—particularly when students work in long-term groups—the only way to insure fairness is the have students evaluate one another’s level of contribution and heavily weight the student input when assigning grades.

Experiential Learning and Reflection. The activities can be carried out in class or outside of class. Most involve forming small groups, giving the group time to solve a problem or complete a specific task, and then reviewing the implications of the experience in a debriefing session. Students tend to enjoy the activities, but then not link the experience back to course concepts. The solution: have them prepare a short paper on the project.

Consent. Some of the teaching ideas presented in this manual require withholding information from students, misleading them in some way, or role-playing. If you use such methods forewarn students at the beginning of the semester and solicit their informed consent. Also, be certain to leave sufficient time for a thorough debriefing following the exercise.

Measurements Issues. Some of the activities involve asking students to complete self-report inventories of basic personality constructs, such as leadership tendencies. Make clear to students that these instruments were designed for research purposes rather than practical assessment, and they are only approximate measures of their standing on the attribute.

Internet Resources
The Internet offers a range of resources for instructors who wish to use technology in their teaching. Students can access databases of abstracts dealing with groups, review the homepages of researchers in the field, read and respond to interactive programs that demonstrate group processes, take part in online experiments, study the activities of contemporary groups in media reports, and visit the homepages of groups. These resources are described in more detail at the following site:
http://donforsythgroups.wordpress.com/

References

Acknowledgements
I developed these materials over the years in both graduate and undergraduate classes dealing with groups, and I offer my thanks to my students for providing me with so much useful feedback about their effectiveness. I also wish to thank colleagues who have contributed their energy, ideas, and activities to this compilation of teaching exercises, including Ray Archer, Jennifer Burnette, Glenn Littlepage, Dick Moreland, Judy Nye, Ernest O’Boyle, Ray Pope, Paul Story, Gwen Wittenbaum, and the participants at various workshops on teaching group dynamics.
1 Introduction to Group Dynamics

The tendency to join with others in groups is perhaps the single most important characteristic of humans, and the processes that unfold within these groups leave an indelible imprint on their members and on society. Group dynamics are the influential processes that take place in groups as well as the discipline devoted to the scientific analysis of those dynamics.

Learning Objectives

1.1. Define the term group, specifying size and necessary conditions, and contrast groups to networks.
1.2. List and explain five basic characteristics of groups.
1.3. Define task interaction and relationship interaction.
1.4. Use the McGrath model of group tasks to classify a range of group tasks.
1.5. Diagram the following types of interdependence: symmetrical (mutual), hierarchical, and sequential.
1.6. Compare and contrast these four basic types of groups: primary groups, social groups, collectives, and categories.
1.7. Summarize Campbell’s theory of entitativity and apply the theory to draw distinctions between a series of common, everyday groups and aggregations.
1.8. Identify the implications of the Thomas Theorem for understanding group dynamics and the group fallacy.
1.9. Compare cultures’ in terms of readiness to perceive and endorse group-level explanations.
1.10. Compare and contrast an individual and group level analysis of the concepts groupmind and norm.
1.11. Describe Durkheim’s position on the concept of collective conscious (or group mind), and compare it to Allport’s view.
1.13. Explain the significance of Sherif’s study of norms for resolving issues of the reality of groups raised by Allport.
1.14. Describe the typical course of a group’s development.
1.15. Use Hackman’s multilevel approach to explain the performance and cohesiveness of orchestras.
1.16. Illustrate the application of group dynamics research in such disciplines as clinical psychology, education, sociology, and sports/recreation.
1.17. Provide examples of the impact of groups on (a) individuals and (b) society.
1.18. Critique the statement “Humans would do better without groups.”
1.19. Distinguish between topics that are studied by group dynamics researchers and topics that aren’t studied by them.

**Key Terms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>action research</td>
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<td>B = f(P,E)</td>
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<tr>
<td>collective</td>
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<td>entitativity</td>
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<td>essentialism</td>
<td></td>
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<td>group</td>
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<td>group cohesion</td>
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<td>group development</td>
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<td>group dynamics</td>
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<tr>
<td>group fallacy</td>
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<tr>
<td>group mind (or collective conscious)</td>
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<td>group structure</td>
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<td>interdependence</td>
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<td>level of analysis</td>
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<td>membership</td>
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<tr>
<td>multilevel perspective</td>
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<tr>
<td>norm</td>
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<tr>
<td>offline group</td>
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<td>online group (or e-group)</td>
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<td>paradigm</td>
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<td>primary group</td>
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<td>relationship interaction</td>
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<td>(socioemotional interaction)</td>
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<tr>
<td>role</td>
<td></td>
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<td>social category</td>
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<td>social group</td>
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<td>social identity</td>
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<td>social network</td>
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<td>stereotype</td>
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<tr>
<td>task interaction</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Thomas Theorem</td>
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</table>

**Activities**

1-1. **Identifying Groups.** Help students answer the question, “What is a group?” by splitting the class up into groups and giving them examples of aggregates that vary in “groupness.” After they rank order them from the most to least “grouplike,” review the list and identify the ways groups differ and their common properties (e.g., size, duration, cohesiveness, identity, and so on). You can also compare the students’ reactions to the distinctions noted in the text’s Table 1-2.

**Instructions.** Humans are social animals, for we naturally gravitate away from isolated circumstances into groups. But what, precisely, is a group?

Which collections of people listed below are groups, and which ones are not? For each group, enter G for Group, C for Collective, CAT for Category, or ? if you aren’t certain. Also, rank the aggregates from 1 (the most group-like) to 25 (the least group-like).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group ?</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Aggregate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The spectators at a college football game.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Two people flirting with each other, having met for the first time at a club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>All the students in a class</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>All the students at this school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.</td>
<td>A mob of rioters burning stores in the inner city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Individuals in a queue waiting to pay for items in a grocery store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The Smith family (husband, wife, 3 children, 1 grandparent)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>People who enjoy classical music</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The faculty in the Math Dept., on a holiday when classes are not in session</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>All the people who are friends with the same person in Facebook</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>All the members of the American Group Psychologists Association</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>A crowd watching a street musician on a sidewalk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>A secretary talking to the boss by telephone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>6 employees wearing sound-muffling earplugs working on an assembly line</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>The Dave Matthews Band</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>People who drive Saturns automobiles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>People who live in the same neighborhood</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>All people who think of themselves as Canadian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Four individuals writing and editing a Google Document</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Roommates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>People in the U.S. who are opposed to capital punishment and write their senator expressing their views</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Friends who do things together</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Members of sports team</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Women citizens of the U.S.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>People in the audience at a movie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**1-2. Kinds of Groups.** Introduce students to the study of groups by asking them to review the groups to which they belong and the way these groups influence them.

**Instructions.** Almost all of our time is spent interacting in groups. We are educated in groups, we work in groups, we worship in groups, and we play in groups. But even though we live our lives in groups, we often take them for granted. Consider their influence on you by naming the groups to which you belong, as well as those that influence you.

1. Make a list of all the groups you belong to now. List as many as possible, including primary groups, social groups, collectives, and categories. Be sure to include dyads in your list.
2. What general conclusions can you draw about the groups you listed in item #1?
3. Which group has changed the most over time? Describe this change briefly.
4. Which group is highest in cohesiveness, and which is highest in entitativity?
5. Which group has influenced you, personally, the most? Explain the group's influence on you briefly.
6. Identify five groups that you do not belong to, but that influence you in some way. Of these groups, which one influences you—your behaviors, emotions, or outcomes—the most?

1-3. The Ubiquity of Groups. Ask students to state how many groups that they interact with, during the course of a week. Then, ask them to keep a running list, for 5 days, of every group they join in. Spend time in class reviewing the types of groups they should consider listing, and remind them to include groups they might overlook, including dyads and online groups.

A second way to help students “see” groups is to spend time, in class, listing the groups to which group members belong. Using a nominal group method, ask the students to list all the groups they belong to on a sheet of paper. Then pool their responses in a collective session, identifying unique groups, similarities, and noting their classifications.

1-4. Understanding Multilevel Analysis. Review multilevel concepts, focusing first on the individual, and the systems that are networked within the person. Then, ask students to identify the levels of organization for their group dynamics class (e.g., individuals, dyads, group class, department, college, university, region, nation). Continue the analysis by leading the class through examples of groups, communities, or organizations that can be examined at multiple levels (using Figure 1-6 may help, but also Figure 15.1). Raise questions relevant to students that require a multi-level analysis, such as

- Why do students, when they first come to the University to study, often feel lonely?
- Why do college students drink so much alcohol?
- Why do some students perform so poorly on tests in classes?
- Why do some students join the ROTC program on campus?

You can supplement activity 1-2 by asking students to describe increasingly inclusive groups to which they belong. Just add this item to Activity 1-2, as item 7:

As Figure 1-6 suggests, groups are often embedded in other groups. Select at least two groups that you belong to and identify the larger groups and organizations of which they are a part. If, for example, you noted that you are a member of a class, indicate increasingly larger units above (and below) that unit. Summarize your multilevel analysis by drawing a graph like the one in Figure 1-6 for at least 2 of your groups.

1-5. Goal Setting. Use a modified nominal group method to identify your goals and students’ goals. Distribute index cards to students and have them provide their names, majors, and so on. Ask them to list 5 groups they belong to and 3 questions about groups they want answered. Pool their questions during class, asking each student to read a question from his or her list. Continue, in round-robin fashion, soliciting questions and note them in abbreviated form on a flip-chart or the board. Summarize the session by reviewing
the topics to be examined during the semester, and relate the topics back to their questions.

1-6. **Demonstrating Group Characteristics and Dynamics.** Give students a “welcome to groups” quiz as individuals, and then as groups. Include items from the test bank, but also a few more obscure items like those listed below. Compare the group score to individual scores, and use the experience to discuss the basic elements of groups, including interaction, interdependence, group tasks, and cohesion. You can also use the activity to foreshadow topics, including group composition, performance, and so on. The answers on the following items are D.

1. How many groups exist at this time?
   a. 100,000
   b. approximately 1 million
   c. approximately 1 billion
   d. more than 6 billion
   e. between 10 and 20 million

2. Which statement about juries is true?
   a. The single juror who disagrees with the verdict favored by the 11 other jurors manages to change the jury’s verdict about 25% of the time.
   b. Because juries are made up of people who don’t know each other, each juror’s has an equal influence on the group’s deliberations.
   c. About one third of all juries end in a deadlock.
   d. Men jurors tend to talk more than women jurors.

3. Which is false?
   a. Lewin is pronounced to rhyme with “shoe in.”
   b. Some early experts on crowds believed groups had “minds”.
   c. People in groups are less helpful in emergencies than lone individuals.
   d. Synergy (dramatic increases in motivation and creativity) is common in groups.
   e. Freud believed group bonds were libidinal in source.

4. Who wrote the following: “There is nothing so practical as a good theory.”
   a. Sigmund Freud
   b. Floyd Allport
   c. Émile Durkheim
   d. Kurt Lewin
   e. Gustave Le Bon

5. A man bought a horse for $60 and sold it for $70. Then he bought it back for $80 and again sold it for $90. How much money did he make in the horse-trading business?
   a. $40    b. $10    c. none    d. $20    e. $30

1-6. **Motives and Goals in Class.** Before giving your students a syllabus, ask them to meet in groups and develop one themselves. You can structure this task using the worksheet that
follows, but note that this exercise tends to be extremely dynamic. Group members often have very different views on these issues, which they resolve through discussion only partially. Then, if the class contains several groups that meet to describe their decisions, intergroup conflict can occur. Remind students that the exercise is informational only, and will not have a binding impact on their final course design.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllabus in Group Dynamics</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instructions.</strong> For this exercise, you are role-playing a team of professors who are teaching a course on groups. You are planning the syllabus and general structure of the class: goals, format, activities, tests, and general policies. Begin by introducing yourselves to one another. Also, pick someone who will act as the spokesperson for the group. Note: this activity is a role-play only, and will not necessarily influence the design of this course.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>What Are the Goals for this Course?</strong> What do you want students in the class to learn? How should this course contribute to their overall educational goals? What should they know about groups when the course ends? Rate each goal below: 3 stars for high priority goals (<em><strong>) , 2 for lower priority goals (</strong>), and 1 for low priority goals (</em>). Give ones you are uncertain of a “?”</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ability to observe a group and understand its dynamics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Competence in working with other people in a group context</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comprehensive knowledge of major research studies of group processes</td>
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<td>Firm grasp of theories that explain group processes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improved proficiency in leading a group successfully</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knowledge of how to do research that will lead to improvement of groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knowledge of ways group dynamics can be applied to improve groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Understanding of basic processes that occur in groups (e.g., leadership, conformity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding of ways groups can be used to help people (therapeutic groups)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note any other goals not listed above.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>What Topics Will Be Covered in this Class?</strong> What do you want to teach students about groups? Rate each topic: 3 stars for the topics that are most important to teach (<em><strong>) , 2 for important topics (</strong>), and 1 for low priority topics (</em>). Give ones you are uncertain of a “?”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion in groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collectivism and individualism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conflict between group members</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conflict between groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowds, mobs, and collectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision making in groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ecology of groups: group settings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Formation of groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Identity and the influence of groups on identity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improving the effectiveness of groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Influence in groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obedience and power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research methods</td>
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<tr>
<td>Structure of groups (norms, roles)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teams and teamwork</td>
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<tr>
<td>Group development</td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>History of research on groups</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

What other topics should you examine in the course?

**What Learning/Teaching Methods Should We Use in the Class?** What methods will be used to teach this material? Again, rate each possible activity using one to three stars (more stars, the more you like the method).

- Assign students to a group to carry out a semester-long project dealing with groups.
- Class reads and discusses articles from primary sources, such as journal articles.
- Professor and guest lecturers present information about groups.
- Professor leads class in class-as-whole discussion of topics.
- Students spend a portion of the class in subgroups carrying out activities (such as this one).
- Students work in teams using online communication systems
- Students will do individual work, such as term paper, book reviews, etc.

**What Types of Assignments Will Be Made?** What methods should be used to evaluate our progress toward our goals? Again, rate each possible method using one to three stars (more stars, the more you like the method).

- Cumulative objective final exam
- Classroom participation grades
- Essay examinations (how many? ___)
- Grades assigned by other class members to individuals in groups/class
- Group project completed by semester’s end (all group members get same grade)
- Individual projects completed by semester’s end
- Keep a journal of ideas/observations related to groups
- Multiple choice examinations covering text/lecture/activity material (how many? ___)
- Oral examinations (how many? ___)
- Pop quizzes (how many? ___)
- Short papers giving analysis of group’s activities written after each classroom activity
- Students lead the class in a discussion of a topic, and review of assigned articles
- Students make one or more presentations to class (short, say 15 minutes)
- Take-home essay exams (how many? ___)
- Term paper
- Writing assignments (literature review, book reviews)
- Other
2 Studying Groups

There is no one right way to do research, but most scientific enterprises require a) measuring group and individual-level processes; b) testing hypotheses in case studies, experimental, and nonexperimental designs; and c) developing theories that explain group processes.

Learning Objectives

2.1. Explain why measurement, research design, and theory are critically important in scientific research.
2.2. Define and give examples of observational measures of group dynamics.
2.3. Compare and contrast (a) participant, covert, overt, and structured observational methods; (b) quantitative and qualitative measurement methods; (c) observational and self-report measures.
2.4. Use a structured observational system (e.g., IPA) to describe the behaviors observed in a group.
2.5. Use sociometry to describe the structure of a group.
2.6. Define and give an example of the following basic research designs: case study, experimental, and nonexperimental (correlational).
2.7. List the key characteristics of an experiment.
2.8. Describe the basic features of an experimental study of a group phenomenon, being certain to identify the independent and dependent variables.
2.9. Identify the key procedures required in a correlational (nonexperimental) study of a group phenomenon.
2.10. Interpret a correlation coefficient by explaining how it summarizes the nature and strength of the relationship between two variables.
2.11. Debate the relative strengths and weaknesses of experimental and nonexperimental designs.
2.12. Describe the “unit of analysis” and interdependence problems a researcher faces when studying groups rather than individuals.
2.13. Discuss the ethical issues raised by research on human groups and examine steps to take to minimize those concerns.
2.14. Summarize the basic assumptions of each of the following general theoretical approaches to studying groups, and describe one theory that illustrates each approach: motivation and emotion perspectives, behavioral perspectives, systems perspectives, cognitive perspectives, and biological perspectives.

Key Terms
Activities

2-1. Observing Groups. Send students into the field to observe groups in vivo. Before they carry out their observations remind them of the importance of studying only groups in public places and the need to focus on group-level processes. It may be helpful to review with them a videoed group interaction, pointing out the sorts of features that they should record and interpret.

Instructions. Find an aggregate of individuals in some public place. Observe the grouping of people for at least 20 minutes, and be sure to take notes. Answer the following questions.

1. Provide the who, what, when, where, and how for your group. Who was in the group? What was the group doing? What were the characteristics of the people in the group? Where did you find your group? How were the people arranged in the physical environment?

2. What were the characteristics of the group (rather than the people in the group)?
   a. Interaction: How were the members interacting with each other?
   b. Interdependence: Did group members depend on each other? Did they influence one another?
   c. Structure: Could you discern the group's norms, roles, and status and communication patterns?
   d. Goals: What was the group's purpose?
   e. Unity: Did the group seem to be cohesive? Do you think the members shared a sense of identity with one another? Was it high in “entitativity” (perceived groupness)?

3. Critique your study of the group, from a measurement standpoint. How could you have increased the scientific accuracy and value of your observations?

4. Did anything about the group puzzle or surprise you? Did your observation raise questions that could be answered through research?
2-2. **Structured Observation.** Help students understand and use a structured coding system in their observations by reviewing one system in class. Play a videotape of a group discussion (such as a portion of the group discussion in the film *Twelve Angry Men*) and demonstrate how each remark can be classified using a structured observational rating system, such as Bales IPA or SYMLOG.

**Instructions.** Measure the patterns of communication among members or study the content of a group’s discussion. Find a group to observe, such as a classroom discussing a topic (but not a classroom listening to a lecture), a meeting of a governmental group, a meeting at your place of work, or even a group featured in a television program or movie. Next, study the group’s communication patterns and the content of the discussion.

1. **Communication duration.** Note the start time of the meeting and, for each statement, indicate how long the speaker holds the floor. If the communication is rapid and speaker changes rapidly, use only frequency counts.

2. **Communication analysis.** Document who speaks to whom using a chart like the one shown below to help you keep track of the information flow. When, for example, Erick speaks to Kelley, record the interaction in the Erick-to-Kelley box. At the end of the meeting compute the percentage of contributions of each member and general speaking patterns. If the communication rate is not too great, you can also record how long each member speaks and turn-taking exchanges (who speaks after who). Use the data you collect to draw conclusions about the group’s structure and process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>Audrey</th>
<th>Erick</th>
<th>Jon</th>
<th>Pat</th>
<th>Kelley</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audrey</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erick</td>
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<td>Pat</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kelley</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

3. **Content analysis.** Analyze the content of the discussion by classifying each remark using a structured coding system such as the Bales’s Interaction Process Analysis, SYMLOG (Bales, Cohen, & Williamson, 1979), or a system that you personally devise. The categories of the Interaction Process Analysis (IPA), for example, are shown below. To use the system develop a chart like the one shown below. Each time an individual makes a remark, classify it into one of the IPA categories and record who said it by marking the appropriate column on the form. If, for example, Erick says “I
don’t think that is such a good idea,” then mark the gives opinion box. Use the data you collect to draw conclusions about the group’s structure and process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IPA Behaviors</th>
<th>Member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Audrey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seems friendly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dramatizes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agrees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives suggestion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives opinion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks for information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks for opinion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks for suggestion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagrees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shows tension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seems unfriendly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2-3. Research Ethics. Break the class up into small groups and ask them to role-play members of an institutional review board.

Instructions. You are to role-play a member of a committee that monitors the use of humans as subjects in research. Read the researcher’s description of the proposed project, and evaluate it on methodology and on ethics. First, identify the measurement methods used: observational, self-report, or something else. Second, identify the design as case-study, correlational, or experimental. Last, and most importantly, decide if the project is approved as ethical or disapproved as unethical. If unethical, make suggestions to the researcher on how he or she can change the study so that it can be carried out.

1. Group Membership. I am interested in how groups bind members tightly to the group. To test the hypothesis, “the higher the costs created by membership, the more one will be committed to the group” I will ask subjects to take part in a group discussion of strengths and weaknesses of this school. Before they join the group, I will randomly assign subjects to one of two conditions. Those in the mild costs condition will be told that they must listen to a quiet buzzing sound for 5 minutes before they can join the group. Those in the severe costs condition will be told that they must undergo a series of electric shocks before they can join the group. I predict that people who undergo shocks will like their
group more than those who listen to a quiet buzzing sound. I will debrief them afterwards.

2. **Tearoom Trade.** My research involves systematically investigating a group of individuals engaged in what is considered by most to be “deviant” behavior. A public restroom has been located in the city which functions as a “Tearoom”; a meeting place used by males for homosexual activities. This tearoom will be observed for a period of several months, and information about its users obtained. This will include estimates of age, socioeconomic status, and role while engaged in homosexual acts. I will also try to interview these individuals by asking them for their telephone numbers and calling them at home. Given the health risk posed by such behavior, any information that we can obtain should be useful in understanding how AIDS and other diseases are transmitted in a community.

