This annotated bibliography contains more than 500 citations from sources in various subject areas that relate to small group communication. The sources, all published between 1950 and 1969, include discussion textbooks, expository articles, theoretical writings, experimental studies, and works on the teaching of discussion. The bibliography is divided into six cross-indexed categories. The categories are: general works and texts; leadership qualities and training; variables related to group processes; variables related to tasks and problems; teaching of small group discussion; and miscellaneous topics--applied discussion, public discussion, research methodology, and measurement. (RN)
A BIBLIOGRAPHY IN SMALL GROUP COMMUNICATION

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INTRODUCTION

While there is a great deal yet to be done in communications research, writings in this area are numerous. Literally hundreds of books and articles concerned with small group communication have been published. The only disadvantage of such diverse and expanding research and writing is the difficulty of synthesizing it. The writings in this area are located in many periodicals and books from different fields. It is the purpose of this bibliography to collate some of these works in a single list. It should serve students desiring a reading list in small group communication, teachers of discussion, and researchers who need a handy summary of some previous work in the field.

It would have been a huge task indeed to include every possible source on small group communication, and this work does not claim to have accomplished this level of comprehensiveness. There have necessarily been several limitations to the bibliography. (1) The works included are all published and date between 1950 and the present. (2) Only American works have been listed and (3) only works which deal entirely with the topic at hand. For example, several anthologies were excluded because small group communication is only one of several topics in their content. (4) I have additionally excluded studies on communication in dyads. To have included such literature would have opened up the entirely new areas of interviewing and general interpersonal communication. (5) Individual case studies have been excluded as well as sources dealing with the discussion method of teaching. (6) Finally, I have excluded sources dealing with communication as group therapy.

Generally, all sources are included which deal primarily with the communication within discussion groups. The range of applicable literature is wide. Included are numerous discussion textbooks, expository articles, theoretical writings, experimental studies, and sources dealing with the teaching of discussion. Every source has been annotated to help the reader determine the nature of the work. The table of contents should provide an adequate summary of the classification system used. Many sources are cross indexed and appear in more than one place. Such cross indexing is indicated by a second reference number in parentheses preceding the entry. Where two numbers appear before an entry, the reader should consult the number in the parentheses for the annotation.

Most of the sources, particularly the experimental studies, are in the field of social psychology. Social psychologists have examined many different variables related to the individual in the group, the group itself, and the interaction within the group. Additionally, the field of speech has contributed to our understanding, particularly in the area of discussion training. Most of the textbooks in discussion and articles dealing with the teaching of discussion are from the field of speech.
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CHAPTER I

General Works

I. General Sources on Small Group Communication

   This article attempts to explain the origins and scope of action research (in sociology) or group dynamics (in psychology). Some topics considered include the meaning of action research, some workers in the area, the amorality of science, research values, groups in which social action research is done, and some problems of measurement.

   This pamphlet (60 pages) describes a typical meeting and includes an analysis of the communication in the group. From the analysis and a further survey of group relations, several rules for group action emerge.

   The author hopes to present some principles for the improvement of groups. The book is divided into three sections: an in-depth analysis of a single case, the establishment of a model for groups, and an analysis of the individual as a functioning member of groups.

   There are five parts in this textbook. The first is a short history of the group dynamics movement. Second, the factors behind group behavior are reviewed; both individual and group properties are discussed. Third, the book describes conflict and adjustment. Such topics as problem-solving and leadership are considered here. Individual behavior is stressed in Part IV, and Part V reveals a critical analysis of the works in group dynamics.

   There is a great need for systematic research in group behavior. Some areas for research include the identification of general dimensions of interaction and their syntality and personality dimensions, the study of theoretical variables, study of social perception, and research in social behavior change.
   While relatively short (100 pages), this anthology includes 12 articles on several important topics dealing with group communication. Some topics include variables of the individual in the group, roles, stereotypes, feedback, and decision-making.

   The author makes clear in his preface that this is not a "how-to-do-it" text. Rather it is written to describe the psychological processes involved in group communication. The book is written for leaders, and three topics are stressed: learning, leadership, and the process of communication.

   This article traces the development of Lewin's Research Center for Group Dynamics and the beginnings of the study of group dynamics. The author cites these developments as evidence for the need to study "group life."

   The author reviews criteria for judging discussion for use in research. Some considerations include information presented and interpreted, analysis, problem evaluation, democracy in the group. Some possible research variables are also suggested: discussion formats, types of participants, and methods of leadership.

    The author's aim is to designate the degree of convergence in small group work leading to conceptual synthesis. This small volume describes various kinds of small groups, experimental and natural. It discusses approaches to research, internal structures of groups, and several other related variables.

    This is a group of articles written as a result of the five-year Conference of the Advisory Board of the Human Relations and Morale Branch of the Office of Naval Research. The articles for the most part report studies in human relations. Several of the studies are relevant to small group leadership and communication. Some contributors include Raymond Cattell, Leon Festinger, Harold Guetzkow, Robert Kahn, Margaret Mead, S. E. Asch, and others.
   Gunderson briefly reviews the beginnings of group dynamics as well as certain later developments. The lack of specificity and definition are challenged along with the failure to control and limit the investigations in the field.

   A background on the origins and scope of group dynamics is presented. Additionally, some criticism of the theory and research in the area are covered as well as some of the answers provided by group dynamicists.

   This book reports many group dynamics principles. Hypotheses and conclusions based on these principles are discussed. The author states that leadership teams may use this book for answers to group dynamic questions.

   The author claims that because of rapid growth in the field of group dynamics, several research problems have developed. He defines the concerns of the field. He believes that the researcher must make use of actual community study to improve research, although the author recognizes the technical problems involved.

   This is an answer to the article by Gunderson (See #12 above). Kelman is more favorable than his colleague and accuses Gunderson of failing to distinguish group dynamics as a research area from that as an applied approach. Group dynamics is a difficult, yet socially significant area and should be encouraged.

   While the intention of group dynamicists is consensus in groups, this goal forces groups to follow an authoritarian procedure. A better alternative is majority rule.

   The author wishes to avoid a "cookbook" approach to small group communication. He organizes his book into eight chapters including general issues in small group study, the description of some actual group situations, and some self evaluative suggestions.

This is a revision of the author's 1961 text. The author reviews some typical problems in group communication and some solutions. Chapter 4 is an analysis of an actual group communication case. The author particularly stresses small group communication in the educational setting. The reader might find this a good Capsule of problems and procedures of groups.


The author lists several areas of group dynamics already under study, and some criticism of methodology is presented. Two studies are summarized, and it is concluded that one can investigate group properties and processes. The author calls for more research in the future.


This 180 page work defines the religious community in terms of groups, it defines group and leadership processes, and the role of the individual in the religious group.


This is the lead paper in a group of 14 papers on small group research. It discusses the importance of the area. The author believes that small group research is no longer a fringe activity in the behavioral sciences.


This textbook on interpersonal behavior focuses on several topics pertinent to small group communication: group development and processes, role performance, and leadership.
II. RESEARCH SUMMARIES AND ANTHOLOGIES

   This is a lengthy volume of 42 readings by well-known authors including Asch, Festinger, Deutsch, Katz, Bales, Bavelas, and others. Topics include group cohesiveness, group pressure, individual vs. group goals, leadership, and group structure. Each section is preceded by relatively lengthy introductions.

   This book was written as a reference source. The author believes that it represents the step between bibliography and unified theory. The book summarizes findings in group process and structure, variables affecting interaction, and performance characteristics. There is a supplement on research methods. The book references some 1400 sources.

   This effort is divided into four parts: history and theoretical background, studies dealing with psychological factors in the social process, studies dealing with the sociological factors in the social process, and a guide to research literature. The final section is an annotated bibliography of about 580 titles.

   This is the revised edition of the editors' 1955 work. It is an anthology of readings on the following subjects: early theory, early research, current theory, social perception, behavior consistency, group influence, networks, group equilibrium, group size, group composition and subgroups, role differentiation, and leadership. Many outstanding contributors are included.

   This article surveys nearly thirty studies in the areas of participation, structure, information, feedback, and language. The author poses ten research questions dealing with training, decision-making, group conformity, personality, patterns for discussion, and others.

   This lengthy volume lists nearly 3,000 research reports in small group processes. Findings are summarized and referenced. Several sample annotations of about 250 sources representing every seventh source listed are included.
   This small book presents general information on the small group in several areas. Not everything in the book is pertinent to communication, but several relevant sections are included: group influence, problem-solving, group process, group dynamics, interaction process analysis.

   This article summarizes the experimental work in small groups. 170 sources are cited and discussed under the classification of group and individual behavior, variables of the social structure, cultural variables, situational variables, and personality variables.

   This is a short treatment of some general aspects of small group study. Some basic small group theories are summarized (Homans, Thibaut and Kelley, Festinger, Kelman, Blau, and the emotionality theories). Some research findings are reported.

   The author reviews the major research influences in the study of small groups. He reviews previous attempts to pull together psychological and sociological findings on small groups and calls for more of the same.
III. DISCUSSION TEXTS FOR STUDENTS


The authors state that they are presenting a step-by-step procedure for the planning and conducting of public discussions. The nature of discussion and the group are discussed in addition to discussion planning, leading, and evaluating.


Bales puts research findings into practice by recommending certain "rules of thumb" for group discussions. Ten recommendations for better conferences emerge.


This is a general college text in discussion. It is divided into five parts: (1) the setting in which discussion takes place, (2) group action on problems, (3) interpersonal relations, (4) leadership, (5) the uses of discussion. Some participation rating scales are presented. Some role playing exercises and cases are included in the appendix.


This text is written for persons interested in performing more efficiently in groups. The authors' goal is to increase understanding of concepts from sociology and social psychology. The book describes the nature of interaction, techniques and types of discussion, and techniques of group evaluation.


The author hopes to provide principles on the basis of research and experience for conferences. The book is short (60 pages).


The authors state their hope of integrating traditional principles with more recent findings. They wish the student to understand such concepts as interpersonal relations, role playing, sociometric procedures, feedback, permissiveness, and hidden agendas.