3. **Esteem and Outgroup Perceptions.** I seek to test the hypothesis that individuals who have low self-esteem bolster their sense of self-worth by denigrating members of other groups. To test this hypothesis I plan to recruit 40 people to take a test of social intelligence. To manipulate self-esteem I will tell 20 people that they scored very low on the test, but 20 will be told they scored well. I will then measure their attitudes toward members of other racial and ethnic groups. I expect that those told they scored poorly will rate members of other groups more negatively. I will debrief subjects.

4. **Performance and Cohesion.** I think that the notion that cohesive groups outperform groups that lack cohesion is false. I think that groups that have low cohesion, because they are not distracted by personal concerns, outperform cohesive ones. I will test this hypothesis by giving the Cohesion Inventory (CI) to 100 small work units within several large corporations. I will also collect objective evidence of the performance quality of those units from supervisors, as well as group members’ descriptions of the time they spend working when in the group and the amount of time they spend socializing.

5. **Social Identity and Conflict.** Recent studies by Insko and his colleagues find that groups are more competitive than individuals to a striking extent. I wish to pursue some of the underlying causes of this individual-group discontinuity by studying aggression in groups. Individuals and groups will be given the opportunity to administer shocks to one another. We predict that when groups are given the opportunity to develop a shared identity they will respond aggressively against threats from another group. Subjects will be informed, in advance, of the use of shock and will be given every opportunity to withdraw if they so choose. Written consent will always be collected. The shock machine that will be used is a Buzzowitz143, which is a battery-based model that can deliver stinging, but nonharmful, shocks even when set at maximum levels.

6. **The Dynamics of a Self-Help Group.** Although Alcoholics Anonymous seems to be an effective method of dealing with alcohol dependence, few studies have examined the dynamics of AA in detail. As a first step in such a project, I propose to study a local AA group. After identifying myself as a researcher and gaining the consent of the members, I will attend meetings for one year, tracking who attends each meeting. I will interview
members, examine the group’s records and history, and interview former members. I plan to publish my findings in articles and in book form.

2-4. Case Studies. One of the best ways to understand groups, in general, is to understand one group, in depth. The case-study approach has a long tradition in all the sciences, with some of the greatest advances coming from case studies rather than from other methods. Have students find a group, and study it during the entire semester. They should use proper scientific procedures, including taking field notes, carrying out interviews with members, and writing up their findings in a paper. Additional information about case study methods us available at the web site http://facultystaff.richmond.edu/~dforsyth/gd/case.htm

2-5. Conduct a Study in Class. Collect some data from students in the class to demonstrate the application of the scientific method to the study of groups. Although possibilities are limitless, one tried-and-true approach is to collect information from the students in terms of personality qualities, and then examine the correlations among those qualities. You could, for example, administer a basic measure of the Five Factor Model of personality, and use it to predict preferences for working in groups, seating location preference, or even the number of friends one has on Facebook. Alternatively, conduct an experiment of some type in class. One of the most basic experiments in groups involves asking people to answer a survey or questionnaire alone and then in a group. This individual/group paradigm gives students insights into both experimental methods and group performance.
3 Inclusion and Identity

Philosophers and social scientists have long pondered “the master problem” of social life: What is the connection between the individual and society, including groups, organizations, and communities? This chapter examines three aspects of this relationship: inclusion of the individual in the group, the individualism-collectivism continuum, and the inclusion of the group in identity.

Learning Objectives

3.1. Review the evidence that suggests humans have a fundamental need to belong to groups.
3.2. Define social capital and use this concept to explain contemporary trends in human sociality.
3.3. Distinguish between social and emotional loneliness.
3.4. Describe how humans react when excluded (or ostracized) from a group.
3.5. Provide a graphic summary of the inclusion-exclusion continuum.
3.6. Summarize the three stages of the temporal need-threat model of ostracism.
3.7. Compare the flight-and-flight response to the tend-and-befriend response.
3.8. Summarize an evolutionary theory’s explanation of the need to belong in humans, being sure to describe the survival advantages and disadvantages offered by sociality.
3.9. Compare the sociometer model of self-esteem to a more traditional view of self-esteem.
3.10. Discuss the physiological consequences of social exclusion.
3.11. Compare and contrast individualism and collectivism, focusing specifically on differences at the micro (individual), meso (group), and macro (societal) levels.
3.12. Compare and contrast the self-conception a person who is an individualist to the self-conception of a person who is a collectivist.
3.13. Use the concepts of exchange and communal relations to explain how group members react to violations of reciprocity and reward.
3.14. Describe the Ultimatum Game and summarize differences in responses to this game found in cultures that vary in individualism and collectivism.
3.15. Use the distinction between equity norms and equality norms to explain how group members respond to differences in the amount of benefit they receive for membership.
3.16. Summarize the research findings that examine differences in individualism-collectivism (a) across cultures; (b) ethnic and regional variations; and (c) across generations.
3.17. Use the concept of “culture of honor” to explain why some individuals respond so negatively when insulted by another person.
3.18. Describe the minimal intergroup situation examined by Tajfel and Turner and identify the implications of this paradigm for understanding group processes.

3.19. Summarize the basic assumptions of social identity theory, being sure to examine social categorization processes and social identification processes.

3.20. List and give specific examples of the ways social identity processes can generate increases in self-worth, including ingroup-outgroup bias, basking in reflected glory, social creativity, and social mobility.

Key Terms

collective self-esteem  individualism  social capital
collectivism  Individualists (or independents  social categorization
collectivists (or or idiocentrics)  social creativity
interdependents or ingroup-outgroup bias  social identification
allocentrics)  loneliness  social identity (or collective
communal relationship  minimal intergroup situation  self)

cyberostracism  need to belong  social identity theory
egocentric (or self-serving)  norm of reciprocity sociocentric (or group serving)
equality norm  optimal distinctiveness theory sociomter theory
equity norm  ostracism stereotype threat
exchange relationship  personal identity stereotypes (or prototypes)
fight-or-flight response  self (or self-concept) tend-and-befriend response
group culture  self-stereotyping (or Ultimatum Game
individual culture  autostereotyping)

Activities

**3-1. The Collective Self.** Have students code their 20 answers to the question “Who am I?” into two categories: collective qualities (roles, family relations, and social identities based on ethnicity, race, gender, and so on) and individualistic qualities. You can also use a more refined category system, like that developed by Rhee, Uleman, Lee, and Roman (1995). Their coding system includes 33 subcategories and 8 general categories: Traits, social identities, specific attributes, evaluative descriptions, physical descriptions, emotional states, peripheral information, and global descriptions. This activity works better if you have the students do the “Who am I” test in class before asking them to code their listings.

**Instructions.** How much of the self is personal and how much is interpersonal? Explore your sense of self by taking the “Who am I” twenty-statement test (Kuhn and McPartland, 1954).

1. Number the lines on a sheet of paper from 1 to 20. On each line, complete the statement “I am ...” with whatever aspect of yourself comes to mind. Answer as if you were talking to yourself, not to somebody else. Write the answers in the order they occur to you, and don’t worry if they aren’t logical or factual. Do not continue reading about this activity until after you finish making your list!

2. Read each statement and then classify it into one of two categories. Collective qualities are any descriptions that refer to the self in relationship to others. It includes roles (“I am a student,”), family relations (“I am a mother,”), ethnicity, race, gender, and origins (e.g., “I am an African American” or “I am from the States”), and religion. Individualistic
qualities are qualities that apply to you personally, such as traits, attitudes, habits, and mood (e.g., I am intelligent,” or “I like to play soccer”).

3. Summarize your self-concept by computing the percentage of your self that is individualistic versus collectivistic.
   a. Is your self-concept more individualistic or collectivistic?
   b. Did you tend to list collective qualities earlier in the list than individualistic ones?
   c. Was it difficult to classify the self-descriptions as either individualistic or collectivistic?
   d. Which qualities are more central to your identity: the collective or individualistic components?

3-2. Categories and the Self. Once you have a set of “who am I” statements (from Activity 3-1), carry out an activity described by Morandi and Yoder (2001). They went through students “who am I” statements, and eliminated any responses that revealed the student’s gender (such as “I am a good son” or “I am a mother”). They then read the self-descriptions to the class, and asked students to try to identify the sex of the respondent. The hit rate was approximately 75%, suggesting that individuals communicate information about their sex through their more subtle self-descriptions. [Source: Moradi, B., & Yoder, J. D. (2001). Demonstrating social constructionism in psychology courses: The “Who am I?” exercise. Teaching of Psychology, 28, 201-203.

3-3. Loneliness: Forms and Functions. Ask students, working alone, to rate each of the groups shown in Figure 3.1 (crowd, audience, a class in college, hobby club, regulars at a bar, support group, therapy group, lovers, married couple, commune, work team, rescue team, sorority, space station crew, small family) and others (fraternity, friends in Facebook, “besties,”) on two scales: meets my need for social relations and meets my need for an intimate relationship. Sex differences will likely emerge.

3-4. Measuring Individualism, Collectivism, and Identity. Ask students complete measures of individualism, collectivism, and social identity. A number of measures of individualism-collectivism are available (e.g., Chen & West, 2008; Gaines et al., 1997; Triandis, 1995), and several sample items pertaining to independence, goals, competition, uniqueness and collectivism are listed below are drawn from Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002 (and see p. 80 of the text).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain name</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Sample item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>Freedom, self-sufficiency, and control over one’s life</td>
<td>I tend to do my own thing, and others in my family do the same.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals</td>
<td>Striving for one’s own goals, desires, and achievements</td>
<td>I take great pride in accomplishing what no one else can accomplish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>Personal competition and winning</td>
<td>It is important to me that I perform better than others on a task.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniqueness</td>
<td>Focus on one’s unique, idiosyncratic qualities</td>
<td>I am unique—different from others in many respects.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Privacy | Thoughts and actions private from others | I like my privacy.
Self-knowledge | Knowing oneself; having a strong identity | I know my weaknesses and strengths.
Direct communication | Clearly articulating one's wants and needs | I always state my opinions very clearly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collectivism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Relating | Considering close others an integral part of the self | To understand who I am, you must see me with members of my group.
| Belonging | Wanting to belong to and enjoying being part of groups | To me, pleasure is spending time with others.
| Duty | The duties and sacrifices that being a group member entails | I would help, within my means, if a relative were in financial difficulty.
| Harmony | Concern for group harmony; desire that members get along | I make an effort to avoid disagreements with my group members.
| Advice | Turning to close others for help with decisions | Before making a decision, I always consult with others.
| Context | Self changes according to context or situation | How I behave depends on who I am with, where I am, or both.
| Hierarchy | Focus on hierarchy and status issues | I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.
| Group | Preference for group work | I would rather do a group paper or lab than do one alone.


Instructions. Your evaluation of yourself—your self-esteem—depends on both the value you put on your individual qualities as well as the value you put on your collective ones.  
1. Select one social group or category that you belong to and with which you identify strongly. The group could be an actual social group, such as a team, a church congregation, or your university. It could also be a social category that reflects your race, your gender, your religion, or your ethnicity.
2. Describe the importance of this group for your identity.
   a. Do you frequently characterize people, including yourself, as inside or outside this group?
   b. Have you listened to other people’s discussions of what it means to belong to this group?
   c. Have you explored what membership in this group means to you personally?
   d. Has your connection to this group changed over time?
3. Explore your collective self-esteem by answering these four sets of questions about this group (based on Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992).
a. Membership esteem: Do you feel that you are a valuable member of this group? Do you feel good about the contributions to make to it?
b. Private esteem: Do you evaluate this group positively? Are you proud to be a part of this group?
c. Public esteem: Do other people evaluate this group positively? Do nonmembers respect this group?
d. Identity esteem: Is this group an important part of your identity?

3-6. **Priming Collective Identity.** Instantiate your students’ collective identities through discussion or by treating them as a group. You can, for example, assign them to groups that meet for several weeks. Give these groups tasks in which only the group’s score counts as the individual student’s grades, and refer only to the groups rather than individuals in the group. Ask the groups to name themselves, and at the end of the period ask them to describe their group’s unique features. A more rapid way to shift students toward collectivism involves leading the class in an informal discussion that compares your students to those from a nearby, rival university. Once their collective identity is primed, have the students complete a measure of self-concept or self-esteem.

3-7. **Families as Groups.** Challenge students to explore the idea that early experiences in the family group are related to the tendencies people display in groups as adults by asking them to describe the structure and dynamics of their family, with a focus on how they relate to other family members (are they dominant? submissive? active? passive?). Do these tendencies parallel activities they undertake in groups?

3-8. **Basking in Reflected Glory or Cutting off Reflected Failure.** Robert Cialdini and his colleagues (1976) discovered that the number of students wearing university-related clothing changes dependent on the performance of their school in important academic contests. Examine this tendency to Bask in Reflected Glory (BIRG) or Cut Off Reflected Failure (CORF) by asking student to act as observers of their fellow classmates. For several days before and after a “big game” ask students to record the clothing of their fellow students. Their observations should reveal an increase in university-related clothing (e.g. sweaters, hats, t-shirts) when the team wins and a decrease when the team loses.
4 Formation

Groups spring from many sources and serve many purposes, but this chapter examines three sets of factors that can create a group where none existed before: the personal qualities of the people who are seeking membership, the nature of the situation that prompts people to affiliate with one another, and the feelings of liking that draw members to each other.

Learning Objectives

4.1. Summarize the impact of personal factors and situational factors on group formation.
4.2. Use the five factor model of personality to make predictions about the relationship between personality and engagement in groups.
4.3. Provide a textured analysis of sex differences in relationality.
4.4. List the three key social motives that influence the tendency to join a group.
4.5. Summarize Schutz’s Fundamental Interpersonal Orientation (FIRO) theory.
4.6. Describe the typical actions displayed by individuals who are socially anxious when in groups settings.
4.7. Compare Western cultures’ evaluation of shyness to an Eastern cultures’ perspective.
4.8. Use the theory of attachment proposed by developmental psychologist to explain individual differences in joining groups.
4.9. Discuss the impact of one’s general beliefs about groups and one’s prior experiences in groups on decisions to join groups in the future.
4.10. Summarize the methods used by Schachter to study affiliation in groups.
4.11. Use the concept of social comparison to predict when individuals will join with others.
4.12. Describe the role that group’s play in helping individuals cope with stressful and/or dangerous circumstances.
4.13. List five types of social support and give a detailed example of each type.
4.15. Summarize Tesser’s self-evaluation maintenance (SEM) model and use it to predict who will join a study group and who will work alone.
4.16. Describe the methods used by Newcomb in his study of the acquaintance process.
4.17. Define, and given an example, of each of the principles of interpersonal attraction: proximity principle, elaboration principle, similarity principle, complementarity principle, reciprocity principle, minimax principle.
4.18. Summarize the assumptions of Thibaut and Kelly’s social exchange theory, and use that theory to predict when an individual will join a group and when he or she will leave a group.
Key Terms

affiliation agreeableness artists circle attachment style 
comparison level (CL) comparison level for 
alternatives (CLalt) complementarity principle 
downward social comparison elaboration principle 
experience sampling extraversion 
Five Factor Model (FFM, or big five theory) 
Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO) homophily 
interchange compatibility minimax principle 
need for affiliation need for intimacy 
need for power originator compatibility 
personality proximity principle 
reciprocity principle relationality self-evaluation maintenance 
(SEM) model shyness similarity principle 
social anxiety social anxiety disorder 
social comparison social movement 
social support upward social comparison

Activities

4-1. Attraction in Groups. Arrange for students to meet in groups and discuss some current topic, review material for an upcoming test, or complete the exercise described below. After the meeting, ask them to identify patterns of interpersonal attraction that developed within their groups.

Instructions. Split up into pairs, and interview one another for 2 or 3 minutes. Get basic details about one another, such as major, interests, background, and so on. Then, introduce your partner to the group without referring to your notes. When the introductions are complete discuss, as a group, the questions asked after each of the stories. Reach complete agreement in your group on each one.

1. During severe flooding a man found he had just time to rescue his wife or another woman and a baby (not relatives). What should he do?
2. You live in country where two groups, the Serbs and Croatians, hate each other. In a town controlled by Serbs many believe a murder has been committed by a Croatian. Since the criminal’s identity is unknown, Serbs plan to attack and kill five Croatians chosen at random. The police chief knows this, but cannot find the guilty party. He has asked other authorities (e.g., National Guard, UN) for help, but they refuse. In desperation, he thinks the only alternative is to arrest and frame a Croatian chosen at random from the town. The chief consults with you before going ahead. What do you say?
3. In a small western town a switch operator was just about to turn the switch for an approaching express train when he saw his little son (his only child) playing on the track. The choice he has to make was between the life of his son and the lives of passengers that would almost certainly be killed if the train derailed. What should he do?
4. In Europe a woman was dying of a rare form of cancer that could possibly be cured with a new experimental drug. The inventor of the drug wants $2,000 for the treatments, and her husband Heinz had only $1,000. Heinz pleaded with the inventor to let him owe the
rest, but the inventor said "I discovered the drug, and I’m going to make money on it" (the raw materials for the drug cost only $200). Heinz, in desperation, stole the drug. Was this a moral action?

**Assignment.** Reflect on the processes that unfolded as you got to know the other group members. Consider your feelings and experiences, and try to reason out the causes of your reactions, satisfactions, and emotions.
1. Describe your interpersonal behavior in the group. Did you act in a way that others would consider to be dominant? friendly? helpful? supportive? active? List the other people in the group, and describe them using adjectives or short phrases, such as "seemed interested," "took control," "helpful."
2. Was there anyone in the group who you particularly liked? What was it about that person that attracted you?
3. Someone in the group probably impressed you less than everyone else. What was it about that person that caused you to react less positively?
4. How did you react to the group, as a whole? Did you like being a member of the group?
5. How did the group react to you at the interpersonal level? Do you think the group liked and accepted you? If yes, why? If no, why?

**4-2. Social Exchange in Groups.** Ask students to describe the rewards and costs they gain through membership in a particular group. Alternatively, lead the class through a discussion of the costs and rewards associated with their membership in the class or school, or in their membership in a common social category.

**Instructions.** From all the groups that you currently belong to, select one that you have been an active member of for several months. Pick a group that is you joined or voluntarily associate with, rather than one that you were assigned to. As you think about this group, identify the rewards you gain from membership and the costs the group creates for you?

1. Describe a group that you have been an active member of for at least 3 months.
2. What do you get out of membership in the group?
   a. Does the group accept you? Does it satisfy your need to belong?
   b. Is the group a source of interesting experiences or new ideas? Is it a source of useful information?
   c. Do you like the other people in the group? Do you enjoy being with them?
   d. Do you enjoy the group activities?
   e. Does the group help you accomplish tasks and reach goals that are important for you personally?
   f. Do you enjoy taking charge in the group?
   g. Does the group help you in various ways? Do members provide you with social support? With advice? With tangible assistance, such as money, food, or the like?
3. What kind of costs do you incur by belonging to the group?
   a. Does belonging to the group take time away from other activities?
b. Is it expensive, in terms of money, to belong to the group?
c. Does the group pressure you into doing things you would rather avoid?
d. Do you dislike some people in the group, and so dread some group functions?
e. Are you frequently bored by the group?

4. Overall, what is your evaluation of the group, and your commitment to this group? Do you plan to remain a member for very long?

4.3. Individual Differences in Seeking Membership. People differ in their tendency to take part in groups. Some seek out membership, but others prefer to remain apart. Explore these relationships between membership and personality by assessing students’ “big-five” personality traits with the following items: extraverted-introverted (Items 1-6), agreeable-hostile (Items 7-12), conscientious-undirected (Items 12-18), stable-unstable (Items 19-24), and openness-slow (Items 25-30). All even-numbered items are reverse scored. These forms are not validated indexes, but they are useful for educational purposes.

Instructions: Please rate yourself on the following adjectives by placing a number on the line next to each adjective where:

1 = not at all
2 = slightly
3 = somewhat
4 = moderately
5 = extremely

__ 1. outgoing
__ 2. quiet
__ 3. gregarious
__ 4. reserved
__ 5. sociable
__ 6. introverted
__ 7. agreeable
__ 8. irritable
__ 9. friendly
__ 10. uncooperative
__ 11. nice
__ 12. ill-tempered
__ 13. conscientious
__ 14. lax
__ 15. responsible
__ 16. unreliable
__ 17. dependable
__ 18. impractical
19. calm
20. nervous
21. even-tempered
22. emotional
23. controlled
24. moody
25. quick-witted
26. uncreative
27. imaginative
28. simple
29. analytical
30. prefers routine

4-4. Downward Social Comparison and the Self. Nier (2004) describes a means of demonstrating, in the classroom, students’ tendency to assume that they are superior to the average other person: the “above average effect.” He asks students to rate themselves on a series of adjectives using a 9 point scale where 1 indicates “considerably well below average” and 9 indicates “considerably well above average.” The adjectives vary from positive to negative, and they pertain to either ambiguous qualities or unambiguous ones. Nier finds that individuals are more likely to claim that they are better than average on positive, ambiguous items. In the list below, items in first column are positive and ambiguous, column 2 are positive and unambiguous, column 3 are negative and ambiguous, and column 4 are negative and unambiguous. [Source: Nier, J. A. (2004). Why does the “above average effect” exist? Demonstrating idiosyncratic trait definition. Teaching of Psychology, 31, 53-54.]