This is a fundamentals text. The first two sections include matters of research, analysis, and persuasion applicable to both discussion and debate. Section III deals specifically with discussion (outlining, problems, leadership, participation, and types).
   This is a standard text stressing the nature of discussion, methods, and types. Some rating scales are presented in Chapter 11.

   This book, designed for first courses in discussion, has two purposes: to analyze the process of discussion and to provide principles for improving it.

   This little book relates some practical suggestions on social conversations. Barriers to communication, leading discussion, and conversation topics are some subjects considered.

   This is a brief text stressing group membership and participation, group behavior, problem-solving, and leadership. The language is perhaps simpler than other texts.

   The author wishes to make a clear statement of discussion requirements along with examples. A third objective is to provide some useful materials for discussion.

   This book presents basic theory of small group discussion for the student. Some topics include kinds of discussion situations, communication and interaction, discussion attitudes, leadership, and others. A twenty-page chapter is included in evaluating discussion, and several kinds of rating devices are included.

   This book was written for both high school and college students for classroom use or extracurricular speech activities.

   The authors state their desire to take stands on controversial points concerning discussion theory. References are footnoted, and bibliographies are included.

   This is a standard text on discussion. It stresses particularly reasoning as part of critical thinking.
   This is a basic text including sections on problem-solving, preparation, participation, leadership, and a few other minor areas.

   This book was written for persons who are involved in community conferences. The author states that it is not a scientific work, but is designed merely to give some principles.

   This is a standard undergraduate textbook for courses in discussion. Topics considered include the problem-solving process, meeting management, and types of discussion. Sample discussions appear in the appendix as well as a twenty-page bibliography.

   This book was written to aid in the improving of group work in schools. After an initial chapter on the small group process, the book covers major areas in training procedures for small groups. Some techniques for member rating are included.

   This book, written for managers, gives practical principles for meeting leadership. After general considerations are discussed, some techniques for planning and conducting meetings are proposed. Special problems are covered as well as types of conferences.

   This is a workbook designed for the classroom—a supplement to a discussion text or to be used alone. In addition to standard text material, numerous exercises and worksheets are included. Several rating sheets are presented throughout the book.

   Basic considerations on problem-solving, leadership, participation, and speech and language are included. The authors make extensive use of footnotes. Case problems are included.

   This is a short book providing guidelines for planning and leading round table discussions, business meetings, service club meetings, panel discussions, symposiums and forums, conferences, and workshops.

This fifty-page manual is designed for newly-designated leaders of adult groups. Most of the book deals with preparation for discussion.


This book is to provide detailed advice rather than theoretical considerations. The book deals with one form of small group communication— the informal discussion.


This 40-page paperback is a quick summary of some points on discussion and organizational procedures. It stresses parliamentary procedure. There are sections on informal discussion and public discussion.


This handbook is written for relatively inexperienced students. The emphasis is practical rather than theoretical. The book includes several standard considerations such as speech and language. There are a few cases for analysis and other appended supplementary material.


This general text provides guidelines for various kinds of conferences—public and private. Planning, leadership, and participation are stressed. A brief discussion of parliamentary procedure is presented in the appendix along with sample agenda and topics for discussion. Some role playing exercises are included.
CHAPTER II
LEADERSHIP

II. GENERAL WORKS

This article provides a summary of pertinent concepts relative to discussion membership and leadership. Group behavior is analyzed, the nature and function of leadership is discussed, and some facts relative to group membership are presented.

The author criticizes the procedure used in most practical discussions. He claims that they are often directionless and loose. He believes that the leader has a professional function of guiding the group, not making decisions for the individual members. The leader should be particularly responsible for assimilating differences in the group. Additionally, the author states that group consensus need not be the goal in democratic discussion.

The discussion leader is in a unique position. He must be an arbitrator as well as expressing his own views—he is both a member and a leader. Can the leader accept himself as a group member? Can he learn to trust the group? Can the group itself assume some leadership responsibility?

This pamphlet is an anthology of fourteen articles on leadership. Several authors are well-known, and many have done original research in the area. The topics considered are diverse: research, group behavior, hierarchical leadership, democratic leadership, and others.

This article considers the various meanings of leadership. Three concepts of leadership are discussed: the idealist concept, the positivist concept, and the experimentalist concept.

This is a study of leadership influence. The author states that the significance of the work is not in the findings, but in the theoretical assumptions and the methodology. Some potentially useful research designs are presented.
LEADERSHIP (Continued)

II. RESEARCH SUMMARIES AND ANTHOLOGIES


This monograph summarizes a six year research project involving some 40 studies under the office of Naval research. Some important findings include the following: (1) For a group to be successful (effective), the leader must be acceptable to the group. (2) For a group to be effective, the leader must maintain some psychological distance from the group.


This is a 700-page anthology of readings in the area of leadership. Not all of the material is related to small group leadership. Types and qualities of leaders are considered, also leadership in various social and racial settings as well as ethics and techniques. There are 34 contributors.


The central theme of this work is that leadership is one of the influence processes leading to conformity, attitude change, interpersonal attraction, and other factors. In the second part, four research studies are presented. Part Three stresses a peer-nomination technique, and the last section summarizes some theoretical and experimental work.


This book was written for those who actually practice group leadership training. It is aimed for development programs in business, social, and educational settings. The book deals with organizational leadership in general, but much of its content seems to relate to small group communication as well. Variables such as empathy, competence, guiding ability, and group factors are considered.
III. QUALITIES OF EMERGENT LEADERSHIP

   The results of the experiment support the hypothesis that leadership is dependent upon changes in group tasks and membership.

   This factor analytic study revealed the following: (1) a general factor consisting of the tendency for raters to be effected in high and low ratings by the halo effect; (2) four group factors consisting of the ways in which group members contribute to group discussion: ideas and information, friendly atmosphere, labor and effort, policy and decisions.

   The results of this study suggest that a member is more apt to attempt leadership when his control is high and the group's motivation is high. This relationship varies also depending upon problem difficulty.

   In this study, leaders rated high in confidence, willingness to accept responsibility, drive, persuasiveness, and sensitivity to member's feelings about leaders.

   This study found that leadership status is fairly stable, despite situational changes.

   Two major hypotheses emerged from the results of this study: (1) The general expectation among groups is that the designated chairman should be the major group leader. (2) If a group is dealing with urgent problems, there would not be a generally negative reaction to leadership sharing.

   The purpose of this study was to determine the personality traits of leaders revealed by three methods. There was a relatively high, significant correlation among the methods on the following traits: extroversion, intelligence, assertiveness, social maturity, and energy.

   In this study leaders were chosen, using the great man theory, in first sessions of small group discussions. The stability with which leaders maintained that position in other groups is high. The authors believe this is evidence to support the choosing of leaders in a single discussion session.

   The results of this study of 72 business and government organizations were that (1) leaders emerged where designated chairmen performed few leadership tasks, (2) leaders emerged in groups with cliques and low motivation, (3) in the larger groups, emergent leaders were expert and of high rank, (4) emergent leaders seemed highly motivated, and (5) other members rated the emergent leader high in being needed.

   This abstract reports a study dealing with the relationship between length of a person's comments and his leadership rating. Results are not presented in the abstract, although the author states that previous studies have found high correlations between these variables.

   The results suggest that while subjects agreed as to who is leader in a group, there were no evident identifying physical characteristics of leaders.

   This experimental study aimed at determining some differences between leaders and nonleaders in LDG. It was found that those who emerged as leaders held more favorable attitudes toward themselves and others than did nonleaders. Leaders also displayed more flexibility in their regard for subject matter, their attitudes, and beliefs.

Some of the factors of emergent leadership in small groups are desire, adaptability, being informed, and participation.


This study found generally that an individual group member is influenced less as the group approaches a decision. Also a member will be perceived as a leader more often as his position in the network becomes more central.


This paper reported a study of 13 small groups. It investigated the differences between formal designated leaders and informal emergent leaders in seven areas: productivity, volume of participation, usefulness of suggestions, extent of participation, degree of cooperation, assumption of responsibility, and contribution to group task.


Twenty groups of five subjects each were involved in this study. Each group performed a problem solving task and then rated members for leadership. The members were arranged so that two members sat opposite the other three members, and it was found that a greater number of leaders emerged from the two-seated side.


This study correlated various traits with success in the LDG measure. Significant correlations involved intelligence, police aptitude (Subjects were police candidates), confidence. The following traits failed to correlate significantly with LDG performance: emotional stability, sociability, personal relations, and analytical thinking.


Emergent leaders were generally rated as being strong participants, task-oriented, as attempting to specify the problem, suggesting courses of action, seeking out the members' contributions, integrating these and proposing solutions in the attempt to secure consensus.
LEADERSHIP (Continued)

IV. LEADERSHIP STYLES

   Groups in which leaders played a participatory role were generally superior in quantity of ideas, while groups with supervisory leaders were superior in quality of output.

   This paper summarizes 49 experimental studies dealing with authoritarian leadership. Two questions are asked: Is there enough evidence to support either authoritarian or democratic leadership? Is the authoritarian-democratic polarization an adequate conceptualization?

   This study found generally that emergent leaders were more authoritarian than appointed leaders. Otherwise, leaders and other group members do not seem to differ in the amount of work performed.

   The following major hypotheses were confirmed: (1) The individual approach will result in greater compliance than the group approach. (2) Compliance increases when the students perceive that others are changing their opinion in response to the teacher's persuasion.

   Group-centered leadership appeared to create a more permissive atmosphere, greater member satisfaction with the leader, and greater member satisfaction with group solutions.

   This experimental study revealed that when subordinate ethos is high, leadership tends to be more democratic than when subordinate ethos is low.


This paper describes the author's theory of democratic discussion. In order to be purely democratic, it is claimed, the group must be leaderless, although not "leadershipless." This is an ideal rarely achieved and only with difficulty.


The author concludes that the highly authoritarian personality prefers leader-centered leadership, whereas the relatively nonauthoritarian individual prefers a group-centered approach.


After replicating a previous experiment (1949), the author concludes that participatory leadership was more effective than supervisory leadership in changing attitudes.


Under the conditions of this study, it was found that where leader direction is strong, members direct more comments to those sitting next to them than to those sitting opposite. But where leader direction is weak, more comments are directed across.