Instructions. Please think about yourself and your basic qualities. Using the items below, please rate yourself on a scale by writing the number 1 to 9 on the blank by each adjective where:
1 = considerably well below average
2 = well below average
3 = below average
4 = slightly below average
5 = average
6 = slightly above average
7 = above average
8 = well above average
9 = considerably well above average

| __ sensitive | __ neat | __ inconsistent | __ wordy |
| __ idealistic | __ thrifty | __ impractical | __ sloppy |
| __ disciplined | __ athletic | __ submissive | __ clumsy |
4-5. **Stimulating Group Formation.** Ellis and Kelley (1999) and Lewis and Gurung (2003) use a matching simulation to study how people select partners in dyadic relationships. They give students cards with values that indicate the holder’s social worth, but the students can only see others cards and not their own. They then try to form pairs with others in the room. This simulation can be modified to examine the formation of larger groups. Randomly assign each student a number from 1 to 30, and have the student (without looking at the number) place the number of their forehead or back. Then have the students gather in groups of 4 or 5, but provide them with guidelines for forming and regulating membership in these groups. Possible rules include:

- Do not look at your own number, or tell anyone else what number they have.
- Your task is to join others in small groups. Your groups can include as many as five people, but no more than that.
- You will receive a reward based on the average value of your group. Groups with highest average values will receive a disproportionate amount of the available rewards.
- The decision to join with another person in a group is done with a clasp of the hands. If the other persons accepts your offer of forming a group, they will join hands briefly in a collective handshake. If they do not accept your offer, they will decline to shake your hand.
- You may decide to withdraw from a group, if you wish, and seek out another group. To do so you must gain the attention of the members of your current group, wave goodbye to them, and then seek out another group.
- Groups may decide to remove a member of a group if all the members agree with this decision (save the person being removed). The group members indicate their decision by standing together and waving goodbye, in unison, to the former member. That individual then must find another group to join.

5 Cohesion and Development

Groups, like all living things, develop over time. The group may begin as a collection of strangers, but uncertainty gives way to cohesion as members become bound to their group, its members, and its tasks. This chapter reviews both the causes and consequences of group cohesion and the development of cohesion over time.

Learning Objectives

5.1. Synthesize diverse perspectives on cohesion in a multicomponent, multilevel model.
5.2. Compare the concept of social cohesion to interpersonal attraction.
5.3. Describe the following five aspects of cohesion: social cohesion, task cohesion, collective cohesion, emotional cohesion, and structural cohesion.
5.4. Summarize the methods used by Muzafer and Carolyn Sherif in their study of group development in summer camps, and note the implications of their findings for understanding cohesion.
5.5. Identify the differences between open and closed groups, particularly with regards to variations in cohesiveness.
5.6. Discuss the relationship between a group’s structure and its cohesiveness.
5.7. Describe the basic assumptions of the following theories of group cohesion: Hogg’s social identity theory, Freud’s replacement hypothesis, identify fusion theory, and relational cohesion theory.
5.8. Describe at least three ways to measure a group’s level of cohesion.
5.9. Summarize Tuckman’s theory of group development.
5.10. Examine the relationship between conflict and cohesion.
5.11. Compare successive stage theories of group development to cyclical models, providing examples.
5.12. Compare polychronic cultures to monochronic cultures.
5.13. Identify the positive and negative consequences of high levels of cohesion.
5.14. Explain the relationship between cohesion and group productivity.
5.15. Use the concept of norms to explain when cohesion increases a group’s productivity and when it does not.
5.16. Review both field and laboratory studies of the impact of initiations on commitment to a group and group cohesion.
5.17. Summarize the findings obtained by Festinger and their colleagues in their study of a small “doomsday” group.
5.18. Explain why groups often haze their members and why they should abandon this practice.

Key Terms
Activities

5-1. Group Development. Students can use Tuckman’s (1965) model to trace and describe the changes in a group to which they belong. They can also (a) complete this exercise at the end of the semester, using the class as an example and (b) use items from Wheelan and Hochberger’s (1996) questionnaire measure of group development, which is summarized in Table 5-3 of the text.

Instructions. Study the long-term development of a group to which you currently belong or once belonged. Select a group that has a history that you can document, rather than one that has only recently formed. For example, classes that meet for a semester before they disband, sports teams, project teams at work, and informal friendship cliques are just a few of the types of groups you could examine.

1. Begin by describing the group in detail when it first formed. Give examples and anecdotal evidence when appropriate.
2. Describe any changes that took place in the group over time. Make note of the extent to which the group experienced (a) the orientation stage, (b) conflict, (c) increased cohesion and changes in structure, and (d) a period of high performance. Which of the two theories discussed in the book—Tuckman’s stage model or Bale’s equilibrium model—best describes your group?
3. Discuss the group socialization processes, focusing mainly on yourself. Has your evaluation, commitment, and role in the group changed over time. Has the group changed is evaluation and commitment to you?

5-2. Measuring Cohesion. Much of the confusion about the concept of cohesion arises because researchers and theorists confound the causes of cohesion with the definition of cohesion. Cohesion arises from many sources, but it is, at root, just the unity, integrity, and solidarity of a group. The BCI: Basic Cohesion Index measures cohesion, here defined as group unity (The even items are to be reverse scored).

Instructions. Is this a cohesive group? Please indicate your perceptions of the group by answering each statement with one of the following:

Strongly Agree (5)  Agree (4)  Uncertain or Neutral (3)  Disagree (2)  Strongly Disagree (1)
1. This group is cohesive.
2. Members tend to drift away from the group.
3. This group is unified.
4. This group is just a collection of individuals.
5. This is a close-knit group.
6. This group is not very unified.
7. This group is not just separate individuals, but a unified whole.
8. This group is not cohesive.
9. This group is a "we" rather than just a collection of "me's".
10. This group lacks solidarity.
11. Members of this group are fused together to form a whole.
12. This is a group in name only.

You can also demonstrate the many components of cohesion by asking students to rate a group that they belong to currently, or have belonged to in the past. Alternatively, you can ask the students to rate the class as a group or to just identify the items that they think are indicators of cohesiveness. The items on the scale are based on Table 5-1, and make up ten subscales of a multicomponent, multilevel measure of cohesion. The four components are social, task, perceived, and emotional cohesion, and the two levels are individual and group. The instructions, items, and key follow:

**Instructions.** Is this a cohesive group? Please indicate your perceptions of the group by answering each statement with one of the following: Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Uncertain or Neutral (3), or Disagree (2) or Strongly Disagree (1). Then, select the 4 characteristics that you feel best describe your group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>First Item</th>
<th>Second Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group-level social cohesion</strong></td>
<td>1. I like this group.</td>
<td>11. I am attracted to this group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual-level social cohesion</strong></td>
<td>2. For the most part, I like the people who are members of this group.</td>
<td>12. I would consider many of the people in this group to be my friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group-level task cohesion</strong></td>
<td>3. Group members work well together to achieve group goals.</td>
<td>13. The group members diligently pursue the group's goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual-level task cohesion</td>
<td>4. I enthusiastically contribute to the group’s goal-related efforts.</td>
<td>14. I am willing to work hard for this group’s goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group-level collective cohesion</td>
<td>5. Members are bonded to the group.</td>
<td>15. The members of this group identify with this group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual-level collective cohesion</td>
<td>6. I identify with this group and its members.</td>
<td>16. I feel like a part of this group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group-level emotional cohesion</td>
<td>7. This group has a great amount of energy.</td>
<td>17. The group has team spirit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual-level emotional cohesion</td>
<td>8. I get excited just being in this group.</td>
<td>18. I am happy to be a member of this group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group-level structural cohesion</td>
<td>9. This group is well-organized.</td>
<td>19. This group has a high level of structural integrity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual-level structural cohesion</td>
<td>10. I understand my place in this group.</td>
<td>20. The role I play in this group is well-defined.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5-3. Punctuated Equilibrium.** Break students up into small groups with one observer assigned to each group. Give the groups a large sheet of paper and crayons, and ask them to create an image of their university, their city, or their country. (Any other nondivisible activity can be substituted for the group-drawing task). Give the observer a set of instructions that asks him or her to note the time the group begins work and ends. Observers should also be asked to write down a short description of the group’s interactions every five minutes (sound a buzzer at regular intervals), and note any dramatic changes in the way the group is working on the task. Collect the observations and discuss them.
5-4. School Spirit and Group Cohesion. Replicate Reifman’s (2004) study of school spirit at your university. Reifman, working with colleagues at 20 different universities, developed and administered a series of measures of a university's collective “school spirit.” The measures examine the cohesiveness and esprit de corps of each university, but focus on the university as the level of analysis. The investigators used a variety of direct and indirect measures, including coding students’ apparel for evidence of university-affiliation, counting school decals in the student parking lots, measuring “closeness” with the university using a visual test like that shown in Figure 3-4 of the text, and a modified version of the Collective Self-esteem Scale (see Table 3-5 of the text). Reifman found that these indexes were relatively well-correlated, with relationships ranging from .82 (between the visual closeness measure and the Collective Self-esteem Scale items) to .24 (between alumni giving and university apparel worn by students. [Source: Reifman, A. (2004). Measuring school spirit: A national teaching exercise. Teaching of Psychology, 31, 18-21.]

5-5. Which Comes First: Success or Cohesion? Cohesion has such a strong positive connotation, particularly in connection to team performance, that students sometimes need help recognizing the strength of the performance-to-cohesion relationship. To demonstrate the impact of outcome on cohesion ask students to work in small groups on a series of problems.
1. Give each member of the groups a response sheet for their answers, but also a space for them to indicate their perception of their group’s cohesiveness.
2. Put the questions to the group orally or via a projector, and have the group deliberate briefly to reach an answer. Give the groups immediate feedback on their answers.
3. At random intervals ask the group members to rate the cohesiveness of their groups on a scale from 1 (not at all cohesive) to 9 (very cohesive).
4. Chart the decline in cohesiveness seen in groups that perform poorly, and the increase in cohesiveness seen in groups that succeed.
6 Structure

Personality cannot be seen, but it nonetheless shapes individual’s actions and reactions. Similarly, a group’s structure is often invisible, yet it substantially influences processes and outcomes. Just as the structure of personality can be described in a variety of ways, so have different theorists stressed diverse structural qualities in their analyses of groups. This chapter emphasizes norms, roles, and intermember relations (status, attraction, and communication).

Learning Objectives

6.1. List and define briefly the structural features of a group.
6.2. Compare and contrast the concepts of norms, folkways, and mores.
6.3. Distinguish between the following types of norms: prescriptive, proscriptive, descriptive, and injunctive.
6.4. Describe the methods used by Sherif to study the development of norms.
6.5. Provide a normative explanation for both healthy and unhealthy behaviors.
6.6. Compare norms that develop in offline group to those that develop in online groups (such as Facebook).
6.7. Describe the features of roles in groups.
6.8. Explain how and why roles become differentiated over time.
6.9. Compare and contrast the three types of roles identified by Benne and Sheats: task roles, relationship roles, and individual roles.
6.10. Predict the impact of role differentiation on group cohesion and conflict.
6.11. Graphically summarize Moreland and Levine’s theory of group socialization.
6.12. Identify sources of role stress, including role ambiguity, role conflict, and role fit.
6.13. Explain social network analysis and define the following indices: density, degree centrality, betweenness, and closeness.
6.14. Use social network analysis to graphically summarize the patterns of status, attraction, and communication in a group.
6.15. Use social network analysis to compare the formal structure of a group to its informal structure.
6.16. Summarize the assumptions of balance theory and use the theory to explain the sociometric structure of a group.
6.17. Give several examples of various types of communication networks in groups, and differentiate between those that are centralized and ones that are decentralized.
6.18. Describe the relationship between network centralization and (a) task performance; (b) member satisfaction; and (c) turnover.
6.19. Discuss the directionality of information in hierarchically organized groups.
6.20. Use SYMLOG to describe the structure of a well-known group.
Key Terms

balance theory  indegree  role differentiation
betweenness  injunctive norm  role fit
cliques  interrole conflict  role-taking
closeness  intrarole conflict  self-presentation:
degree centrality  mores  social tuning
density  outdegree  sociometric differentiation
 descriptive norm  pluralistic ignorance  status differentiation
folkways  prescriptive norm  Systematic Multiple Level
 group socialization  proscriptive norm  Observation of Groups
 holes  role ambiguity  (SYMLOG)
role-taking

Activities

6-1. Group Structure: Ask students to describe a group’s structural components, including its norms, roles, status, sociometric structure, and communication patterns. Alternatively, have students answer these same questions about structure after they meet in a classroom group.

Instructions: Take a moment and reflect on the structure of a group to which you belong. This group can be one that meets regularly in a work or social setting, or a subgroup of the students within a class. (You can even consider your family’s structure!) Describe the group’s structure in terms of roles, norms, and intermember relations.
1. List the members of your group by first name.
2. Describe each person’s behavior with 3 or more adjectives and a role label such as leader, follower, Mr. Friendly, deviate, joker, silent member, conformist, high talker, or brains.
3. List some of the norms that existed in your group. Are any of these norms relatively unique or unusual? Did anyone violate any norms, and need censuring by the group?
4. Draw a diagram of the authority relations in the group, placing the leader at the top, followed by those next in status, and so on.
5. Draw a sociogram of your group that reflects patterns of attraction. Use your best judgment to determine who likes and dislikes whom.
6. Graph the communication network in your group. How efficient is the organization? How can it be changed to be more effective?

6-2. Sociometry: Individual Projects: Group structures can seem vague and ill-defined until students create visual representations of intermember relations. Sociometry remains a useful tool for social (socio) measurement (metry).

Instructions: Group dynamicist Jacob L. Moreno found that he could reduce the amount of conflict in groups if he grouped together people who liked one another. He developed sociometry to help him accurately measure social relationships.
1. Find a group of people who are willing to answer a few questions about the group. Once they agree to help you, ask each member three questions: Who do you respect the most? Who do you like the most? Who do you communicate with the most?

2. Summarize these choices by drawing a sociogram. Draw circles to represent each group member, then use capped lines to indicate respect, liking, and communication. If the group is large you may need to draw three separate graphs, one for each type of relationship.

3. Redraw the diagram, putting people who are frequently chosen in the center, and those who are not at the periphery. You may need to try several arrangements to find one that gives you a clear diagram of the group.

4. Draw some conclusions about the group based on the sociogram. Identify:
   - stars: highly popular members.
   - isolates: infrequently chosen individuals.
   - pairs: reciprocal partners.
   - clusters: subgroups or cliques.

6-3. Sociometry: Group Project: Instead of asking each student to carry out a sociometric analysis of group—a very time-consuming task—form teams of students and assign them a group to study. You can, for example, measure the structure of your academic department by asking each student to contact a specific member of the faculty, who provides confidential information about liking, communication, and respect. You will need to give students envelopes that respondents can use to seal in their nominations. Another variation involves studying the classroom itself. In large classes, it may be necessary to have each class member stand up and state his or her name when this assignment is made so that classmates can all use the same names in their nominations.

Instructions. This project involves measuring the structure of this classroom. So that a diagram of the class can be developed, each member of the class should report (1) who they like the most, (2) who they respect the most, and (3) who they communicate (interact) with the most. Do not name the instructor. Understanding that this may be viewed as a minor invasion of your privacy, please note that:
   - Your choices, while still linked to you by name, will be seen by only one person. This person is not affiliated with the class, and has no knowledge of this class or its members. This person will simply assign each person a code name; only the coder will know which code goes with which person. Therefore your responses are completely anonymous.
   - The final end-product a chart depicting relationships among group members will bear no names.
   - You need not participate if you feel your choices are private.

Given this information, please answer these four questions.
1. What is your name?
2. Who do you like the most in the class?
3. Who do you respect the most in the class?
4. Who do you communicate with (interact with) the most in the class?
6-4. **SYMLOG Ratings:** Use Bales' SYMLOG method to describe how observations of groups can be structured or as a theoretical model of group structure.

**Instructions.** Bales developed a checklist that observers can use to structure their observations of groups. He has also developed a self-report scales that members can use to rate themselves (and other group members) on three dimensions. The individual version of SYMLOG is shown in Table 6.3 of the text. The table lists 26 behavioral tendencies, beginning with “dominant, active, talkative” and ending with “silent, passive, uninvolved.”

1. Complete the 26 items in “General Behavior” column of Table 6.3. Give yourself a 0 if the behaviors don’t describe you at all, a 1 if they are somewhat accurate, and a 2 if they are very accurate. For example, on the first item if you feel that you are typically dominant, active, and talkative, then give yourself a 2.

2. Calculate your scores by adding together items that have the same Trait type label, indicated by the letter (U, P, F, D, N, B) in the column labeled “Trait (Direction)” in Table 6.3

   ___ Dominance = Sum of U items
   ___ Positive = Sum of P items
   ___ Task = Sum of F items
   ___ Submissive = Sum of D items
   ___ Negative = Sum of N items
   ___ Expressive = Sum of B items

3. Do the final 3 calculations

   ___ Dominance/submissiveness = Dominance minus Submissiveness.
   ___ Positive/negative = Positive minus Negative.
   ___ Instrumental/emotionally expressive = Task minus Expressive.

4. Interpret your scores. They can range from -18 to +18 (although typically they fall closer to the 0 point). If, for example, your scores are all positive, then you fall in the dominant, positive, and task quadrant of the group. Do you feel that the questionnaire is an accurate reflection of your dominance, positivity, and instrumentality?

6-5. **SYMLOG Graphing.** After forming small work groups of 3 to 4 students, ask the groups to review, briefly, the assumptions of SYMLOG, including the adjective ratings in Table 6.3 and the chart shown in Figure 6.6. Then ask the group to use SYMLOG to create a chart like the one in Figure 6.6 for a well-known real or fictional group (such as the characters in the Harry Potter novels or the Wizard of Oz; the characters in the television program Big Bang Theory; Scooby Do, etc.). Make sure at least 2 groups work on the same topic so that their analyses can be compared. If more time is available, show a portion of the movie Twelve Angry Men and have the class complete SYMLOG ratings for all 12 jurors.
6-6. **Violating Social Norms.** Schneider (2002) suggests teaching students about the emotional impact of violating common social norms by asking them to violate a common norm in at least 2 different settings. He reviews, before the assignment, the nature of norms, and provides students with guidance in how they should react if participants in the study show annoyance. He then assigns each student a norm to violate from a list of various norms. [All norm-violation exercises should use this procedure. Students do not always show good judgment when selecting norms to violate.] He does not permit students to pick the norm they wish to violate, and uses multiple norms to vary students’ interest in the project. His list of norms to violate includes (2002, p. 37):

- clip your toenails while sitting with others in a cafeteria
- with hair tousled, ask to borrow a comb from a group of strangers
- ask people in a movie line if you could move ahead of them
- sit down with two to three strangers at a four-seat table in a cafeteria without talking

Schneider has students write an extensive analysis of the experience, in which they provide an analysis of the concept of norms, described their own norm violation experience, and examined their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors before, during, and after the experience. He also allows students to only imagine they have performed the norm-violation activity, but asks those students to explain why they could not carry out the assignment. [Source: Schneider, F. W. (2002). Applying social psychological concepts to a norm-violation experience. *Teaching of Psychology, 29*, 36-39. ]
7: Influence

An interpersonal undercurrent flows beneath the surface of most groups that pushes group members toward greater consensus, uniformity, homogeneity, or conformity. But other forces push members in divergent directions; they promote dissension, uniqueness, heterogeneity, and independence. This chapter examines both processes—conformity and nonconformity—and uses these concepts to explore how people act when they are members of juries.

Learning Objectives

7.1. Compare and contrast majority influence and minority influence.
7.2. Describe the experimental paradigm used by Asch (1955) in his studies of conformity, and summarize his results relating to (a) overall conformity rates; (b) conformity when the majority is unanimous; and (c) compliance versus private acceptance.
7.3. Use social impact theory to explain Asch's findings pertaining to the decreasing influence of increasingly large majorities.
7.4. Compare and contrast the following forms of social response: compliance, conversion, independence, anticonformity, and congruence.
7.5. Use the Social Identity Model of Deindividuation Effects (SIDE) to explain conformity on the Internet.
7.6. Summarize the empirical evidence pertaining to sex differences in conformity.
7.7. Describe the personality characteristics of a person who tends to conform (the conformist) and the person who tends to refuse to conform (the counterconformist).
7.8. Describe a group situation that would maximize conformity rates and compare it to one that would minimize conformity rates.
7.9. Describe the experimental paradigm used by Moscovici in his studies of minority influence and draw out the empirical implications for his conversion theory of minority influence.
7.10. Compare Hollander’s theory of idiosyncrasy credits to Moscovici’s conversion approach.
7.11. Use Latané’s theory of dynamic social impact to explain both majority and minority influence.
7.12. Differentiate between implicit, informational, normative, and interpersonal influence.
7.13. Use the concept of mindlessness to explain why people sometimes fail to help in emergencies.
7.14. Draw on the concept of normative influence to explain everyday social situations involving conformity to community and organizational standards, such as queues, “road-rules,” seat-taking on subways, and littering.
7.15. Draw on focus theory of norms, and its distinction between disjunctive and conjunctive norms, to develop an advertising campaign to increase recycling on campus.
7.16. Discuss individuals’ reactions to nonconformists, focusing specifically on (a) patterns of communication with the mode, slider, and deviant (Schachter, 1951) and (b) attraction to the mode, slider, and deviant.

7.17. Explain the causes of the bystander effect.

7.18. Compare and contrast verdict-driven juries and evidence-driven juries.

7.19. Describe the relationship between the verdict and the following variables: (a) the majority’s predeliberation verdict; (b) the verdict of the high status members; and (c) the size of the jury.

7.20. Debate the value of voir dire in the jury process.

Key Terms

anticonformity (or counterconformity)  Crutchfield situation  informational influence
Asch situation  diffusion of responsibility  interpersonal influence
black-sheep effect  dual process theories of influence  majority influence
bystander effect  dynamic social impact theory  mindlessness
compliance (acquiescence)  false consensus effect  minority influence
conformity  focus theory of normative conduct  normative influence
congruence (uniformity)  heuristic  social impact theory
conversion (private acceptance)  idiosyncrasy credit  social influence
conversion theory  independence (dissent)  story model
subjective group dynamics  voir dire

Activities

7-1. Everyday Influence. Social influence can be studied in a host of everyday situations, such as waiting in lines, signing petitions, or breaking norms of decorum. Send students out into the field to review such situations, but before they go review the importance of respecting people’s privacy and maintaining safety. Students should discuss each project with the class before they undertake it.

Instructions. Carry out one of these studies of conformity in everyday life.
1. Everyday conformity. Look for conformity in such places as the lines at a fast-food restaurant, bus stops as people wait for a bus, or the library (do people conform to the posted rules, or do they conform to informal norms). Or look at the students who pass by a particular point on campus, and make a note of their appearance and dress. Are they all individuals, or do they conform to an implicit dress-code?
2. Creating conformity. Carry out a field study of influence. For example: Ask passersby to sign a petition, and in some cases have a friend model compliance just before the subject passes; Arrange for groups of people ranging in size from 2 to 10 to stare up at the top of a building, and note how many passersby join in the staring; Wearing a groundskeeper clothes or regular clothes, and order people to get off the grass. (Before you carry out such studies—even informally—get approval from authorities. Do not carry out such studies alone or away from campus.)
3. Experiencing nonconformity. Violate norms of civility and observe people’s reactions. On a crowded bus, hum loudly. Or, if you have more courage, sing out loud. Ask the staff at the fast food restaurant “What looks good on the menu today?” Try to barter for a small purchase at a fast-food store. When someone says “Hi, how are you,” ask them “Do you mean physically, mentally, or financially?” Watch people’s reactions.

7-2. Replicating the Asch Paradigm. Students can gain a better understanding of the powerful social forces at work in the Asch situation, and gain insights into pluralistic ignorance, by estimating the group’s attitudes on issues and also divulging their own opinions on these issues in public and in private. One method involves administering an opinion poll to students before class. (If you use an educational portal, such as Blackboard, you can use the survey options to collect the data quickly.) The items on the poll should ask students to report their opinions, but also ask them to estimate the opinions of most people in the chosen reference group (this class, this university, college students in general). You can ask questions about students’ attitudes and actions, such as:

- How many hours do you spend outside of class doing work for this class per week?
- A person should never have unprotected sex with someone they have just met. (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree)
- How many alcoholic beverages do you consume during an average week
- Do you think that racial prejudice is a problem at this university?
- All things considered, this university is an excellent place to study, teach, and learn. (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree)
- Group dynamics is a wonderful field. (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree)
- If you had been a survivor of the group stranded in the mountains, would you have eaten the dead?

You can also ask them to gauge the degree of consensus on these issues with such questions as:

- How many hours do you think the typical student spends outside of class doing work for this class per week?
- What percentage of students do you think have had unprotected sex with someone they just met.
- How many minutes or hours do you think most students at this college spend studying for every hour they spend in class?
- What percentage of students at this university do you think agree (either strongly agree or agree) with this item: “All things considered, this university is an excellent place to study, teach, and learn.”
- What percentage of students do you think consume more than 5 alcoholic beverages during a single evening once a week or more?

In addition to this survey, also ask students questions one at a time in class, going around the room asking for each student to state his or her opinion aloud. Even when questions are innocuous ones, such as “who is your favorite musical group?” or “would you consider yourself to be an excellent driver?” students often report feeling anxious about revealing their personal opinions in public.
7-3. **Demonstrating conformity.** Snyder (2003) describes a number of simple, but compelling, ways to demonstrate obedience and conformity in the classroom. For example:

- **Clothing:** Snyder asks 10 students, drawn at random, to stand at the front of the class. He then engages the class in a discussion of clothing, and asks if the students are conformists.

- **Color of clothing.** Using an overhead with a 2 (man or woman) X 3 (color of shirt: pink, blue, or neither) Snyder codes the color of each shirt of each student in the class. He generally finds that women wear pink, and men wear blue (overwhelmingly).

- **Peer influence.** Snyder uses a series of exercises in which students are asked to role play (a) a man at a bar trying to pressure a woman to return home with him for sex and (b) 3 women trying to pressure a man into using illegal drugs (cocaine).


7-4: **Are you a conformist?** Ask students to assess their tendency to conform in groups in general, or arrange for them to complete a measure of individuation, introversion-extraversion, or personality traits linked to group behavior.

**Instructions.** If you meet regularly in a group, take a moment and reflect on its influence on you. Do you change your behavior when you are in this group? Has the group influenced you, in some way, even when you are no longer in the group?

1. Describe the group briefly: its composition, structure, dynamics, and tasks. How long have you belonged to the group, and what is your role in the group?

2. Is the group an influential one for you, personally? To answer this question, briefly describe your basic personality in terms of these five qualities: introversion/extraversion (outgoing vs. reserved), agreeable (friendly vs. aloof), conscientious (responsible vs. uninvolved), stability (assured vs. nervous), and openness (open to ideas vs. conservative). Do your actions in the group reflect your personal qualities, or do you act in ways that are inconsistent with your personality in this group?

3. People differ in their tendency to conform in groups. Do you have any conformity-increasing qualities? Are you shy? Do you prefer to change your behavior to match the demands of situations in which you find yourself? Do you avoid attracting too much attention to yourself when you are in social settings? Are you generally uncertain about the validity of your opinions and conclusions? Are you more introverted than extraverted?

7-5. **Conformity and Influence.** Create conformity pressures in the classroom. For example, on the day before you turn to the topic of social influence privately ask several students who sit in different areas of your class to applaud for 10 seconds at the end the lecture. When you finish, cue them to clap by saying, “And so ends our discussion of group
cohesion” (or whatever your topic). The rest of the class will likely join in spontaneously, and you can discuss their behavior the next class session.

**7-6. Deviance in Groups.** Demonstrate how individuals react when confronted by a deviant. Before class, contact several students to act as secret deviants. Tell them to remain quiet during the initial group discussion, but when the group reaches consensus they should steadfastly disagree with the group. They should refuse to give in, until the group either changes to agree with them, or moves on to the next question. During class, create groups so that each one includes a deviant. Monitor this exercise closely and to leave time to debrief the class. The reactions to this exercise can be very strong. The following issues are ones that I have used with success in this exercise.

**Instructions.** Discuss, as a group, the questions raised by each stories. Reach complete agreement in your group on each question.

1. An extremely effective international negotiator who is about to be assassinated by a single gunman ducks behind an elderly female bystander, who is killed by the desperate gunman. Did the negotiator act morally?
2. The wealthy parents of a retarded child let him die by denying him treatment for a kidney disease. Did they act morally?
3. A man escaped from prison, changed his identity, and worked as a clerk in a hardware store. Over the years he saved up enough to buy the store. He was fair to customers, gave his employees top wages, and gave most of his profits to charity. One day you discover his identity: should you turn him in?
4. The owner of furniture store deliberately totals up bills incorrectly to overcharge his customers. Is this overcharging morally wrong?
5. A friend of yours who borrows small amounts of money from people while never paying it back asks you for 10 dollars. Although you have the money, would it be immoral to lie and say you do not?

**Assignment.** Think about your reaction in the group, as well as the reactions of the other group members. Compare your group to those studied by Schachter in his 1952 of reactions to people who disagree.

1. Did the group apply very much pressure to get the dissenter to change his or her opinion? What kind of pressure was used?
2. What did you personally think about the dissenter? What kind of impression did you form about him or her? Did your opinion of him or her change as the discussion progressed?
3. Schachter found that three things happened in the groups he studied: the deviant was disliked, the deviant was uninfluential (low in status), and the group sometimes stopped communicating with the deviant. Describe how your group responded in terms of liking, status, and communication.
4. Schachter also found that two variables—the cohesiveness of the group and the relevance of the topic to the group—were important determinants of the group’s reaction to the deviant. Where did your group fall in terms of these two variables, and what impact do you think your group’s level of cohesiveness and the relevance of the task had on your reaction to the dissenter.

5. This classroom exercise was somewhat deceptive. I did not inform you, in advance, about what was happening. Please let me know what you think of the educational value of this project.
8: Power

People routinely influence other people, but in some cases this influence can be extraordinarily strong. Rather than subtly influencing members’ opinions and choices, powerful people and groups can change members in dramatic ways. This chapter uses the concept of power to explore obedience to authority, bases and sources of power, and the metamorphic effects of power.

Learning Objectives

8.1. Use the concept of power to explain the events surrounding the tragedy at Jonestown and the People’s Temple.
8.2. Describe the methods used by Milgram in his studies of obedience, and state the percentage of people who obeyed in his initial study.
8.3. Summarize the results obtained by Milgram when he decreased the distance between the teacher and the learner, placed subjects in three-person groups, and varied the authority’s social power.
8.4. Review the results of attempts to replicate Milgram’s study, including Berger’s 2009 partial replication.
8.5. List, define, and give examples of the 6 bases of power identified by French and Raven.
8.6. List and give an example of at least 5 influence strategies or tactics (other than the power bases, such as reward and referent power), and classify each one in terms of soft/hard, rational/nonrational, and laterality.
8.7. Use the concept of a compliance tactic to explain obedience to authority and brainwashing.
8.8. Explain why some individuals rise to positions of authority and others do not.
8.9. Describe at least 2 personality factors that predict who will seek and use power to influence others.
8.10. Use the concept of status generalization to make predictions of status allocations in a group.
8.11. Review evidence that indicates stable patterns of authority in groups are adaptive.
8.12. Summarize the approach-inhibition model of power.
8.13. Critically examine the maxim “Power corrupts” from a group dynamics perspective.
8.14. Describe three common ways that individuals act when resisting an authority’s influence.
8.15. Summarize Kelman’s theory of conversion.
8.16. Summarize the methods used and results obtained in Zimbardo’s prison study.
8.17. Identify the strengths and weaknesses of Milgram’s theory of agentic states.
8.18. Use the fundamental attribution error to explain people’s everyday explanations of cult conversion.
Key Terms

agentic state  
approach/inhibition theory  
Bathsheba syndrome  
bullying  
charisma  
coercive power  
compliance tactics  
diffuse status characteristic  
expectation-states theory  
expert power  
foot-in-the-door technique  

fundamental attribution  
error (FAE)  
informational power  
interpersonal  
complementarity hypothesis  
iron law of oligarchy  
legitimate power  
Lucifer effect  
pecking order  
power bases  
power tactics  

referent power  
revolutionary coalition  
reward power  
social dominance orientation  
(SDO)  
social power  
solo status  
specific status characteristics  
status generalization

Activities

8-1. Everyday understanding of power. Help students achieve a more objective perspective on obedience to authority by having them ask people who are not members of the class questions about Milgram’s experiment.

Instructions. People often overlook social determinants of actions but they overestimate the causal role played by internal, personal factors. When we read about Milgram’s subjects or the members of radical religious groups, we assume that they were weak, gullible people who were easily influenced. Yet, these individuals’ actions were largely a consequence of the powerful situations in which they found themselves.

1. Talk to people about the Milgram experiment. Ask them if they are familiar with the research, and if necessary clarify the procedure and findings for them. Ask them:
   - Why do you think so many people obeyed the experimenter?
   - If you had been a subject in the study, would you have obeyed the experimenter?
2. Talk to people about radical religious groups, generally called cults. Ask them:
   - Why do people join such groups?
   - Do the leaders of cults wield special psychological powers over the members?
   - If, by some chance, you found yourself in a meeting of a cult-like group, what would you do?
3. Do people’s comments about the Milgram experiment and cults reveal the fundamental attribution error? Do they blame the individuals for their actions and underestimate the power of the group?

8-2. Obedience to Authority: Assign a short 1 page paper on some topic. On the due date tell students “Please take your papers out, but do not pass them up.” Once everyone has them in hand, tell them “In order to facilitate discussion today, I’d like you to rip up your papers now.” At this point, several confederates should tear up what appear to be their
papers. As the rest of the class begins to comply with the order, intervene and ask them to stop. Lutsky (1986) found that 64% of his students ripped, or were about to rip, their papers.

After passing around a tape dispenser for the students to repair any torn pages, draw out some important points throughout the discussion. The presence of confederates in the class encourages obedience, and the “mindless” justification encourages conformity. Lutsky also found it instructive to discuss how other people, outside of class, would react if they were told about the paper-tearing incident. Students may find this activity upsetting; therefore you may wish to use a milder version that involves having students complete a short attitude survey or questionnaire that you pass out in class. Then ask them to tear up their responses. Because the questionnaire has less value to them, they are less likely to become hostile. [Source: Lutsky, N. (1986, September). Inducing academic suicide: A classroom demonstration of social influence. Paper presented at the Annual Meetings of the American Psychological Association.]

8-3: Obedience to Authority II. Hunter (1981) demonstrates obedience with the help of a colleague who is not known to the students (such as a fellow instructor). Instead of going to class yourself, send in your colleague, who acts as an authority(X). X enters the room as class is about to start and, with a professional air, writes the name Dr. G. Zilstein on the board. X should then begin ordering the students about, telling students to move up and fill empty seats near the front. If students do not move, then X should take a more commanding tone and say such things as “I cannot continue unless I get cooperation.” If time, X can make additional requests, which escalate from the surprising to the ridiculous. X can order students to clear their desks and place their hands flat on their desktops, with thumbs touching, turn off cell phones, or assign particular roles to students. For example, X can ask one to be the timer, who must say “5 minutes” out loud—and ask him or her to practice that.

After 3-5 minutes, enter the room, explain you were held up at a meeting, and then ask what is going on. You can, for example, pretend that you do not know who X is, and ask X who s/he is. X can then claim a false confusion about a room number and a guest lecture in the wrong place (e.g., “I’m Zilstein, isn’t this Room 129 in Business? No? Sorry.”), and then leave. Then, turning to your students, ask them what happened. Review their behavior in a careful debriefing session—and be sure to thank your authority figure. [Source: Hunter, W. J. (1981). Obedience to authority. In L. T. Benjamin, Jr., & K. D. Lowman (Eds.), Activities handbook for the teaching of psychology (pp. 149-150). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.]

8-4: Obedience to Authority III. Snyder (2003), recognizing that many students feel that they would never obey an authority, has developed a number of compelling exercises that help students recognize their own tendency to obey. For example:

• Obedience to an arbitrary command. Snyder places on his syllabus, on the day when he will show the Milgram film the statement “Bring an Empty Soda Can to Class!” After the
film he asks all students who brought a can to place it in their left hand. He then asks all students who feel that they would refuse to obey to raise their right hand. He then asks the students to also raise their left hands, and asks them “Why are you holding an empty soda can?”

- Late bloomers. After discussing the Pygmalion effect (the tendency for students who are labeled late-bloomers to gain in terms of academic performance) Snyder then says he will conduct the rest of the class to illustrate this effect. He explains that he has noticed that better students sit on the right side of the room, and so he moves the podium that part of the room, and proceeds to ignore students on the left side of the room. Even though these actions are recognized as only a simulation, students nonetheless feel the powerful effects of this labeling.

- Blue eyes/brown eyes. Snyder ends the class in which he reviews the blue-eyes/brown-eyes simulation conducted with school children by asking the blue-eyed students to stand. He then tells them to leave. He then packs up his own materials and prepares to exit, leaving the brown-eyed students in the room. When they ask what is going on, Snyder replies “obedience.”


**8-5: Who has the power in the group?** Examine the use of power tactics in everyday situations by asking students to identify their power bases and the power tactics that they most frequently use.

**Instructions:** Examine the power structures of a group to which you belong. This group can be one that meets regularly in a work or social setting, a class, or a subgroup of the students within a class.

1. Describe the group briefly: its composition, structure, dynamics, and tasks. Who is influential in the group, and who is not?
2. Is power based on experience, age, position, and so on? Is power fairly distributed? Are some people who should be influential slighted by the group?
3. Trace the power in the group back to French and Raven’s bases of power: coercive, reward, referent, legitimate, expert, and informational.
4. How do you typically influence other people in this group? Do you prefer to use rational methods? Irrational ones? Do you rely on some methods more than others? Review the list in Table 8.2 (pp. 255-256) and identify your favorites and least favorites.
9: Leadership

What is leadership? Is it power over other people? Is it a special talent that the lucky possess and that the unlucky can never hope to gain? Why do some become leaders and others followers? This chapter examines these questions by defining leadership, by examining the process of leadership emergence, and by reviewing theories of leadership effectiveness.

Learning Objectives

9.1. Describe basic misconceptions about leadership, such as the association between leadership and power, the innate nature of leadership, and group members’ aversion to being led.

9.2. List the conditions that encourage the emergence of the role of a leader in a group.

9.3. Define leadership.

9.4. Summarize the two sets of core leadership behaviors described in the task-relationship model and apply this distinction to studies of sex differences in leadership.

9.5. Use leadership substitutes theory to make predictions about the need for a leader in a group.

9.6. Compare and contrast trait, situational, and interactional approaches to leadership emergence.

9.7. Summarize the relationship between individuals’ characteristics—including personal qualities (e.g., personality, experience) and demographic background (age, weight)—and leadership emergence.

9.8. Examine the evidence that supports the conclusion that leaders tend to be different from nonleaders in terms of personality and intelligence.

9.9. Explain which counts more when a leader is chosen: quality or quantity of participation.

9.10. Summarize research examining the relationship between age, height, weight, race, sex, experience, and sex and leadership emergence.

9.11. Discuss cultural differences in perceptions of leadership, drawing on the GLOBE research project.

9.12. Compare and contrast these theories of leadership emergence process: implicit leadership theory, social identity theory, social role theory, terror management theory, and evolutionary theory.

9.13. Graphically summarize the basic assumptions of the contingency theory of leadership (Fiedler, 1978) and discuss how the theory can be applied to train leaders.

9.14. Compare contingency theory to (a) Blake and Mouton’s Leadership Grid theory and (b) Hersey and Blanchard’s situational model.
9.15. Explain how leader-member exchange theory (LMX) differs from more traditional theories of leadership, such as the Leadership Grid theory.

9.16. Compare and contrast leadership methods that are most effective in online versus offline groups.

9.17. Summarize the methods used and results obtained by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1937) in their study of directive, participatory, and laissez-faire leaders.

9.18. Describe the four types of followers identified by Kelley in his theory of followership.

9.19. Critique the concept of transformational leadership.

9.20. List and briefly describe the components of transactional and transformational leadership identified by Bass.

9.21. Examine sex differences in leadership, including leadership tendencies of men and women, biases in acceptance of men and women leaders, and differences in effectiveness.

**Key Terms**

- babble effect
- contingency theory
- e-leadership
- emotional intelligence
- followership
- great leader theory
- implicit leadership theories (ILTs)
- implicit leadership theory
- leader-member exchange theory (LMX)
- situational leadership theory
- social role theory
- task-relationship model
- terror management theory
- leadership emergence
- leadership substitutes theory
- Least Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC)
- transformational leadership
- transactional leadership
- Zeitgeist theory
- romantic of leadership

**Activities**

**9-1. Leadership Interviews.** People's intuitive conceptions of leadership are intriguing, and a key part of the leadership process. Students can gain insights into these conceptions (and, often, misconceptions) by conducting informal interviews with other students focused on leadership processes.

**Instructions.** People have strong opinions and assumptions about leadership, which are not always consistent with theory and research. Explore these intuitive leadership theories by locating 2 respondents (one man, one woman) and ask them for a few minutes of their time. Roommates, friends, attachment figures are perfectly appropriate interviewees. Ask them the following questions, and any others you think are important to add. Record their answers in writing.

1. What is leadership?
2. Can you name 2 or 3 people who you feel were or are great leaders?
3. Is leadership an inborn talent, or a learned skill?
4. Are leaders powerful people who can impose their will on others?
5. Do people like to work in groups that have leaders or groups that are leaderless?
6. Who makes a better leader: A woman or a man?
7. Have you ever been in a group where the leader failed to carry out his or her duties properly?
8. Have you ever been in a group led by a skilled leader?