This was a questionnaire study in which it was found that as group size increases leader behavior changes. With larger groups the members are more tolerant of leader-centered direction than in smaller groups.


This is a discussion of the meaning of democracy in the small group and the factors supporting or opposing it. Three main categories are discussed: interpersonal factors, group processes, and personality. These three groups of factors are basically anti-democratic.


This study was designed to determine the relationship between learning and related variables to group leaders' methods of implementing discussion. In experimental groups where the leader followed a consistent plan, the following variables were found to be superior to those of the control group: number of topic-centered statements, amount of participation, amount of group unity, and amount of cohesion.

Leaders are generally more accepted and idealized among high authoritarian subjects in military-type organizations than among low authoritarians. Also the group itself in the military organization is more attractive to the high authoritarian than to the low.


It was found that low participators were more favorable toward directive leadership, but high participators seemed not to react differently to directive leadership than nondirective leadership.


The authors conclude that (1) group morale and performance are affected by authoritarian and nonauthoritarian leadership styles and (2) authoritarian leadership produces better performance but lower morale than does nonauthoritarian leadership style.


This is an experimental study in which it was found that as the leader takes on more responsibility in discussion, there is a greater shift in opinion by members and more consensus.


This study indicated that participants in discussion can distinguish between the two types of leaders. They seemed to have a more favorable attitude toward the style of leadership which they had most recently experienced. All groups felt the leader-centered leader made more valuable contributions to the discussion than did group-centered leaders. Group-centered leaders provided for more participant involvement.
LEADERSHIP (Continued)

V. TASK RELATED LEADERSHIP VARIABLES


This study dealt with 51 problem-solving groups. Relationships were found to exist between initial problem-solving accuracy and success in leadership and self esteem.


This study found a relationship between decision-making success and probability of being voted leader.


This study provides "limited support" for the principle that a discussion leader should announce his problem-solving pattern in advance. Members generally stated their preference for this preview technique.


Certain task variables were found to distinguish leaders from nonleaders in small groups: absence of obsessional tendencies, indecisiveness, overcautiousness, vacillation, etc.


This study was done with army tank crews, B-59 bomber crews, antiaircraft artillery crews, and creative discussion groups. It was found that the leader's intelligence predicts group performance in cohesive groups, but not uncohesive groups.


This article makes a case for the need for integration as a leadership function. The liabilities of group problem-solving are described, and improved trained leadership is promoted as the way in which to bypass these liabilities.

118. Maier, Norman R. F. "The Quality of Group Decisions as Influenced by the Discussion Leader," Human Relations, vol. 3 (1950), 155-174. This report summarizes two experiments. The conclusion of the studies indicate that a skilled leader with ideas can produce more quality decisions in a group than the less skilled leader.

119. Mortensen, Calvin D. "Should the Discussion Group have an Assigned Leader?" Speech Teacher, vol. 15 (1966), 34-41. Three implications emerge from this study: (1) The assigned leader may not be the group's perceived leader; (2) group productivity may be enhanced by assigning a leader when the group is transitory; (3) the assigned leader must also be the perceived leader in more permanent groups.

120. Utterback, William E. and Wallace C. Fotheringham, "Experimental Studies of Motivated Group Discussion," Speech Monographs, vol. 25 (November, 1958), 268-277. Four studies concerning the effects of style of moderation, size of the group, and length of discussion on group motivation are reported. It is concluded that (1) full moderation is most effective in facilitating group discussion after group size has passed a certain point; (2) group size is positively correlated with quality of group judgment, and (3) beyond a critical point in length discussion, group judgment no longer improves.
LEADERSHIP (Continued)

VI. LEADERSHIP TRAINING

   Groups were questioned and observed, and it was concluded that (1) procedures for selecting, evaluating, and training group leaders can be devised and (2) such training does improve leadership ability in decision-making groups.

   The authors believe that managers can be trained in human relations in a training laboratory. From the research in this area, they present principles of leadership. Such topics as the following are considered: effect of power, improving group decisions, intergroup conflict, and power styles.

   The following hypotheses were verified through experimentation: (1) Leadership status can be changed through brief training. (2) There are individual differences in tendency to profit from training. (3) Persons of initially higher leadership status will profit the most from training.


   This study indicates that by supplying problems rather than solutions, leaders who have undergone eight hours of leadership training can favorably influence discussion outcome.


   This study determined the effect of training 22 leaders (1½ hour session) on subsequent discussions. The authors conclude that such training contributed to high quality decisions.

   Five areas for training are suggested: (1) leadership, (2) self-awareness, (3) permissiveness in the discussion atmosphere, (4) mutual respect for ideas and opinions, (5) preparation of resource materials.
LEADERSHIP (Continued)

VII. LEADER-MEMBER RELATIONS


This study supports the need theory of leadership, that leaders empathize with the needs of group members. The authors state the need to continue research in this area.


Questionnaires were sent to seventeen foremen and their 330 subordinates. Self-esteem is seen as an important variable in the degree to which a supervisor supports a foreman's behavior toward his subordinates.