9-2. Implicit Leadership Theories. Measure students’ implicit leadership theories using an adjective checklist. You can draw the items from a variety of sources, such as SYMLOG, the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, a five factor personality survey, the androgyny scale, or the items listed below (based on Epitropaki and Martin, 2004). The codes after the items indicate where they cluster: social sensitivity (S), intelligence (I), dedication (D), dynamism (Dy), Tyranny (T) and Male (M).

Instructions. You are about to meet a leader for the first time. Think about what that person will be like, and use the items listed below to describe the leader, where

3 = definitely will display this quality
2 = will display the quality
1 = may display this quality
0 = will not display this quality

Bold (Dy)
Charismatic (Dy)
Clever (I)
Compassionate (S)
Conceited (T)
Dedicated (D)
Dominant (T)
Domineering (T)
Dynamic (Dy)
Educated (I)
Energetic (Dy)
Forgiving (S)
Hard-working (D)
Helpful (S)
Intellectual (I)
Intelligent (I)
Knowledgeable (I)
Loud (T)
Male (M)
Manipulative (T)
Masculine (M)
Motivated (D)
Pushy (T)
Selfish (T)
Sensitive (S)
9-3. Leadership Prototypes. Students often think very narrowly about leaders, focusing primarily on leaders in political and business contexts. Stimulate a wider conception of leadership by breaking them up into small groups and asking them to evaluate a number of people who have leadership qualities, but who they may not consider to be leaders.

Instructions. The idea of a leader, like many social concepts, is a fuzzy set than a clear-cut category. Some individuals fall clearly into the category of leader, but others seem to possess some, but not all, of the defining features of a leader.

Recognizing the fuzzy nature of the concept, which people listed below are/were leaders, and which ones were/are not? Rate each one as 5 (Definitely a Leader), 4 (a leader), 3 (fuzzy, somewhat leaderlike), 2 (Probably not a leader), 1 (Not a leader), or ? if you aren’t certain.

- Barack Obama, president of the United States
- Britney, a pop star
- Colonel Travis, an officer in the U.S. Air Force
- Dave Matthews, lead singer of the Dave Matthews Band
- Donald Trump, chief executive officer of a large, multinational corporation
- Dr. Doctor, the lead scientist on a medical research team.
- Edgar Monie, IV, president of Sigma Dau fraternity
- Herbert Milton, the pastor of the First Church of Bayside City
- Hitler, German Fuehrer
- Judy, who is the “ringleader” of a clique of 5 12-year-old girls in a middle school
- Mrs. Goodwell, mother of the Ana, David, and Francis (ages 8, 10, and 13)
- Ms. Tucker, principle of Gladwell High School
- Osama bin Laden, thought to be the head of Al Qaeda
- Professor Smith, a Group Dynamics Professor
- Rosa Parks, civil rights activist
- Sharifa Al Ragam, store manager of Big Tots, who supervises 20 front line managers
- Sui Lee, who is active in organizing the Asian community of Richmond
- Susan Roberts, who is a fifth grade teacher of 28 boys and girls
- Thien Khuu, who is elected foreperson of a jury in a murder trial

9-4. What Is Your Leadership Style? Most students have well-formed beliefs about leaders and leadership, including their own approach to leadership. One simple way to assess these beliefs is with Fiedler’s LPC scale, although many other methods (with more face validity) can be used to good effect.
Instructions. Most leadership theories argue that people consistently use a particular set of methods and techniques whenever they find themselves in charge of a group. Different theorists describe these leadership styles differently, but most highlight two key aspects: focus on the task and focus on the relationships among the members.

1. Complete Fred Fiedler’s (1978) Least Preferred Coworker Scale to assess your own leadership style. Think of a person with whom you can work least well. He or she may be someone you work with now or someone you knew in the past. This coworker does not have to be the person you like least but should be the person with whom you had the most difficulty in getting a job done. Describe this person by circling one of the numbers between each pair of adjectives:

2. Add up the 18 numbers you circled to get a total between 18 and 144. According to Fiedler, if you scored 56 or less you have a task oriented style of leadership. A score of 63 or higher indicates a relationship oriented style of leadership. If you scored between 56 and 63 you cannot be classified into either category.

3. Given your responses to the questionnaire, are you relationship- or task-oriented? Do the results of the LPC match your own intuitions about what type of leader you are?

4. According to Fiedler, what type of group would be the “best” type of group for you to lead? Which would be the “worst”?

5. Think about the last time you acted as a leader in a group. Describe the nature of the interaction as the group worked on the task. What was the valence of the three
situational factors specified by Fiedler? Does his theory explain your relationship to the
group?
6. How might you consider changing your leadership style or the situation to be more
effective?

9-5. Women as Leaders. Hebl (1995) describes a classroom exercise to illustrate biases in
leadership choices. Break up students into mixed-sex groups, with equal numbers of men
and women if possible. Tell some groups that they will be completing a task that requires
skill in competition, and others that the task requires cooperation. Have the groups then
select a leader. Hebl found that groups tend to select men for their leaders, but only when

9-6. Situational Leadership. To illustrate the assumptions of Hersey and Blanchard’s
leadership theory, break the class into dyads or triads, and then distribute problems listed
below. Once all groups have completed the handout, reconvene the class and review their
responses.

**Instructions.** Read each situation, and rank order the four options, giving 1 the best, 2 the
next, and so on.

1. You have been transferred to a new position: supervisor for a group of software
designers and specialists. The “techies” are good at their jobs, but they don’t work together
effectively. You try to build a sense of teamwork by acting in an open, supportive way, but
the techies are still squabbling and productivity is low. You should:

   A. make clear the standards for performance and check regularly to keep the group
      focused on its goals.
   B. remain positive and encouraging.
   C. call a team meeting to discuss goals and structure.
   D. let the group find its own solution.

2. Your office staff was unproductive when you took charge, but after months of clarifying
goals and giving feedback, performance has improved. At this point you should:

   A. continue without changes: don’t fix what ain’t broke.
   B. reduce your micro-managing activities gradually.
   C. change your style to stress increased harmony and satisfaction in the group.
   D. keep an eye on duties and goals, but also put more time into improving
      interpersonal relations in the group.

3. Your office staff just won the “Teamwork Trophy” for its effectiveness. Absenteeism is
rare, turnover is rarer still, and feelings of unity are widely shared. Organizational changes,
however, mean that your unit must change its goals and work procedures. You should:

   A. hold a series of planning sessions to guide the group as it meets this challenge.
   B. make certain the plan you develop is clear before you announce it to the group.
   C. give the staff the opportunity to develop a plan.
D. ask for suggestions from the group before developing a plan for implementing change.

4. You have been promoted and transferred, and given responsibility for purchasing. Even though the last manager in this position didn’t deal directly with the staff, the staff was productive and efficient. You should:

   A. make clear your standards for performance and check regularly to keep the group focused on its goals.
   B. adopt a friendly, approachable managerial style.
   C. form an advisory committee that will give you advice on how to best manage the unit.
   D. leave the group alone.

Solutions. The alternatives vary in their emphasis on task and relationship leadership. After the class identifies each alternative correctly (as high task, high relationship, and so on), present the “correct” ranking (in parentheses) recommended by the theory. In all cases, these recommendations are based on the model presented in the text.

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<td>d. low task/high relationship (1)</td>
<td>d. low task/low relationship (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9-7. Key Group Leadership. Mathis and Tanner (1999) describe the Key Groups activity as a means of helping students overcome worries about leading their group. They first make certain that students have an understanding of the leadership role, including basic skills and competencies. They then assign, at random, students to groups that meet enough times so that all the members have the opportunity to be the group leader at least once. They also use a specific task in the group session: The groups develop the answer key to be used in grading a 7 to 10 item test that was recently completed by the students individually. After the group completes the key task, members then spend time providing feedback to the leader, and the leaders provide group members with feedback as well. Students also develop a short self-evaluation on the basis of their contribution to the group. Mathis and Tanner report that the exercise is very effective in helping students hone their leadership skills and increase their leadership confidence. [Source: Mathis, R. D., & Tanner, Z. (1999). An exercise to introduce students to group leadership. *Teaching of Psychology, 26*, 288-290.]
10: Performance

People often answer the question “How can we get the job done?” with “Let’s form a group.” This chapter examines the productivity of task-focused groups by reviewing studies of group tasks, social facilitation, social loafing (the Ringelmann effect), social combination (Steiner’s task theory), and social creativity (brainstorming).

Learning Objectives

10.1. Use the McGrath task circumplex model to classify the group tasks.
10.2. Identify the factors that should be considered when deciding if a task should be completed by a group rather than a single individual.
10.3. Review the assumptions of Steiner’s theory of group performance.
10.5. Describe at least three different experimental studies that have been used to test Zajonc’s distinction between dominant and nondominant responses.
10.6. Identify and describe the drive, physiological, neurological, motivational, attentional, cognitive, and personality processes that combine to determine when social facilitation will and will not occur.
10.7. Compare and contrast Zajonc’s drive theory, Cottrell’s evaluation apprehension model, distraction conflict theory, and social orientation theory.
10.8. Use theories of social facilitation to make predictions about these social situations: eating a meal as a group; expressing prejudicial attitudes in a group; electronic performance monitoring situations; and study groups.
10.9. Summarize Kolb’s analysis of learning styles and apply this theory to learning in groups.
10.10. Describe the early work of Ringelmann (1913), describe the effect that bears his name, and identify the two key factors to contribute to that effect.
10.11. Summarize the methods used by Latané, Williams, and Harkins (1979) to identify the relative impact of social loafing and coordination problems on the Ringelmann effect.
10.12. Develop a list of recommendations that, if followed, would minimize social loafing in groups.
10.13. Describe the Karau-Williams (1993) collective effort model (CEM) and use it to explain social loafing and social compensation.
10.15. Predict the group’s performance by taking into account the type of task the group is attempting.
10.16. Identify the limits of the “wisdom of the crowd” effect.
10.17. Describe the factors that can undermine the performance of groups that are working on a disjunctive task.
10.18. Critically evaluate the concept of synergy (or assembly bonus effects).
10.19. List the rules of brainstorming.

10.20. Evaluate the effectiveness of brainstorming, and offer recommendations for enhancing creativity in groups.

**Key Terms**

| additive task | electronic brainstorming (EBS) | process loss |
| brainwriting | electronic performance monitoring (EPM) | production blocking |
| coaction | evaluation apprehension theory | Ringelmann effect |
| collective effort model (CEM) | free riding | self-presentation theory |
| compensatory task | illusion of group productivity | social compensation |
| conjunctive task | intellective task | social facilitation |
| crew resource management (CRM) | judgmental task | social loafing |
| Delphi technique | maximizing task | social matching effect |
| discretionary task | nominal group | social orientation theory |
| disjunctive task | nominal group technique (NGT) | study group |
| distraction-conflict theory | optimizing task | sucker effect |
| divisible task | | synergy |
| drive theory | | task demands |
| | | unitary task |

**Activities**

**10-1. Working in Groups.** This chapter provides many opportunities to have the students work in small groups at a variety of tasks. Activity 10-2 describes a set of complex problems that are based on Steiner’s task theory, and Activity 10-5 examines disjunctive tasks, but if time is limited use some simpler problems. The horse-trading problem is surprisingly difficult for groups to solve—and during the tortured discussion many principles of group performance emerge. You can also fill a jar with marbles or pennies, and ask the entire class to estimate the number. When the individual estimates are charted, the group average will likely be close to the true number, confirming the “wisdom of groups” (Surowiecki, 2004). The work of Kerr and his colleagues (2007) on the Kohler Effect can also be easily demonstrated in class by asking for students to hold a 5 pound weight out from their bodies for as long as they can. When they are paired with another person, performances will improve.

**10-2. Steiner’s Tasks.** Because Steiner’s typology of tasks is often conceptually challenging for students, give them actual experience performing these kinds of tasks in groups. Have 4 or 5 person groups, complete the following kinds of task. Also, track time on each task. Then give them an assignment that asks them to classify each task according to Steiner’s model.

**Instructions.** Several different problems are to be completed by your group. Please read the directions to each problem carefully before starting, and ask questions if you are uncertain as to how to proceed. Complete Items 1 and 2 before you join a group.
1. Without consulting with any one, write down your estimate of the distance, in miles, between Paris, France, and Mexico City, Mexico.

2. Without consulting with any one, write down your estimate of the exact population of the earth.

3. Once your group is seated together, make a note of the exact time. Then each member should introduce himself or herself—even if you know each other well. Members should state their full name, their birthplace, and their most cherished possession. Please again note the exact time you finish this introduction.

4. What is the next letter in the following sequence? O T T F F S S

5. How many cigars can a hobo make from 25 cigar butts if he needs five butts to make one cigar?

6. On one side of a river are three wives and three husbands. All of the men but none of the women can row. Get them all across the river by means of a boat carrying no more than three at one time. No man will allow his wife to be in the presence of another man unless he is also there.

7. Compute a group decision for question #1 by averaging together everyone’s judgments. List each person’s individual decision, and then calculate the average.

8. Compute a group decision for question #2 by averaging together everyone’s judgments. List each person’s individual decision, and then calculate the average.

9. On a separate sheet of paper, have one member of the group record as many uses as your group can think of for old tires. Please indicate, in minutes, the time you started and ended this task.

10. Rank order the following animals in terms of how many hours, out of 24, the average animal sleeps. Give the longest sleeper a (1) and the shortest sleeper an (8).

   __ Bat
   __ Elephant
   __ Dolphin
   __ Human
   __ Sheep
   __ Cat
   __ Chimp
   __ Mole

Solutions. It is easiest to collect the answers from the groups in a final session, and post them on a grid on the board for comparison. Intergroup rivalry will likely build in this process.

1. Distance between Paris, France, and Mexico City, Mexico: 5,721 miles (9208 km)


3. Time taken for the group to complete this task.

4. Eight (b), because the sequence is the first letter of the first 8 digits, One, Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, Seven, and Eight.

5. Six (c), since the hobo can use the butts from the first 5 he makes.

6. The river problem, from Shaw (1932, p. 492), requires 4 crossings. One man first takes his wife across and returns. Then he takes one couple over, and brings his wife back
with him. He leaves his wife, and takes the other couple over. He then returns for his wife, and ferries her across.

7. Compare group average to individual members’ estimates.
8. Compare group average to individual members’ estimates.
9. Solution is the number of uses or number of creative uses.
10. From longest to shortest: Bat, Cat, Chimp, Mole, Human, Sheep, Dolphin, Elephant. Compute a deviation score by comparing the group’s rank to this ranking.

**Assignment.** Use Steiner’s taxonomy of tasks to identify each task your group completed, and explain how your group performed the task.
1. Which task was additive? How well did your group perform on this task? Were any of the variables that increased social loafing, such as free-riding, social matching, and blocking operating in your group?
2. Which task was compensatory? Was your group’s score more accurate than your personal score? Would you recommend using groups to solve compensatory problems?
3. Which tasks were disjunctive? Describe, very briefly, the processes used by your group to solve the disjunctive tasks.
4. Which task was conjunctive? How rapidly did your group perform this task? Did your group finish before or after other groups?
5. Which task was discretionary? How did your group complete this task? Was this method successful? Were there any drawbacks to the method chosen by your group?

**10-3. Brainstorming.** Paulus and Putman (1996) offer a number of suggestions for carrying out a brainstorming session. They recommend various methods, including traditional group brainstorming and an adaptation they call “brainwriting.”

**Instructions: Traditional Brainstorming**
1. Form 5-person groups and review the instructions for brainstorming found in the text. Remember that criticism is not appropriate, and that quantity of ideas is crucial. Radical ideas are welcome, and group members should try to extending other people’s suggestions.
2. Select one member of your group to act as the recorder of ideas. Recorders must not add any of their own ideas to the lists groups generate; they only write down others’ ideas, and they should write down everything verbatim.
3. Work for 15 minutes on the Tourist Problem: “Each year a great many Americans go to Europe to visit. Now suppose that Americans want to entice Europeans to come to America. What steps would you suggest to get more Europeans to visit America?”
4. When the time allotted has expired, review the list and eliminate any redundant items.
5. Critique your group’s work. Do you think the procedures enhanced creativity?

**Instructions: Brainwriting**
1. Form 4-person groups and review the rules for brainstorming, as noted in #1 above.
2. Instead of stating ideas aloud, one member of the group will begin by writing an idea on a sheet of paper. He or she then passes the paper on to the next member, who adds an idea. If a group member is slow in generating a new idea, the next group member can start a new sheet, which he or she can pass on to the next member.
3. Carry out steps #3 and #4 as in the traditional brainstorming groups.
4. Critique your group’s work. Do you think the procedures enhanced creativity?

10-4. Assembly Effects. Make up a quiz using very difficult items from the test bank, and give it to students. Collect the quizzes, and then have the students work in teams on the same quiz. Compare the group’s performance to the individuals’ performance.

10-5. Disjunctive Problems. Either in conjunction with Activity 10-1, or as a separate activity, ask groups to answer a series of difficult, disjunctive, questions (such as those below). The even-numbered items are eureka problems, the odd-numbered items are noneureka problems.

1. It is claimed that when a marketing consultant says the market will rise (a favorable report), it always rises. You wish to check the consultant’s prediction. What is the minimum evidence you need to check the claim?
   A. a favorable report
   B. a rise in the market
   C. an unfavorable report
   D. a fall in the market

2. Washington is to 1 as Lincoln is to
   A. 5 B. 10 C. 15 D. 18 E. 20

3. A bottle of wine costs $20. The wine is worth $19 more than the bottle. How much is the bottle worth?
   A. $.25 B. $.50 C. $.75 D. $1.00 E. $2.00

4. Susan and Martha are discussing their children when Susan asks Martha for the ages of her three sons. Martha says “The sum of their ages is 13 and the product of their ages is the same as your age, to which Susan replies “I still don’t know their ages.” What is Susan’s age?
   A. 24 B. 27 C. 63 D. 36 E. 48

5. Three missionaries and three cannibals are on one side of a river. They want to cross to the other side by means of a boat that can only hold two persons at a time. All the missionaries can row, but only one cannibal can row. For obvious reasons, the missionaries must never be outnumbered by the cannibals, under any circumstances or at any time, except where no missionaries are present at all. How many crossings will be necessary to transport the six people across the river?
   A. 3 B. 6 C. 10 D. 13 E. 22

6. Isaac is staying at a motel when he runs short of cash. Checking his finances, he finds that in 23 days he will have plenty of money, but until then he will be broke. Mo, the motel owner, refuses to let Isaac stay without paying his bill each day. Isaac owns a gold chain with 23 link so Mo allows Isaac to pay for each of the 23 days with one gold link. When Isaac receives his money Mo will return the chain. Isaac wants to keep the chain as intact as possible, so he doesn’t want to cut any more of the links than absolutely necessary.
But Mo insists on payment each day, and he will accept no advance payment. How many links must Isaac cut and still pay the owner one link for each successive day?
A. 2 B. 8 C. 11 D. 15 E. 22

Solutions

1. D. Only a disconfirmation is needed since the question states a claim has already been made.
2. A. Washington, the 16th president, is on the $5 bill.
3. B. The bottle is $19 more than the wine. Therefore, the bottle must cost .50, and the wine
   $19 more than that, or $19.50, for a total of $20.
4. D. This answer must be calculated. Only 14 combinations yield a total of 13 (e.g., 1, 1, 11;
   1, 2, 10; 1, 3, 9; etc.), and only two of these have the identical product: 1, 6, 6 and 2, 2, 9.
   If we assume Susan knows her own age, she would still be confused only if she were 36.
5. D. The entire process requires the following 13 crossings of the missionaries (M1, M2, and M3), the two nonrowing cannibals (Cl and C2), and the cannibal who can row (RC).

1. M1 and Cl cross
2. M1 returns
3. RC and C2 cross
4. RC returns
5. M1 and M2 cross
6. M1 and Cl return
7. RC and M1 cross
8. M1 and C2 return
9. M1 and M3 cross
10. RC returns
11. RC and Cl cross
12. RC returns
13. RC and C2 cross

6. A. Many groups answer 11, since that would involve cutting only every other link. The correct answer, however, is 2. If the 4th and 11th links are cut, all the values from 1 to 23 can be obtained by getting “change” back from the motel owner. Separate links (the 4th and the 11th) are given on Days 1 and 2, but on Day 3 the 3rd link unit is given to the owner, who returns the separate links. These links are then used to pay on Days 4 and 5, but on Day 6 the 6-link unit is used, and the owner returns the others as change. This process can be continued for 23 days.

10-6. Observing Groups at Work. Since much of the world’s work is done by people in groups, students can easily find and watch groups as they go about their business. Remind students that they should focus on groups in public places. Construction crews—particularly road crews—are excellent targets for such observations, as is the staff of a restaurant when the kitchen interactions are observable.
Instructions. Locate a working group. It can be any type of group, so long as it is working on some sort of task: decision making (a group at work talking about hiring a new person), information exchange (a workshop), judgment (a jury), producing something (people working on fixing a sidewalk, the waitstaff at a restaurant), etc. Do not observe an informal group, such as a party or clique of friends, or a class.

1. Watch the group for 30 minutes. Describe its dynamics, being sure to note the group’s structure (leadership is particularly important).

2. For production groups, identify any successful resource combination procedures or failures to use group members’ resources adequately. Did you, for example, see signs of social facilitation, loafing, etc. Were all the members’ abilities used appropriately by the group?

3. For decision making groups, did the group explicitly identify the issues it faced and the procedures it would use to resolve them? Did members communicate effectively with one another?

4. What role did the leader play in guiding the group during the performance phase?

5. Critique the quality of the group’s performance; whenever possible, document what the group accomplishes (e.g., if watching 2 men digging a ditch, note how much they get done). Identify factors that could have been changed to increase effectiveness and/or efficiency.
11: Decision Making

When obstacles prevent people from achieving their goals, they engage in problem-solving to identify solutions. In many cases they perform these cognitive activities as isolated individuals, but when the information to be processed is considerable or the potential consequences monumental, they do this cognitive work in groups. This chapter examines the processes that facilitate and undermine collective decision making, including groupthink.

Learning Objectives

11.1. List and explain each of the steps in group decision making, as defined by the functional model.
11.2. Distinguish between these four memory processes in groups: shared mental model, collective memory, transactive memory, and cross-cuing.
11.3. Explain why group discussion improves performance.
11.4. List the basic ways that groups make decisions about the issues under consideration (social decision schemes) and describe the strengths and limitations of each method.
11.5. Define and give examples of crowdsourcing.
11.6. Describe the relationship between social justice and support for the group's decision.
11.7. Summarize Coch and French’s 1948 study effective methods for implementing organizational change.
11.8. Use Vroom’s normative model of decision making to make situationally specific recommendations about delegating decisions to the group.
11.9. Describe how each one of the following influencing group decision making: the planning fallacy, miscommunication, meetings, Parkinson’s law, the law of triviality, and muddling through.
11.10. Describe the methods used by Stasser and his colleagues in studying the shared information bias, and identify factors that promote and retard this tendency.
11.11. Discuss cognitive limitations that interfere with good decision making, including sins of commission, sins of omission, and heuristics.
11.12. Describe the dysfunctional tendencies groups tend to display following a decision, including responsibility denial, mismanaging consensus, and entrapment.
11.13. Recount the history of research on the polarization in groups, beginning with studies of risky shift using the Choice Dilemmas Questionnaire and ending with current applications.
11.14. Compare and contrast current theories that explain polarization (persuasive-arguments theory, social comparison theory, and social decision scheme theory).
11.15. Discuss the influence of alcohol on group decision-making.
11.16. Apply the theory of groupthink to a well-known decision-making group, such as the group of advisors responsible for planning the Bay of Pigs operation.
11.17. Summarize, graphically, Janis’s theory of groupthink, being sure to identify both symptoms and causes of groupthink.

11.18. List, define, and give an example of each symptom of groupthink identified by Janis.


11.20. Develop a list of recommendations that, if followed, would minimize the possibility of groupthink developing in a group.

**Key Terms**

Abilene paradox
Choice-Dilemmas
Questionnaire
cognitive closure
collective information
processing model
collective memory
confirmation bias
cross-cueing
crowdsourcing
discussion

distributive justice

entrapment
functional theory of group
decision making
group decision support
systems
group polarization
group-centrism
law of triviality
mindguard
normative model of decision
making
Parkinson’s Law

persuasive-arguments theory
planning fallacy
procedural justice
risky-shift phenomenon
shared information bias (or common knowledge effect)
shared mental model
social decision scheme
sunk cost

transactive memory processes

**Activities**

**11-1. Decision Making.** Break the class into small groups and ask the groups to solve some problems or make a decision. The type of problems you use will have more impact if they are intellective rather than judgmental. That way you can give each group a score, and groups can draw comparisons among them. Many different types of problems work very well, including the classic “rank these objects” needed for survival on the Moon, in the wilderness, in the desert, and so on. Intellectual puzzles also work well, particularly if they require the exchange of large amounts of information among members. This “informational exchange” activity achieves this outcome, and it can also be used to illustrate “hidden profiles” by manipulating the number of copies of each clue. To prepare this task, just print out each clue on a separate slip of paper (or print out the entire sheet and cut it into slips). Then hand the decision sheets to the groups, and have them pass out slips and read the instructions below.

**Instructions.** Your group must solve each of the problems listed below by exchanging information. The information is contained on the slips of paper in the three packets given you by your group’s “dealer.” Your dealer will pass out these slips, just like cards are passed out during a card game, until everyone in the group has approximately the same amount. You are not to show these slips of paper to the others in the group, but are instead supposed to exchange this information with the others orally. You have 10 minutes to complete each problem.

**Clues for The Murder of Peter Carey**
How was Peter Carey killed?  
What was his murderer’s motive?  
Who killed Peter Carey?  
Peter Carey, the victim, was a retired sea captain. 
Carey’s ship was a whaler, but it sometimes carried passengers. 
Carey, a powerful man, drank heavily and often brawled. 
Carey murdered H. Neligan, a passenger on his ship, for his money. 
Neligan’s son John swore he would recover the money from Carey. 
John Neligan had red hair, a moustache, and was frail and thin. 
Carey was killed at night in a cabin behind the main house. 
Two used glasses stood upon the table. 
Rum, but no other liquor from the cabinet, had been consumed. 
A tobacco pouch with the initials C.P. was found in the room. 
The groundskeeper was a visiting relative the night of the murder. 
Carl Ripps, the groundskeeper, walked with a limp. 
Patrick Cairns had been one of the crewmen on Carey’s ship. 
At the time of Neligan’s murder, Carey refused to share any money with crew. 
Carey had been harpooned—literally pinned to the wall by the shaft. 
Cairns needed money to pay a gambling debt. 
Mrs. Carey hated her husband. 
The stolen money was missing from the cabin. 
Neligan was caught trying to break into the cabin the night after the murder.

Clues for Double Deaths  
What caused Captain Watts’ death? Murder? Accident? Suicide?  
What caused James’ death? Murder? Accident? Suicide?  
Captain Watts and his son James had both been shot. 
Both victims seem to have died instantly. 
No weapon was found near James’ body. 
James, Captain Watts’ son, had been shot in the back. 
Captain Watts’ coat, where the bullet entered, was blackened with gunpowder and slightly singed. 
Captain Watts had been shot in the chest. 
The floor of the rifle range is covered with sand that would show any footprints distinctly. 
The area outside the window and door is paved and would show no footprints. 
Some think that James secretly disliked his father and hoped to inherit his fortune at his death. 
Inside the room there are only two pairs of footprints. 
Captain Watts was devoted to his son. 
A gun was found under Captain Watts’ body. 
The two bodies were found near the middle of a large hall used a rifle range. 
A third person standing outside the door or window could aim at any part of the room. 
James’ coat, where the bullet entered, was blackened with gunpowder and slightly singed.
**Clues for Sunday Drive**

How far did Arthur travel on this pleasant Sunday?
How fast did Arthur drive, in miles per hour, during the trip?
Arthur drove from Wren to Rabscuttle in 500 tiddles.
The trip from Heath to Sherm took less than 300 tiddles.
Rabscuttle is between Wren and Heath.
Arthur drove from Rabscuttle to Sherm in 250 tiddles.
A tiddle measures time.
There are 10 zooms in 1 trument.
Arthur passed through Heath on his way from Rabscuttle to Sherm.
Rabscuttle is 11 truments away from Heath.
There are 20 zooms in a mile.
Arthur began his trip at Wren.
Arthur drove at a constant speed during the trip.
Zooms measures distance.
There are 50 ooks in 100 tiddles.
Rabscuttle is 20 truments away from Sherm.
Wren is 40 truments from Rabscuttle.
There are 500 ooks in one hour.
Sherm is 40 zooms from Hazelville.

**Solutions.** For *The Murder of Peter Carey*, the group must determine how Peter Carey killed, the murderer’s identity, his motive. The solution is Peter Carey was harpooned by Patrick Cairns, who stole his ill-gotten treasure. (Adapted from “The Adventure of Peter Carey,” a Sherlock Holmes mystery by A. Conan Doyle). For *Double Deaths*, the group must determine the cause of Captain Watts’ and James Watts’ death. Captain Watts committed suicide after accidentally killing his beloved son James. (Adapted from Burack, B. The nature and efficacy of methods of attack on reasoning problems. *Psychological Monographs*, 1950, 64, No. 7, Whole No. 313). For *A Sunday Drive* the group must determine how far Arthur traveled on his trip and how fast he drove. The solution: Arthur drove 60 truments at 40 mph.

**11-2. Heuristic Thought in Groups.** Ask groups to work on some problems that individuals frequently solve by using heuristics. Although some research suggests that groups will be able to avoid the errors that the inappropriate reliance on heuristics can cause, the reasoning needed to solve these problems is often difficult to express verbally. Hence, groups have difficulty solving such problems. Ask students to first solve these problems as individuals, and then place them into groups. As a post-discussion assignment, ask students if their group was more accurate than they were as individuals.

**Solutions.** The solutions to each of the problems listed below are:
1. People sometimes let vivid case data overwhelm more valid types of information, such as base-rate data. The description is representative of an engineer, but it can certainly fit a lawyer. Also, base rates favor a lawyer. The answer is B.
2. This illustration of the Gambler’s Fallacy takes advantage of individuals’ intuitive notions about how much random sequences should vary. The roulette wheel has no “memory.” The answer is C.

3. People are often distracted by the lack of fit between the trait description and their stereotypes about bank tellers, so to them it seems likely that if Linda was a bank teller she would be a feminist. However, a conjunction—two things occurring together—is always less probable than the likelihood of just one of the things occurring. The answer is A.

4. These causes of death are in the correct order: poisoning is the least likely, and heart disease is the most likely. Individuals often sequence them incorrectly because some forms of death are more available in memory than others.

**Instructions.** The following questions measure your ideas concerning other people and events. Please answer all of the items, even if you must guess. Then, join with others in a group and discuss the issues a group. Reach a unanimous opinion on each.

1. A panel of psychologists has interviewed and administered personality tests to 30 engineers and 70 lawyers, all successful in their respective fields. The psychologists wrote descriptions of the 30 engineers and 70 lawyers were written. The one that follows was chosen at random from the 100 available descriptions.

   *Jack is a 45-year-old man. He is married and has four children. He is generally conservative, careful, and ambitious. He shows little interest in political and social issues and spends much of his free time on his many hobbies which include home carpentry, sailing, and mathematical puzzles.*

   The chances that Jack is an engineer are
   A. less than 2 out of 10.
   B. between 2 and 4 chances out of 10.
   C. 50/50: 4 to 6 chances out of 10.
   D. between 6 and 8 chances out of 10.
   E. greater than 8 chances out of 10.

2. A roulette wheel can indicate either black (B) or red (R). After the following sequence, B R B B B B, the next outcome will probably be:
   A. B B. R C. Both are equally likely.

3. Linda is 31 years old, single, outspoken, and very bright. She majored in philosophy. As a student, she was deeply concerned with issues of discrimination and social injustice, and also participated in antinuclear demonstrations. Please check off the most likely alternative:
   A. Linda is a bank teller.
   B. Linda is a bank teller and is active in the feminist movement.

4. How likely is it that a person in the U.S. will die from the following causes? Please rank them from most prevalent to least prevalent (with 1 being the most prevalent).
   ___ Poisoning by vitamins
__ Fireworks accidents
__ Venomous bite or sting
__ Floods
__ Pregnancy/birth complications
__ Infectious hepatitis
__ Appendicitis
__ Fires
__ Drowning
__ Suicide
__ Breast cancer
__ Auto accidents
__ Lung cancer
__ Stomach cancer
__ All accidents
__ Stroke
__ Cancer (all types)
__ Heart disease

11-3. Observe a Group Decision. If you cannot convene a group in class, then ask student to find a group making a decision and observe the group carefully.

Instructions. Find and observe a group that must make a decision: a televised city council meeting, a public committee meeting discussing some issue facing the community, a business group discussing a problem or strategy, a charitable board or foundation in its monthly meeting, or a university committee are all possibilities. Take notes on the group, and then answer the following questions:

1. Describe the group briefly, being sure to note its size, composition, structure, seating patterns.
2. What issue or issues did the group members examine during the meeting? Did the group preface its discussion with an analysis of the procedures it would use to reach its decision?
3. Did the group use any methods to structure its discussion, such as an agenda, rules of order, a chairperson or leader, voting procedures, or the like?
4. What procedures did the group use to reach its decision? Did it vote? Discuss matters to consensus?
5. Did the group become polarized as it discussed the problem. In other words, did the group rally rapidly behind a solution once several of the group members expressed their views publicly?
6. Were any of the symptoms of groupthink present in the group?
7. Were any of the causes of groupthink identified by Janis present in the group (e.g., cohesiveness, time pressure, stronger leader, etc.?). Could these factors have interfered with the group's decision making capabilities.
8. In your opinion, was this group effective?
11.4. Polarization. Attitude polarization can be easily demonstrated using jury decisions, discussions of current events, or debates over the ethics of research. However, for historical faithfulness the Choice Dilemmas Questionnaire (CDQ) remains an excellent vehicle for illustrating risky shifts. First, have the class members complete the CDQ individually. Next, collect their responses and assign the students to five- or six-person groups. Give the groups time to reach consensus on the items from the CDQ while you are computing the group’s score based on individual responses. Last, compare the individuals’ and averaged group score to the group’s consensus score in a postdiscussion session.

Several items from the CDQ are listed below, but Pruitt (1971, pp. 359-360) presents all the items from the survey.

Instructions: Read each scenario carefully before you place a check by the solution you favor. Then, join with others in a group and discuss the issues a group. Reach a unanimous opinion on each question before continuing on to the next.

1. Mr. B, a 45-year-old accountant, has recently been informed by his physician that he has developed a severe heart ailment. The disease would be sufficiently serious to force Mr. B to change many of his strongest life habits—reducing his work load, drastically changing his diet, giving up favorite leisure-time pursuits. The physician suggests that a delicate medical operation could be attempted which, if successful, would completely relieve the heart condition. But its success could not be assured, and in fact, the operation might prove fatal.

Imagine that you are advising Mr. B. Listed below are several probabilities or odds of the operation being successful (meaning, it corrects the heart problem and Mr. B does not die). Please check the lowest probability that you would consider acceptable to make it worthwhile for Mr. B to have the operation.

___ The chances are 1 in 10 that the operation will be successful.
___ The chances are 3 in 10 that the operation will be successful.
___ The chances are 5 in 10 that the operation will be successful.
___ The chances are 7 in 10 that the operation will be successful.
___ The chances are 9 in 10 that the operation will be successful.
___ Check here if you think Mr. B should not have the operation, no matter what the odds.

2. Ms. E is president of a light metals corporation in the U.S. The company is quite prosperous, and has strongly considered the possibilities of business expansion by building an additional plant in a new location. The choice is between building another plant in the U.S., where there would be a moderate return on the initial investment, or building a plant in a foreign country. Lower labor costs and easy access to raw materials in that country would mean a much higher return on the initial investment. On the other hand, there is a history of political instability and revolution in the foreign country under consideration. In fact, the leader of a small minority party is committed to nationalizing, that is, taking over, all foreign investments.
Imagine that you are advising Ms. E. Listed below are several probability or odds of the expansion being successful (meaning, the other country does not seize the factory). Please check the lowest probability that you would consider acceptable to make it worthwhile for Ms. E to undertake the business expansion.

___ The chances are 1 in 10 that the expansion will be successful.
___ The chances are 3 in 10 that the expansion will be successful.
___ The chances are 5 in 10 that the expansion will be successful.
___ The chances are 7 in 10 that the expansion will be successful.
___ The chances are 9 in 10 that the expansion will be successful.
___ Check here if you think E should not build in the foreign country, no matter what the odds.

3. Mr. F is currently a college senior who is very eager to pursue graduate study in chemistry leading to the Doctor of Philosophy degree. He has been accepted by both University X and University Y. University X has a world-wide reputation for excellence in chemistry. While a degree from University X would signify outstanding training in this field, the standards are so very rigorous that only a fraction of the degree candidates actually receive the degree. University Y, on the other hand, has much less of a reputation in chemistry, but almost everyone admitted is awarded the Doctor of Philosophy degree, though the degree has much less prestige than the corresponding degree from University X.

Imagine that you are advising Mr. F. Listed below are several probability or odds of him obtaining his Ph.D. from University X. Please check the lowest probability that you would consider acceptable to make it worthwhile for Mr. F to attend University X.

___ The chances are 1 in 10 that he graduates from University X.
___ The chances are 3 in 10 that he graduates from University X.
___ The chances are 5 in 10 that he graduates from University X.
___ The chances are 7 in 10 that he graduates from University X.
___ The chances are 9 in 10 that he graduates from University X.
___ Check here if you think Mr. F should not attend University X, no matter what the odds.

Assignment. Please answer the following questions, referring back to your group’s interactions while working on the questionnaire.

1. First, calculate your prediscussion score by summing all odds you selected for each item when alone, and then dividing by the number of CDQ items you answered. (The original CDQ had 12 questions, but the version you completed may have had fewer items.)
2. Ask the rest of your group members to tell you the answers they had given before the group discussion (their prediscussion scores).
3. What was your group’s prediscussion average score, prior to deliberation (sum the numbers listed in #2 above and divide by the number of people in your group)?
4. What was your group’s discussion score (sum all odds your group selected during the discussion and then divide by the number of CDQ items you answered).
5. Draw a diagram of your group by indicating the location of each person in your group somewhere along the line from risk to caution, depending on their prediscussion scores. Also indicate your group's average prediscussion score and discussion score (use Figure 10-6, p. 350, as a guide).

6. Did your group confirm predictions about group polarization? Which theory seems to best account for your group's reaction?
12: Teams

An understanding of teams requires an understanding of groups, in general: How they form, their basic structures, their development over time, and the social influence processes that shape members’ behaviors. Teams, however, possess some unique characteristics, given the high degree of coordination among members and their focus on goals.

Learning Objectives

12.1. Trace this history of the use of teams in performance settings.
12.2. Describe the qualities of teams that set them apart from other types of groups.
12.3. Describe the following types of teams, providing examples of each: Management, Project, Advisory, Service, Production, and Action.
12.4. Summarize Hackman’s authority matrix model of team autonomy.
12.5. Trace the history of the use of teams in businesses and organizations.
12.7. Summarize the methods used and results obtained in the Pisano, Bohmer, and Edmonson (2001) study of teams for minimally invasive coronary surgery.
12.8. Describe the personality characteristics of the ideal “team player.”
12.9. Describe the KSAs (Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities) of the high-performance team member.
12.10. Examine the categories and types of diversity that are relevant to teams, and identify the benefits and liabilities of increased team diversity.
12.11. Review evidence pertaining to sex differences in group productivity.
12.12. Use the Marks, Mathieu, and Zaccaro model to identify the transition, action, and interpersonal processes that make up teamwork.
12.13. Describe the cognitive factors that support effective teamwork.
12.15. Describe the unique problems facing online teams in comparison to offline teams.
12.16. Evaluate the effectiveness of teams as currently used in business and industry, and offer data-based suggestions for improving them.
12.17. Summarize the empirical evidence examining the effectiveness of team building and team training.
12.18. Compare and contrast teams and quality circles.

Key Terms

ad hoc teams  
crews  
cross-functional teams  
faultlines  
group affective tone  
interpersonal trust  
KSAs  
organizational trust model  
quality circles (QCs)
Activities

12-1. Working in Teams. If possible, have your students work on a project as a team. In order to qualify as a true team, rather than a learning group or study group, discuss the key features of a team, and make sure that you create these qualities in the teams. The most important will be group-level outcomes (all the members receive a common grade), a fixed membership (members cannot come and go from the group), and repetition of tasks so that the group has the opportunity to learn based on experience. Teams do not work on a project and then disband: true teams repeatedly perform the same type of task.

Repeated group-level testing offers one means of creating true teams in the classes. After creating the teams give the teams a substantial multiple choice test, due one week from that date. Tell students that they are to select a name for their team, and turn in only one copy of the test to represent their team's answers. Repeat this testing process at least three times over the course of the semester, so that students can learn basic teamwork skills, such as strategy formulation, system monitoring, and backup behavior.

In creating the teams, be mindful of diversity in terms of demographic characteristics, achievement motivation, and general achievement. Because team performance tends to be linked to the performance of the best member of the group, if possible make sure that the highest performers in the class are distributed across teams. Following any given performance, have the student complete an assessment of their team.

12-2. What is a Team? What is the difference between a team and a group? This activity assumes that teams are groups, but other researchers offer more elaborate models of teams, which students can use to describe the features of a team they observe or one to which they belong. Dickinson & McIntyre (in Brannick, Salas, & Prince, 1997, p. 25), for example, identify seven components of teamwork: team orientation, team leadership, communication, monitoring, feedback, backup behavior (assisting each other), and coordination of effort.

Instructions. Teams are groups, but what makes them unique? Their unity? Their focus on group goals? The interdependence among members? Explore these questions by interviewing at least 2 members of teams: a workgroup in a business setting, a sports team, a policy or military squad, or a surgical team are all good examples of the kinds of groups to investigate. The individuals may be members of the same team, or different teams. Prepare a brief report summarizing their responses to these questions, and any others you feel are important to consider. Drawing on their responses, summarize your report by answer this question: Was this group a true team?