In this experimental study it was found that when group members expect a person to provide orientation, evaluation, and suggestion, and he fails to supply these, certain disruptive behaviors such as antagonism, tension, and absenteeism result. This effect varies among groups with different types of leadership.


The investigator found that functional leadership was directly related to popularity. Apparently, once popularity is aroused, it continues despite the absence of the factors originally producing it.


This experimental study reveals the following findings: A leader's permitting a minority member time to express opinions can upgrade the group's thinking.


This volume reports a study of member-leader relationships in groups. A measuring device, "The Member-to-leader Scoring System," is described as well as procedure and findings. The following determinants of the leader-member relationships emerge: individual differences, the nature of the situation, presentation of self, the leader, formation of cliques, molding of group history, confrontation, group adaptation, individual adaptation, and group termination.

It was found that leaders made significantly more positive emotional responses than nonjoiners in both conditions of group support and nonsupport. They made significantly fewer negative responses under the support condition and significantly more negative responses under nonsupport conditions.


Both the treatment of the leaders by others as well as his treatment of others were found to relate to the development of group atmosphere.


This study correlated group success in decision accuracy with leadership change. It was found that groups which maintained the same leader were more effective than those whose leadership was not consistent.


Leadership consists of unique relationships with members, and the analysis of leadership in small groups should be centered around these relationships. Leader and follower are two basic role relationships.


Situational factors in leadership are emphasized in this experimental study. Leadership is seen more as a function of power than acceptance.
LEADERSHIP (Continued)

VIII. TEXTS FOR THE STUDENT AND PRACTITIONER


This article is based on the premise that leadership can be learned. Leader's attitudes about group thinking, the leader's preparation, the first meeting, emotional climate, facilitating communication, resources, and membership are discussed.


This article develops methods for getting group agreement. An actual case is presented.

The authors' intent is to provide some principles for leadership in nontechnical language. The book includes a good deal of illustrative materials. Topics include types and purposes of groups, leader preparation, group and leadership goals, program building, group membership, and meeting management.


IX. LEADERSHIP MEASUREMENT

   This study traces the brief history of LGD and summarizes findings concerning validity and reliability, uses, and other implications.

   This review covers some aspects of LGD: history, applicability, method of administration, and reliability and validity of the measure.

   This study attempted to find correlations between LGD and other personality measures: Rorschach, interviews, Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, and the F scale.

   The purpose of this article is to compare the methods of observed LGD and candidate interviews in assessment of leadership ability. The author concludes that the reliabilities of the methods are about equal.

   This study was designed to test the relationship between leadership ratings and several other variables--time in seconds a member talked, average rank of subject in amount of time he talked, subject's self rank on the amount of time spent talking, number of times subject was chosen as the most likely candidate for a leadership position, number of times subject was chosen for leadership potential on the basis of paired comparison, and others.

   This study tested the effects of the rectangular and inverted V seating arrangement on emergent leadership in LGD. With only a couple exceptions, seating position seemed to have little effect on emergent leadership.

   Groups of 2, 4, 6, 8, and 12 were studied. As groups became larger, individual mean leadership assessment declined.


   This study is designed to determine the observers' ability to recognize actual community leaders on the basis of LGD—30 minutes. The correlation was found to be high.


   This abstract states that leaderless group discussion provides a reliable method for assessing certain personality variables. Observers' ratings of LGD participants prove both reliable and valid. Several interesting relationships among personality variables were found.


   This study of LGD as a measure of leadership ability found that the various effects of different problems had little effect on participants' leadership ratings.


   This study attempts to determine the validity of the LGD technique for predicting future leadership status when it is used among strangers. It is concluded that the validity in this respect is as high as when LGD is used among friends.


   Some methods for increasing the validity of LGD as a measure of leadership ability are suggested on the basis of the analysis of eight variables evident in LGD results.


   Some general problems of leadership measurement are discussed and some areas of investigation suggested. Three broad kinds of evaluative devices are discussed: descriptive-analytic, quantitative, and projective.

This study tested a projective technique for measuring leadership attitudes. The measure failed on two counts: poor internal consistency and low correlation with other leadership attitude measures, although the authors considered the test as a plausible measure on a priori grounds.


Four methods of leadership selection are discussed and examined: (1) frequency of brief acts of leadership, (2) observed influence, (3) sociometric data, (4) elected leadership.


The authors queried the effect of the volunteer variable on the outcome of leaderless group discussion. They found that subjects who volunteer as opposed to those who do not volunteer constitute an irrelevant variable.


Using a sociometric technique, the authors examined ten groups experimentally. It was found that group members understood leadership and could identify actual group leaders very well.


The author pointed out that LGD is a simple mass selection technique for leadership assessment. A correlation was found between LGD status and later leadership performance.


This article concludes that (1) ratings made during LGD seem to reflect the same attribute—a "general pervasive global characteristic"—regardless of what they are supposed to measure, and (2) the index of observer agreement is a poor criterion of rating adequacy.

The authors recommend the LGD approach to leadership measurement on the basis of their own study as well as additional evidence. It represents an economical approach.


This is a 73-page booklet in which appears a survey of the literature dealing with measuring and predicting leadership.


This study casts some doubt on the validity of LGD as a technique for identifying leaders. The ratings seemed to be made on the basis of what is not done by subjects, and a halo effect may exist in some ratings.