1. Interaction questions:
   - What do the members of your group do?
• Do group members interact frequently together or separately?
• Are most group interactions task focused on relationship focused?

2. Interdependence questions:
• Do group members work closely with each other?
• Are there any problems coordinating the group's activities?
• Do people work together or do they primarily work on their own projects?
• What happens when a group member doesn't perform up to the group's standards?

3. Structure questions:
• How organized is the group?
• Is it clear who is supposed to do what?
• Are there conflicts about who is in charge?

4. Goal questions:
• Do members of your group put the group's goal about their own individual goals?
• Do members work hard to reach the group's goals?
• Does the group have a specific mission or goal?
• If the group fails, do you fail?

5. Cohesiveness questions:
• Would you say that your group is a cohesive, tight-knit one?
• Do people like each other?
• Does the group have much turnover?

6. Social identity questions:
• Does the group have a name?
• Are group members proud to say that they are a member of this group?
• Do the group members share a sense of identity with each other?
Group members do not always get along well with one another. Even in the most serene group one member may irritate another; with little warning the group’s atmosphere may transform from one of tranquility to one of hostility. This chapter examines conflict by considering inputs (roots of conflict), processes (conflict escalation), and outputs (ways of managing conflict).

Learning Objectives

13.1. Define and give examples of conflict, intragroup conflict, and intergroup conflict.
13.2. Discuss the relationship among independence, cooperation, competition, and conflict.
13.3. Describe the primary sources of conflict between members of groups.
13.4. Draw a sample matrix from a Prisoner’s Dilemma Game, and explain through examples the use of the game in the study of cooperation and competition, reciprocity, and social value orientation.
13.5. Examine the competing motivations in social dilemmas, including commons dilemmas, public goods dilemmas, and fairness dilemmas.
13.6. Distinguish between distributive and procedural justice, and use these concepts to explore reactions to various norms pertaining to resource distribution.
13.7. What kinds of conflicts occur when group members must distribute valued rewards with the group?
13.8. Summarize the processes that occur in groups when members must determine responsibility for success and failure on collaborative tasks.
13.9. Compare and contrast task, process, and personal conflict in groups.
13.10. Summarize Heider’s (1958) balance theory and use that theory to make predictions about group member’s reactions to substantive conflicts with group members they like and dislike.
13.11. Describe how reactance and errors in misperceiving others’ motivations contribute to conflict escalation.
13.12. Summarize the methods used and results obtained by Deutsch and Krauss in their “trucking game” experiment.
13.13. Describe the social factors that contribute to an upward conflict spiral.
13.14. Use the concepts of (a) coalition formation and (b) emotional contagion to explain conflict escalation in groups.
13.15. Distinguish between these three forms of negotiation: distributive, integrative, hard, soft, and principled.
13.16. Describe the mixed and often conflicting evidence pertaining to the value of communication as a means of resolving conflict in groups.
13.17. Provide a graphical summary of the dual-concerns model of conflict.
13.18. Describe the methods used and results obtained by Axelrod (1984) in his studies of competition.

13.19. Compare and contrast these types of third party interventions: inquisitorial, mediator, moot and arbitrator.

13.20. Describe the mixed evidence pertaining to the hypothesis that conflict helps groups discover and resolve interpersonal and procedural problems.

**Key Terms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>behavioral assimilation</th>
<th>intragroup conflict</th>
<th>rules of order</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>competition</td>
<td>mediator</td>
<td>social dilemma</td>
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<tr>
<td>conflict</td>
<td>mixed-motive situation</td>
<td>social trap (or commons dilemma)</td>
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<td>cooperation</td>
<td>negotiation</td>
<td>social values orientation (SVO)</td>
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<tr>
<td>distributive negotiation</td>
<td>personal conflict</td>
<td>task conflict (content conflict or substantive conflict)</td>
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<td>dual concern model</td>
<td>prisoner's dilemma game (PDG)</td>
<td>tit for tat (TFT)</td>
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<tr>
<td>egocentrism</td>
<td>process conflict (or procedural conflict)</td>
<td>trucking game experiment</td>
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<tr>
<td>flaming</td>
<td>public goods dilemma</td>
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<td>independence</td>
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<td>integrative negotiation</td>
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<td>intergroup conflict</td>
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**Activities**

**13-1. Experiencing Conflicts.** It is often very instructive to create conflicts in the class, and then examine them. One of the best instigators of conflict is asking students to gather in small groups and make a real decision about how they would like to be tested: multiple choice, oral presentations, essay tests, papers, and so on. Variations in preferences, with such high stakes, often cause high levels of tension. In some cases, though, these conflicts can create permanent rifts in the class, so a more cautious approach involves asking students to recount a case of conflict they have personally experienced.

**Instructions.** Think of a time when you experienced a group in conflict: when the actions or beliefs of one or more members of the group were unacceptable to and resisted by one or more of the other group members. The conflict need not have been intense or long-term, but it should have involved some type of disagreement among the members.

1. What started the disagreement? Was the conflict rooted in personal conflict, substantive conflict, procedural conflict, competition, or the group’s inability to handle a social dilemma?
2. Did the conflict escalate? Did you notice any of these conflict-intensifiers:
   - commitment to positions instead of concern for issues
   - misperceptions about the nature of the conflict
   - the use of contentious, too-strong tactics by members
   - negative reciprocity (paybacks)
   - the formation of opposing coalitions
   - strong emotions, such as anger
3. How did you respond in the situation? Which style of conflict resolution did you adopt?
4. What happened to the group? How was the conflict resolved? How did the experience change the group?

13-2. What are the Causes of Everyday Conflict? Ask students to study the causes of conflict by interviewing people in a business setting, by provoking conflict in a group to which they belong, or by watching individuals competing.

Instructions. Because few groups can avoid conflict altogether, we are frequently offered opportunities to observe the causes and consequences of conflict first-hand. Search out a group experiencing conflict and carrying out one of these activities:
1. Conflicts erupt frequently in corporate settings, and are often rooted in personal dislikes and antipathies. Interview several members of the same company or organization, and ask them to talk about who they don’t get along with and why. Is the conflict rooted in personality, substantive differences, or competition over resources?
2. If you belong to a group that discusses issues regularly, deliberately provoke conflict by disagreeing with other members. Plan your disagreement carefully and remain respectful of other people’s positions. See how the group responds and how you respond to the group. Be sure to take note of any conflict-intensifying reactions, such as commitment, misperceptions, and anger.
3. Watch individuals playing a competitive game, such as tennis, a board game, backgammon, or chess. Observe the way the competitors strive to overcome their opponent, but how they also try to minimize the harmful effects of competition to keep the situation friendly. Cautiously interfere with their interaction by asking the winner if he or she feels good about “crushing” his or her opponent.
4. Observe a group experiencing conflict. Try to follow the arguments offered by group members, and see if they use contentious influence tactics to overcome others. Watch for displays of anger, insulting remarks, threats, criticisms, nonverbal rejection, and the like. Use a chart to track the discussion. Each time a member speaks, classify the remark as positive or negative.

13-3. The Nuts Game. Play one or more conflict games in class, such as the prisoner’s dilemma game, a coalition formation exercise, or a social-trap simulation. Choose one or two groups for demonstrational purposes, or break the class into groups. You may need to pick some students to act to help you collect the data.

Julian Edney’s The Nuts Game works well in the classroom (Edney used hardware nuts, but any token can be substituted for the nuts.) Put 10 items in a bowl (paper clips or pennies work well) and give the bowl to the first group member, giving him or her a chance to withdraw some. Proceed on to the others in the group, and then record how many are left. Replenish the bowl by doubling or tripling the number of items left in the bowl at the end of the round. Again let members pick out items, and vary the order you let people in the group pick. After each go around, record the items remaining and replenish the pool.

Instructions. This exercise involves harvesting pennies from a pool of pennies. A bowl containing a number of pennies will be passed around the group by the observer, and each
participant can then take some out. The goal of each individual group member is to earn as many pennies as is possible, but they can only be taken from the bowl when it is your turn.

Each time the bowl is passed around, the observer will count the number of pennies remaining in the bowl, and then add double the number for the next go around. For example, if the bowl contains 4 pennies when the group finishes, the observer will add 8 more and then pass the bowl around again. At no time, however, can the number of pennies in the bowl exceed 25. During the selection process, no communication between participants is permitted.

You will be permitted to take 8 turns to draw out pennies (provided the pool is not depleted). You cannot talk to one another during that time. However, after 8 turns time will be allotted for group members to talk over their strategy. Then, you will be given 8 more turns.

**Assignment.** A commons dilemma, or social trap, is a situation that tempts each individual to maximize personal outcomes, but such actions will harm the group and the individual in the long-run. The Nuts Game, as designed by Edney, is an example of a social trap, since the resource, once destroyed, cannot be replenished.

1. Describe your motives during the first set of trials. Were you trying to maximize your earnings, not be taken advantage of, or help the group? Why, basically, did you take the number of pennies you took?
2. How did the other group members respond in the situation? Were they similar to you in their choices, or different?
3. What did your group decide during the conference between trials? Did communication improve your group’s performance?

**13-4. Coalition Formation.** Just as researchers study competition and conflict using the PDG, coalition formation has been investigated in many cases using a “convention” or “legislative” role-playing paradigm. Groups of three or more subjects are assembled in the laboratory and told that they will be forming coalitions in order to win some points. After the concept of a coalition is defined, resources are allocated to each member. For example, in a 9(8-7-2-1) game, 9 votes are needed to win and 8-7-2-1 is the allocation of resources to the four people in the group. In this situation, many winning coalitions are possible: 8-7, 8-2, 8-1, 8-1-1, 7-2, 7-2-1, and so on. Another example is the 20(10-9-8-3) game. In this case, the winning coalitions are 10-9-8, 10-8-3, and 9-8-3.

Play both of these games with students by creating 5-person groups, and designate one person as the observer. Write 8, 7, 2, and 1 on slips of paper, and then hand the slips to the group members. Group members are to write on the slips who they want to join and, if the choices are mutual and a coalition forms, how they propose splitting up the 100 points. Repeat this process several times before switching to the 20(10-9-8-3) game. Have the observer take over the task of handing out the slips and collecting data if you have a large number of groups.
Instructions. You are to role play the representative of a union. You will be meeting with other representatives from other unions to decide important issues. The number of votes you control depends on the size of the union you represent, the larger the union, the more votes you control. No representative has enough votes to win alone, so you will need to form coalitions with other representatives if you want your votes to count. If you manage to become part of a coalition that controls enough votes to win then you and the rest of the coalition partners will split up 100 points.

13-5. Styles of Conflict. Ask students to complete this self-report measure of the way they typically respond to group conflicts. For each item, response "a" indicates avoiding, "b" is the yielding style, "c" is the fighting style, and "d" is the cooperative style.

Instructions. Select your preferred way of dealing with each one of these problems.

1. During a group meeting one of the other group members, Fred, disagrees with some of the points you are making. He speaks very critically of both you and your ideas. What should you do as you prepare for the next meeting on the same matter?
   A. I would schedule another meeting at the same time and not attend the one with Fred.
   B. I’d just go along with him, no sense in fighting over it.
   C. I’d plan out a strategy so that I can take advantage of his anger.
   D. I’d meet with him so we can put our heads together and find a way to work together more effectively.

2. The group, after discussing the matter for several hours, finally decides on a course of action that you think is a mistake. What should you do?
   A. I’d let the others do what they want and keep a low profile.
   B. I’d lend my support to the group’s decision, even though I don’t agree with it.
   C. I’d dig in and continue to argue until I can win them over.
   D. I’d try to identify new solutions that satisfy me and the others.

3. During a meeting the group splinters on an important issue, with one side arguing in favor of a proposal and one against it. What should you do?
   A. I’d stop going to the meetings until the problem blows over.
   B. I’d urge the faction with fewer members to just go along with the others.
   C. I’d join the side that I agree with and try to help them overcome the other side.
   D. I’d try to work out a solution that benefits everyone.

4. During a group discussion:
   A. I keep my mouth shut (I don’t get involved).
   B. I usually just go along with whatever the group decides.
   C. I keep arguing my position until the others give up.
   D. I stress the importance of working together instead of arguing.
14: Intergroup Relations

Hate, as Gordon Allport explained in *The Nature of Prejudice*, is usually a group-level emotion. People rarely hate specific people, yet they often hate entire groups. This chapter considers the factors that set the stage for conflict between groups, changes that conflict bring to groups, and ways to resolve conflicts.

Learning Objectives

14.1. Describe the methods used and results obtained by the Sherifs and their colleagues in the Robbers Cave Experiment.
14.2. Draw on realistic group conflict theory in an analysis of the relationship between competition and conflict between groups, cultures, and countries.
14.3. Graphically summarize the methods used by Insko and his colleagues in their studies of the discontinuity effect, and identify at least three factors that partly explain the greater competitiveness of groups relative to individuals.
14.4. Use social dominance theory to explain conflict between groups.
14.5. Use the general aggression model to explain intergroup conflict and scapegoating.
14.6. Explain how norms work to increase conflict between groups.
14.7. Marshall evidence the supports, and runs counter to, an evolutionary explanation for intergroup conflict.
14.8. Define the ingroup-outgroup bias, in general, and contrast it with ethnocentrism, ingroup positivity, outgroup negativity, and double-standard thinking.
14.9. Discuss the nature of implicit intergroup biases, and explain how these biases are measured using the Implicit Association Test (IAT).
14.10. Describe the cognitive factors that sustain conflict between groups, including the outgroup homogeneity bias, the law of small numbers, the group attribution error, the ultimate attribution error, the linguistic intergroup bias, and stereotyping.
14.11. Discuss the role of emotions in intergroup conflict, drawing on the stereotype content model of intergroup emotions.
14.13. Summarize the methods used and results obtained by Tajfel, Turner, and their colleagues in their studies of the minimal group situation, and use those findings to draw conclusions about the inevitability of intergroup conflict.
14.14. Summarize the general contact hypothesis and name four conditions that increase the effectiveness of contact as an agent of conflict resolution.
14.15. Define the concept of a superordinate goal and use this concept to suggest ways to reduce intergroup conflict.
14.16. Summarize the findings obtained by Pettigrew and Tropp (2000, 2006) in their meta-analytic review of the contact hypothesis.
14.17. Describe the impact of the following cognitive manipulations on intergroup conflict: decategorization, recategorization, cross categorization, and the control of stereotyped thinking.

14.18. Describe the basic assumptions of Jigsaw learning groups and cooperative learning groups.

**Key Terms**

- common ingroup identity model
- contact hypothesis
- cross-categorization
- decategorization
- dehumanization
- discontinuity effect
- double-standard thinking
- ethnocentrism
- extended contact hypothesis
- frustration-aggression hypothesis
- general model of aggression
- group attribution error
- jigsaw method
- law of small numbers
- linguistic intergroup bias
- moral exclusion
- outgroup homogeneity bias
- realistic group conflict theory
- recategorization
- Robbers Cave experiment
- scapegoat theory
- social dominance theory
- stereotype
- stereotype content model
- superordinate goal
- ultimate attribution error
- virtual contact hypothesis

**Activities**

**14-1. Experiencing Intergroup Conflict.** Ask students to identify their own experiences with intergroup conflict. You can extend this project by asking them to focus on one particular form of conflict that they all share, such as a rivalry with another university or racial conflict.

**Instructions.** Think of a time when you experienced intergroup conflict: when you belonged to a group that had a rival group. It may be a time in your past, but more likely you can consider one of your current groups, for who does not belong to a group that does not have a rival? The group may also be a categorical one, where membership is based on similarity of members in terms of some demographic quality (e.g., race, ethnicity) or a dynamic group in which members interact with one another on a regular basis (Wilder & Simon, 1998).

1. Describe, briefly, your group and the rival group. What are the structural characteristics of the two groups (size, organization, goals) and the overall values of the group?
2. What are members of the two groups like, as individuals and as group members?
3. What caused the conflict? Can the conflict be traced back to a precipitating event or issue?
4. Do the members of the two groups categorize each other? That is, do they display such tendencies as the ingroup-outgroup bias, stereotyping, and double-standards?
5. How did you personally respond in the situation?
6. Was the conflict resolved? Can you think of any better way you could have handled the situation?

**14-2. Intergroup Conflict in the News.** Arrange for copies of the local newspaper to be delivered to the room (most newspapers will provide papers at a discount or at no cost at
all). Review the contents with students, looking for evidence of intergroup conflict in international news, local news, letters to the editor, sports sections, and in the advertising.

**Instructions:** Conflict between groups is such a pervasive aspect of our daily lives that we sometimes fail to notice it. Refocus your attention on groups, instead of the individuals in the groups, by reviewing the articles published in the local newspaper. Review each page of the local newspaper looking for descriptions of groups and evidence of conflict between those groups.

1. **International news:** What groups and nationalities are in the news? Are these groups described in positive or pejorative ways?
2. **Local news:** Are some of the issues facing your region of the country intergroup conflicts?
3. **Letters to the editor:** Do the editorials and letters to the editor describe grievances and complaints about a particular group? What groups do the writers belong to and what groups are they criticizing? Do their complaints reflect any of the perceptual biases listed in the summary, such as the outgroup homogeneity bias, the ingroup differentiation bias, and so on?
4. **Sports and leisure:** How are the sections dealing with sports and leisure influenced by groups?
5. **Advertisements:** Don’t overlook the advertisements, which are often designed to appeal to subgroups of the overall population. Do they reveal negative stereotypes about the groups depicted?

**14-3. Tower Building.** Tower-building by adults is a stimulating activity. In many cases individuals who have never before participated in activities become very dominant, and when conflicts erupt between groups they can be very intense. Also, most offices have the supplies you will need to outfit the groups, including paper, staples and staplers, scissors, glue, and the like, although you will probably have to add such things as construction paper, pipe cleaners, string, cardboard, and newsprint. Make the groups share certain objects, such as a stapler. After putting people in 5-person groups, tell them that the towers will be judged on (1) creativity in design and (2) structural integrity, and that the group members with the best tower won’t have to do the written assignment. Avoid judging the towers yourself, however. Have a student, colleague, or staff member select the best tower. You can also have one group of students act as judged—although this practice tends to shift the conflict away from other groups toward the judges.

**Assignment.** Studies of intergroup conflict suggest that two basic reactions take place when one group clashes with another. First, changes within the group create increases in cohesiveness, out-group rejection, and greater group differentiation. Second, intergroup conflict seems to produce misperceptions of the motives and qualities of the outgroup members. To better understand these consequences, consider in the following questions your own experience in the tower-building groups.

1. Do you think your product was fairly evaluated? Was the winning tower better than yours? Was the judge fair? How did you and your group react to the decision?
2. Did you notice any increases in cohesiveness in your group while you worked on the task? Did your group differentiate itself from the others, or develop a sense of identity during the task?

3. Did anyone in the group express hostility towards other groups and their products? Were any negative comments made or actions taken?

**14-4. Jigsaw Learning.** Instructors who use the jigsaw teaching method (Aronson et al., 1978) in groups achieve three key outcomes: they enhance students' learning about the material itself; they demonstrate this method of collaborative learning and prejudice reduction; and they may reduce their own students' ingroup-outgroup biases. Perkins and Saris (2001) describe the steps they took to adapt the jigsaw method to a college course (statistics), and they report a number of learning and interpersonal gains in their students after the experience. [Source: Perkins, D. v., & Saris, R. N. (2001). A "jigsaw classroom" technique for undergraduate statistics courses. Teaching of Psychology, 28, 111-113.]

**14-5. Intergroup Conflict.** Most college campus are heterogeneous environments where people from many groups interact in both formal and informal settings. In many cases students are reluctant to discuss issues of conflict and prejudice openly in class, but they are more willing to discuss these matters by reporting what others think about these issues. Ask students to interview other students about their perceptions of intergroup conflict, and have them report their results in writing or orally.

**Instructions.** This activity focuses on intergroup conflict: Tensions between the members of different groups. Although college campuses were once considered to be oases in a sea of prejudice, the media has recently documented cases of conflict related to race, religion, sex, and so on. This university, because of its unique qualities, may be relatively immune from the negative forces that create conflict elsewhere. To find out, please conduct 4 brief interviews with 4 different people. They can be friends, but they must have these qualities: 1 man and 1 woman within your racial group and 1 man and 1 woman in a different racial group. For each person:

1. First, note the race and sex of the person, and their approximate age. Then ask:
2. Do you think that racial prejudice is a problem at this university?
3. Have you personally experienced any problems that were race-related at this university?
4. Do you know of anyone at this university who has experienced race-related problems?

Please report your findings and provide a set of conclusions about "conditions" that promote prejudice or absence of prejudice. Consider, in particular, the factors identified on pages 470-475 of the text.
Groups exist in any number of distinct physical locations: from classrooms, museums, factories and boardrooms to coal mines, battlefields, and even space capsules. The physical qualities of these places—temperature, type of lighting, furniture arrangements, noise—substantially influence group dynamics, but so do the social features of the setting. This chapter reviews these processes, focusing on places, spaces, and location (territories).