This short note reports a reliability check for LGD, in which it was found that for the method used, reliability was quite low.
CHAPTER III

VARIABLES RELATED TO GROUPS

I. GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS CONSIDERATIONS


This paper presents a descriptive model of the discussion process. The components considered include purpose, thought pattern, content, the group, leadership, and communication. In addition, such topics as socio-psychological processes and conditions for goal achievement are discussed.


Some rhetorical elements of group discussion were examined in order to find sources of disruption. Some factors found to be involved in communication breakdown are descent in verbal abstraction without an ascent following, lack of sufficient vocabulary to discuss some ideas, and failure to state one's values which may not be shared by the listeners.


Three major factor-analytic studies of group dimensions are reviewed. Overlaps in findings are pointed out, and while some similarity in factors appear among the studies, the factor labels were found to vary greatly.


The author discusses the concept which he calls "promotively interdependent thinking," the faculty of thinking as a group. Qualities of this group behavior include spontaneous participation, humility, emphasis on reality, critical statements, and creative imagination.


This is the initial report of a massive investigation of leadership, group structure, and group syntality (group traits). The study was under the assistance of the Office of Naval Research and began in 1948.


The author discusses some requisites of good discussion. He stresses the steps of reflective thinking, problem understanding, leadership, and participation.

This is a review of current ideas on interpersonal trust in communication. Topics include trust and cooperation, trust and conformity, factors producing trust, and the influence of interpersonal trust on interaction. Fifty-four studies are cited in the article.


The subjects for this experimental study were Middle Eastern University students whose first language was not English. The results seem consistent with studies among American subjects and imply that creativity may be facilitated by brainstorming in cultures other than American.


The purpose of this brief text is to investigate the "life cycle" of groups from formation to termination. For this purpose group process data was collected through the technique of "Sign Process Analysis" of interaction. The study was made with a group of students from Harvard and Radcliffe meeting over an eight-month period.


The authors call for more experimental research to develop principles of group discussion participation. They stress the role of listening in discussion and the factors of listening involved in group size, physical placement, unexpected responses, speaker status, hostility, support, and deviation. Further factors of communicant behavior are discussed.


This study indicates that there was some superiority of groups to individuals in amount of recall, number of contributions required in producing a product, and recall time needed.


This study isolates trends in the development of eleven groups. Trends were found in the categories of socio-emotional relations and task handling. Over eight sessions, groups increasingly accepted group behavior norms.


This philosophy of discussion stresses reflective thinking as a tool in "rising above mere gossip." The author believes that discussion may be stimulated by either a question or proposition. Participants must be firm enough to state opinions, but flexible enough to change them. They must be idea centered, not method centered.
GROUP VARIABLES (Continued)

II. MEMBERSHIP QUALITIES AND TRAITS


   This study tests the effects of member motivation on "objective" tests of individual accuracy, agreement with others, stability, and leadership. Eleven measures in all were considered. Reliability was found to be highest at various levels of motivation over the measures used. However, reliability was never found to be highest when motivation was high.


   This experimental study revealed basically that group members who are interdependent are more highly motivated toward the task than independent subjects. This is true even when they are told that only their partners will have access to the valued goal.


   This article reports three experimental studies. The following hypotheses were investigated: (1) Where subjects have high levels of intelligence, a permissive social climate is superior to traditional climate in group problem solving. (2) Permissive conditions handicap subjects with only average intelligence.
Each subject received ratings from other group members in addition to rating himself. It was found that a person's self-descriptions correlated positively with actual performance. This was particularly true in leadership, contribution to group decision, desire to perform well, and maintaining group discipline.

Correlations were found between member satisfaction and peer ratings and member value structures. Oddly, the investigators found negative correlations.

The investigators devised a rating technique for motivation. This tool was used in demonstrating that self-oriented needs can be measured in discussions.

This short article describes the problem of insincerity in discussions. The problem can be illustrated to the student by the Rorschach test.

In this experimental study, it was found that more accurate solutions and more enjoyable discussion resulted when all members were of equal motivation. This was true where there was no leader in the group. Where there was a leader and motivation was unequal, quality of decision and enjoyment were less.

The author concludes that there is a good relationship between verbal intelligence and effective group participation. He suggests that verbal intelligence tests can be used in balancing learning groups on the basis of ability to participate.

The authors conclude from their study that leaders and other popular group members achieve more accurate perception of the preferences of individual group members. These persons are considered to be more effective in the group. Their knowledge of others permits greater achievement.

Findings of this experimental study include the following:
(1) Low authoritarian groups were more democratic than high authoritarian groups. (2) Low authoritarian groups were more effective in handling problems. (3) Emergent leaders in the low authoritarian groups were more sensitive to others than those in high authoritarian groups.


This article summarizes research findings. The following discussant characteristics are considered: general ability, specific ability, adjustment, extraversion, dominance, and authoritarianism. The author concludes that the first three areas seem to be related to group effectiveness.


This is an abstract of an APA paper designed to investigate some bases for agreement and disagreement in discussion. One's degree of agreement with acts in the group is related to his attitude of the person who is the source of the act.