Learning Objectives

15.1. Use the concept of ambience to differentiate between satisfying and stimulating/overstimulating group environments.
15.2. Explain the impact of the following characteristics of the physical environment on group dynamics: temperature (too warm or too cold), noise, ambience, and threat (danger).
15.3. Use Van De Vliert’s climate-economic theory to explain the economic systems and cultural tendencies of world cultures.
15.4. Explain why some groups succeed, but others fail, in extreme and unusual environments.
15.5. List, and give examples of, the five zones of interpersonal distance.
15.6. Summarize differences in personal space needs related to sex, status, and culture.
15.7. Summarize the equilibrium model of communication and apply it to a two-person, mixed sex discussion group.
15.8. Compare and contrast density and crowding.
15.9. Integrate Freedman’s density-intensity of model of crowding with a general attributional analysis of reactions to high density settings.
15.10. Compare sociopetal and sociofugal spaces and review the impact of such spaces on group communication in mixed sex, cooperative and competing, groups.
15.11. Draw on studies of the Steinzor effect and the head-of-the-table effect to draw conclusions about influence and seating location in group meetings.
15.12. Give examples of the three types of territories identified by Altman (1975).
15.13. Describe the essential features of online and offline third places.
15.14. Explain when playing on one’s home field is an advantage and when it is a disadvantage.
15.15. Summarize the impact of territorial processes on such group processes as intergroup conflict, member adjustment, status, and group performance.
15.16. Drawing on evidence reported by researchers (Hansen & Altman, 1976; Vinsel et al., 1980), discuss the protective, personalizing, and privacy maintaining functions of territorial markers.
15.17. Generalize the results obtained by Baum and Valins (1977) in their study of
territoriality in dormitories to college students’ adjustment to dorm living.

15.18. Compare and contrast personal space, group space, and territoriality.

15.19. Describe the relationship between territory and adjustment to extreme and unusual environments.

15.20. List the key features of a behavior setting.

15.21. Summarize the assumptions of staffing theory and apply the theory to make predictions about the efficiency of overstaffed and understaffed settings.

15.22. Describe the physical features of an ideal workspace for groups.

Key Terms

- ambience
- attention restoration theory
- behavior setting
- crowding
- density
- density-intensity hypothesis
- equilibrium model of communication
- extreme and unusual environments
- sociofugal spaces
- sociopetal spaces
- staffing theory
- Steinzor effect
- stress
- synomorphy
- territory
- third places

Activities

15-1. Group Synomorphy. After discussing several examples of well-known locations on campus that lack synomorphy, ask students to find and describe a social situation where individuals’ interactions are constrained by the physical environment. You can extend this activity by having the entire class observe a series of behavior settings.

Assignment: The concept of synomorphy assumes that the shape and design of the environment where group members interact inevitably shapes their dynamics: for better and for worse. Study synomorphy by locating a complex behavior setting occupied by a group. You might want to observe a crowded place, such as a high-density classroom, a fast-food restaurant, or an airport terminal. You could also consider a cafeteria line, the check-out desk in the library, the entrance to a high-use building, or a busy street corner. Just be certain that the place you observe is one that involves relatively complex interactions between the individuals and the setting they occupy.

1. Describe, in detail, the place that you are observing. Give its general characteristics, including dimensions.
2. Is the space available appropriate given the number of people present and their actions? Is overcrowding a problem? Is understaffing a problem?
3. Consider the way people enter into and move in the space. For example, are the doorways and halls sufficient to handle the flow of traffic? Is the area easy to reach from an outside location? Are the stairs or aisles conveniently located and adequate? Is the space barrier-free?
4. Describe how the people in the space react to it. Did they seem to like it or dislike it? Did it seem to be stressful for them? Did it influence the nature of their interactions?
5. Critique the space, concentrating on ambience and synomorphy: Does the form fit function? Does the space fit the tasks to be accomplished? Is it too noisy, crowded, noisy, or ugly?

15-2. Territoriality. After presenting an analysis of your own office, ask students to fan out across the campus and review other faculty’s offices. Most faculty will consent to a students’ polite request to examine their office, if they provide an explanation that the review is for a class project on territoriality.

Assignment. Members of groups often develop a proprietary orientation toward specific areas of the group’s space; for example, family members have their own rooms, faculty have their offices, and students in classes often sit at the same desk week after week. Study the territories of a professor at a university or a colleague where you work by first getting consent of the occupant. Then, spend about 15 minutes in the individuals’ territory, taking notes and sketching its layout. Consider the following aspects of the space:
1. Whose territory did you observe? Give a thumbnail sketch of the individual’s personality, focusing on introversion, achievement orientation, friendliness, emotionality, and intellectual prowess. What is the status of the occupant?
2. How large is the space? What is the actual measurement of the room? Does it seem large enough, or small and cluttered? What is your subjective appraisal of the size?
3. Where is the office located? Is it hidden away in an obscure part of the building, or in a high-traffic area? What other rooms/offices are located nearby?
4. What is the overall quality of the space? Is it clean, freshly painted, in need of repair, modern, etc.?
5. Diagram the way the furniture is arranged, paying attention to desk, chairs, windows, and doorway.
6. What sort of markings are in the office or near the office? Are grades posted nearby, is the room marked with a name plate?
7. What types of territorial displays are present in the office itself (see Table 14-4)?
   - Entertainment or equipment (bicycles, skis, radios, tennis rackets)
   - Personal relations (pictures of friends, letters, drawings)
   - Values (religious or political posters, bumper stickers)
   - Abstract (prints, art, statues)
   - Reference items (schedules, syllabi, calendars)
   - Music/theater (posters of rock groups, ballet troupes)
   - Sports (pictures of athletes, magazines)
   - Idiosyncratic (crafts, wall hangings, plants)
8. Given your observations, would you consider the space you observed to be a territory?

15-3. Students’ Territories. Ask students to study their own territories, using the questions presented in Activity 14-2. Introduce the project by showing students photographs of dormitory rooms, and review with them the basic categories: entertainment or equipment, personal relations, values, abstract art, reference items, music/theater posters, sports, and idiosyncratic. Then have students carry out a simple observational study of their own rooms.
15-4. **Walk around the Campus.** Send students on a walk around campus (if the weather is nice). Issue maps of the course you want them to follow and review them briefly. Send the students out in single file, with a gap of about 20 seconds between each. Tell them to remain separate and not gather together, and to take in all they can without writing anything down. If anyone they know approaches they should say politely “I can’t talk now. I’m doing some strange project for class” and continue walking.

The walk should take about 20 minutes. Prepare it so that it takes them through (a) interesting architectural spaces that constrain or change people’s behaviors, (b) crowded and noisy areas, (c) areas of natural beauty (if possible), and (d) areas that are ugly, dirty, or smelly. Back in class, allow students time to write down their perceptions of the environment. You can ask them a very general question, such as “What did you see that’s worth noting?” or more specific questions that focus on architecture, crowding, and environmental quality. Then review perceptions in class, noting how different people saw very different places.
16: Groups and Change

The use of groups as agents of change dates back many years, but it was Lewin who stated the basic “law” of group therapy in its most simple form: “It is usually easier to change individuals formed into a group than to change any one of them separately” (1951, p. 228). This chapter reviews these applications, with a focus on therapeutic and support groups.

Learning Objectives

16.1. Identify the characteristics of the three basic approaches to using groups to achieve therapeutic change.
16.2. Compare and contrast the following four approaches to group therapy: group psychoanalysis, gestalt groups, interpersonal group psychotherapy, and cognitive-behavioral therapy.
16.3. Review the methods used in psychodrama.
16.4. Compare cognitive-behavioral approaches to more traditional psychoanalytic approaches to group treatment.
16.5. Describe the use of process debriefing groups following stressful community-level events.
16.6. Trace the history of the use of groups for interpersonal training, beginning with the original use of T-groups by Lewin.
16.7. Describe the basic components usually included in structured learning groups, beginning with orientation and ending with application.
16.8. List and elaborate on the basic characteristics of support groups, and differentiate between support groups and those that are conducted by a psychologist or other health care professional.
16.9. Describe the advantages and disadvantages of an online support group.
16.10. Summarize the history of Alcoholics Anonymous, and describe how this group is similar to or different from other types of support groups.
16.11. List and give a brief definition of the therapeutic factors operating in groups.
16.12. Use social learning theory to explain how members of therapy and interpersonal groups acquire new interpersonal skills.
16.13. Discuss the benefits and liabilities of increasing the overall level of cohesion within a therapeutic group.
16.14. Review the evidence pertaining to the value of personal disclosures and emotional disclosure in groups.
16.15. Summarize the evidence that supports the continued use of groups for therapeutic purposes and evidence that argues against the use of groups.
16.16. Examine the application of group therapies in developing countries from both the emic and the etic perspectives.
Key Terms

casualty  Gestalt group therapy  sensitivity training group
catharsis  group psychoanalysis  social learning theory
cognitive-behavioral therapy  interpersonal group  structured learning group
group  psychotherapy  support group
coleadership  interpersonal learning group  therapeutic factor
thic perspective  Lewin's law of change  therapeutic group
tetic perspective  premature termination  training group or T-group
tercent assessment group  process debriefing group  transference
evidence-based treatment  psychodrama  self-disclosure
experiential learning theory

Activities

16-1. Self-Disclosure: This exercise requires students move through various levels of self-disclosure, beginning with nonintimate topics but progressing toward more intimate ones. You can structure this exercise by creating a pack of cards that you give the groups. Each card asks a question that varies from low to high in intimacy. Each group member must turn over a card, and answer the question. You can also give group members the option of returning a card to the deck unanswered, but they must then answer the next question no matter what its level of intimacy. Make sure the questions you write for the decks vary from superficial (“What is your favorite color?”) to confidential (“What are you most ashamed of?”).

Instructions: This activity asks you to practice disclosing information about yourself with other members of the class. Please remember to be respectful of others during this process.
1. Confidentiality. Before the group disclosure session group members should first agree that what is said should not be repeated outside the group.
2. Orientation. Begin self-disclosing information gradually, focusing on relatively factual information about yourself. Everyone in the group should mention something about themselves, answering such questions as:
   - Where is your birthplace?
   - How many brothers and sisters do you have?
   - What is your occupation or major in college?
3. Attitudes and Interests. Group members, once they have disclosed some basic information about themselves, should discuss more personal topics, including:
   - What are your views on such topics as politics, government, or religion?
   - What are your hobbies and preferred pasttimes?
   - What are your favorite foods or preferences in music?
4. Personal Strengths and Weaknesses. If members become more comfortable self-disclosing personal information, the group can move beyond attitudes and interests to more confidential topics, including:
   - What do you most enjoy about school (or work)?
• What are your shortcomings that prevent you from being as successful as you would like to be?
• How much money do you make?
• What aspects of your personality do you dislike?
• Are you satisfied with your ability to make friends and maintain relationships?

5. Intimate Disclosures. If all the members of the group are comfortable discussing intimate personal information, members may want to turn to such questions as:
• What things have you done in the past that you are ashamed of?
• How satisfying is your sex life?
• Has anyone hurt your feelings deeply?

After the exercise spend time reviewing the self-disclosure process. Did the group move from less intimate to more intimate topics as it practiced self-disclosure? Did the group become more cohesive as the more members self-disclosed? How did you feel during and after the exercise?

16-2. Visit a Change-Promoting Group: Many groups, such as Alcoholics Anonymous, hold public meetings regularly, and students can observe the dynamics of these groups.

Instructions. Visit a support group or an anti-addiction meeting and note its dynamics. A wide variety of such groups, including Alcoholics Anonymous, Narcotics Anonymous, and CoDependents Anonymous hold public meetings regularly. Most groups have no objection to people watching, so long as they do not violate the group’s norms regarding anonymity and turn taking. You should take notes after the meeting, but not during it. Also, respect the members’ right to privacy—do not provide any identifying information at all, including descriptions of individuals, in your notes and account.

1. Arrive a few minutes early and watch as people come to the meeting. What is the composition of the group, in terms of number of people, ages, sex, ethnicity, and so on?
2. Describe the beginning of the group’s meeting. Does it recite a prayer, state its goals, and so on?
3. Does the group provide members with advice and information on how to deal with their problems?
4. Describe how the group provides motivational and emotional support to its members. Do group members encourage each other, and do some members provide positive examples?
5. From your observation, does the group take advantage of any of the therapeutic factors identified in Table 15-3?
6. Give your overall analysis of the group’s effectiveness.

16-3. Developing Social Skills: Groups are useful in helping people develop the skills needed to interact effectively and appropriately with other people. Ask group members to evaluate their social skills in six areas identified by Riggio (1986): emotional expressivity, emotional sensitivity, emotional control, social expressivity, social sensitivity, social control. (Riggio also describes a seventh skill, social manipulation.) Then ask the class to identify, in secret ballot, one class member who they feel has the most of each of the six skills. Depending on the class’s norms, share the results of the balloting with the class.
Instructions. Are you socially skilled? Even though “people skills” are complex and varied, consider your own skills in each of the areas listed below. Rate yourself on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates “not a strength” and 5 “great strength.” [Source: Riggio, R. E. (1986). Assessment of basic social skills. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51, 649-660.]

1. Emotional Expressivity: Are you effective in communicating with other people nonverbally? Can you express, spontaneously, your emotions, attitudes, and opinions?
2. Emotional Sensitivity: Are you effective in reading other people’s nonverbal communications? Can you tell what other people are feeling by noting their nonverbal cues?
3. Emotional Control: Can you regulate and control your emotional and nonverbal displays? Can you mask your actual feelings and control others’ impressions of your reactions?
4. Social Expressivity: Are you a skilled conversationalist? Can communicate clearly to others and engage them in interaction?
5. Social Sensitivity: Are you able to understand other people’s communications and the norms that govern social situations? Are you attentive to what others are saying and doing?
6. Social Control: Are you skilled in controlling what others think of you? Are you tactful and socially adept?

16-4. Groups and Change: For a capstone activity, have students review the class-as-a-group.

Instructions. For the past few months you have been a member of a group: This class. Although as an active member in the group you may have become so caught up in its dynamics that you failed to notice the operation of many of the group processes noted in the text, take a moment now to examine this class as a group.

As noted in the text, a number of theorists argue that groups move through basic stages of development. Tuckman, for example, identifies five: orientation (forming), conflict (storming), the development of cohesion and structure (norming), a work stage (performing), and a dissolution period (adjourning). Other theorists, notably Bales, suggest that group development is characterized more by themes that can be repeated over time. Bales argues that groups must (a) get work done and (b) maintain themselves, so these to themes wax and wane in the group across its life span. At any one time work may dominate, but at a later time interpersonal needs may become more important.

Change also operates at the individual-to-group level. As Moreland and Levine explain, one’s relationship to the group changes over time as does the group’s relationship to the individual. Over the course of the semester, for example, the class’s opinion of you (or your instructor) may change, and your opinion of the group may change as well.
1. Begin by describing the group in detail as it existed on the first day of class. If you were a group dynamicist observing this group from the outside, how would you describe the group? Give examples and anecdotal evidence when appropriate.
2. Describe the changes that took place in the group over time. Make note of the extent to which the group experienced (a) an orientation stage, (b) conflict, (c) increased cohesion and changes in structure, and (d) a period of high performance. Which of the two theories discussed in the book—Tuckman’s stage model or Bale’s equilibrium model—best describes your group?

3. Discuss group socialization processes, focusing on you. Has your evaluation, commitment, and role in the group changed over time. Has the group changed in its evaluation and commitment to you?

4. To what extent did this class manifest some or all of the “therapeutic factors” commonly seen in therapeutic groups? Refer to Table 16-3 for a list of such factors.
The science of group dynamics is based on one core assumption: People act collectively. Much of this collective action occurs in relatively small groups, but people sometimes join much larger collectives, including crowds, mobs, audiences, fads, crazes, demonstrations, strikes, and social movements. The chapter examines these larger groups, first describing such groups and then reviewing classic and contemporary accounts of their dynamics.

Learning Objectives

17.1. Summarize the events resulted in social change in Egypt in the spring of 2011.
17.2. Compare and contrast collective behavior and group behavior.
17.3. Present and defend a taxonomy of collectives.
17.4. Describe the typical characteristics of a “gathering” (e.g., an audience in movie theater, a congregation in church).
17.5. Describe the processes that facilitate the formation of a street crowd.
17.6. Summarize McPhail’s crowd observation system.
17.7. Describe the key features of celebratory mobs, aggressive mobs, riots, and panics.
17.8. Describe one example of a crowding incident that resulted in loss of life, and describe interventions that can be taken to eliminate such catastrophic accidents.
17.9. Identify the psychological functions of rumors.
17.10. List historical cases of mass hysteria and psychogenic illness and suggest ways that such incidents can be prevented.
17.11. Present and defend a descriptive model of types of social movements.
17.12. Describe the basic assumptions of the following theoretical explanations of collective behavior: Le Bon’s theory of contagion, convergence theory, emergent norm theory, deindividuation theory, and social identity theory.
17.13. Compare Le Bon’s contagion theory of crowds to a social diffusion approach to the same phenomenon.
17.14. Use the concept of relative deprivation to explain why people join social movements.
17.15. Describe the impact of the following situational factors on deindividuation: anonymity, responsibility, group membership, group size, and arousing experiences.
17.16. Summarize the methods used and results obtained in the following studies of deindividuation: Zimbardo’s (1969) study of women wearing hoods; Gergen, Gergen, and Barton’s (1973) light-dark room study; Diener et al’s (1976) Halloween trick-or-treat study; Diener’s (1980) study of self-awareness; Prentice-Dunn and Rogers’ (1982) study of aggression and deindividuation.
17.17. Compare Zimbardo’s theory of deindividuation to (a) social identity theory and (b) identity-affirmation theory.
17.18. Debunk the myth that crowds are “mad.”
Key Terms

audience  
baiting crowd  
collective  
collective movement  
contagion  
convergence theory  
crowd  
deindividuation  
egoistic deprivation  
emergent norm theory  
flash mob  
fraternal deprivation  
mob  
psychogenic illness  
queue  
relative deprivation  
riot  
smart mob  
social movement  
trend

Activities

17-1. Crowds. Have students describe the general characteristics of the crowd, with a focus on the aspects of crowds that are emphasized in various theoretical analysis of crowd behavior. You may also want them to observe a regulated crowd, such as a queue or an audience.

Assignment. Locate and observe a crowd for at least 15 minutes. Do not watch an organized crowd, but instead find one that has formed spontaneously in a public place: people in a mall, watching an unscheduled event (such as a street mime), or loitering in a park are all possibilities. If you have no luck finding a crowd, then study an audience instead (so long as it is not a classroom audience).

1. Describe the general characteristics of the crowd. Give an estimate of its size, dimensions, movement, and life span, and indicate if subgroups exist within the overall crowd.

2. Search for evidence of structure within the crowd. Try to identify individuals at the center of the crowd or the general focus of attention of the crowd as a unit.

3. What are the members of the crowding doing? Are they walking, sitting, speaking, applauding, and so on? Estimate the proportion of crowd members who are acting similarly.

4. Explain the dynamics of the crowd by considering these basic questions:
   a. Are the individuals in the crowd acting in unusual or unexpected ways?
   b. What is the emotional climate of the crowd?
   c. In what ways are the members of the crowd similar to each?
   d. Are the members of the group conforming to norms that traditionally apply in this setting, or are they acting counternormatively?
   e. Does the crowd oppose some other group or organization?

5. Which theory of crowds offers the most insight into the crowd you observed? Why?

17-2. Collective Behavior. Most students have been members of a large crowd at some point during the semester. They may have attended a large football game, or large church service, or even take part in a political rally. Ask students to review these crowds to determine if they experienced any of the outcomes identified in deindividuation theory.
**Assignment.** Recall a time, within the last 6 months, when you were part of a large crowd or collective. Have you, for example, recently attended a sporting event, a concert, or a demonstration? A large gathering of a religious group or a street festival? Watched a parade or attended a political rally? (If you haven’t been part of large collective recently, then interview someone who has.)

1. How large was the group, and what were the circumstances that led to your belonging to the group?
2. What kinds of actions did the group members perform? What did you do in the group?
3. How did you feel during the group experience: happy, sad, guilty, joyful, angry, upset, excited?
4. Did you feel self-conscious? Did you feel as though you were being singled out for observation, or did you feel as though were relatively unidentifiable?
5. Are memories of the event clear? Are you unable to remember with certainty what happened at some points during the event?
6. Did you act in ways that are consistent or inconsistent with how you normally act?

**17-3. Field Studies of Crowds and Queues.** With careful supervision, arrange for students to carry out field studies or observations of large groups or crowds. So long as the site is reviewed carefully so that there is no possibility of injury to anyone, have students replicate Milgram’s famous study of street crowds described in detail on p. 578 of the text. Alternatively, have students observe large groups on campus; the movement of groups into sports events are particularly interesting sources of data, as are the tour groups that populate most campus. As with any field project, urge caution and supervise closely.

**17-4. Flash Mob.** Students may be interested in experiencing a flash mob, but such projects require careful supervision and, in some cases, approval by a local Institutional Review Board. But, after review of the site (with a focus on safety), plan for students to meet at a given location and carry out a mundane social activity. One setting and activity that is usually not problematic: a public area near a U.S. flag, at noon, where the group can sing the National Anthem or America the Beautiful. However, each member of the class should also contact at least five non-class members and ask them to meet him or her at the site and join in the activity. It is crucial that, when finished, the group disbands immediately without conversing.