This study concludes that a group with a mixture of highly socialized and less socialized members will interact more than groups of all high or low socialization. Also the liking of group members for each other and for group performance as a whole decreases as the number of highly socialized subjects increases.

This study tends to refute findings of Carter (1954) and Bales (1956) that activity, task ability, and likeability are the three major factors accounting for much of the variance in small group performance.


In this study groups rated high, medium, and low in ethnocentrism watched a film which attempted to liberalize attitudes toward minority groups. Those who were more favorable toward communication content possessed greater degree of activity and spontaneity than did subjects who were less favorably disposed toward the communication.


This article reports a field study in which twenty-eight groups were observed and tested. A strong positive relationship was found between the scores on the Johnson Test of Reflective Thinking and judged value of contribution to the discussion.


This study found that subjects' personal involvement in the group and their sociometric status were related to the maintenance or severance of their group membership.


The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between personality needs and performance in the small group. No relationships were discovered.
Both high and low creative subjects were found to respond positively to brainstorming instructions.

The major findings of this study were (1) that members with higher achievement desires are more fluent in speech and (2) that highly defensive subjects are less fluent.

This study was designed to determine the extent dogmatic and non-dogmatic characteristics will be revealed in the group situation.

This is an expository article dealing with emotional security in groups. The author discusses some correlates of hostility, handling hostility, correlates of attraction, and self evaluation in groups.

It was found that members' desire for group achievement is stronger in strong groups; in weak groups the success motive is less prominent.
III. GROUP STRUCTURE AND NETWORKS


It was found in this experimental study that group-centered structure provides for more affect than leader-centered structure. This may be the result of a higher-level of interaction in group-centered structure.


The conclusion of this experimental study is that individual perceptions can be altered more readily in group-centered structures than in the leader-centered structure.


This is a short expository article in which the author maintains that the most serious barriers to group functioning are orientations toward leadership and intimacy. Differences between the functioning of mature and immature groups are discussed.


The probability of high member acceptance (equalitarian structure) was found to be high among potential newly formed groups. The high probability that this condition will decrease was also discussed.


This paper summarizes about 40 studies on communication networks (structure) in small groups. Bavelas' initial work is discussed along with further variations made on that design.


This was an attempt to answer the following questions. How can interaction and structure be measured? How is structure related to performance?


In this study, five communication nets were applied to 3-man problem solving situations. It was shown that the nets had a direct influence on the performance of the groups. The performance of the small group was found to relate to channels of communication, task, and group stress.


This paper discusses some research problems in group integration in the areas of culture, norms, communication, and function. The problems presented for research include the relationship among variables with the sample type of integration and the relationship between different types.


This study uses the standard experimental patterns developed by Bavelas (circle, chain, Y, and wheel) as structure for determining the relationship between communication patterns and group behavior. The differences among results nearly always went in the order circle, chain, Y, wheel, where the circle was more active, less organized, and more enjoyable and the wheel less active, more stable, and less satisfying.


The conclusion of this study is that perceived environment affects group structure. If a group perceives its environment as friendly or bland, it will develop a pyramidal structure under a single leader. With a threatening environment, the structure is wheel-like, and the leader is an emotional-social leader.


The authors found the following to be true in their experimental groups: Performance seemed faster, more efficient, and of higher quality when the decision-making was centralized. Further, performance was poorer in groups with centralized communication structure when the decision-making function was not also centralized.


Two groups were used, one under the wheel structure, the other under the comcom structure. Communication requirements were varied for both groups. It was found that there is a rectilinear relationship between requirements and problem solving time.


The author concludes from his experimental study that group morale was affected by structure, that high power persons enjoyed that status less in disconnected structure than in connected structure, that low power individuals communicated mostly to high power persons, and that fewer total messages were sent by lower power persons.
VARIABLES RELATED TO GROUPS (Continued)

IV. GROUP INFLUENCE AND CONFORMITY


This is a lengthy monograph describing nine experiments on the effects of the group opinion on a single dissenter. It was found that while the group consensus had considerable effect on the deviate, individuals differed greatly in their resistance to the majority. Some important variables included the public character of the commitment, amount of error in majority position, conviction of subjects, and others.


When subjects were asked to predict mean group opinion on certain religious issues, no relationship was found between the extremeness of the subject's attitude and his predictions.


The following findings are reported: (1) group discussion was not found to be more effective than a lecture in influencing action; (2) participation in decision-making was related to probability that the decided action would be executed; (3) public commitment was not found to be more effective in influence future action than private commitment; (4) probability that group members would execute the decided action was influenced by the degree of group consensus.


This book reports four experiments. It was found that children did not blindly and uncritically accept answers of the majority; it is not easy for a child to be in the minority; peer pressure is more influential for children than authority pressure. Further, prestige does not necessarily affect imitation, and younger children are more influenced by group pressure than older children.

   This is an abstract of a paper delivered at the annual meeting of the APA. It reports three studies on attitude changes in permissive discussion groups. Little attitude change is noted.

   The author hypothesizes that participation in a small group discussion after listening to an opposing propaganda message tends to counteract the propaganda effect. This hypothesis is supported.

   Group pressure was exerted on authoritarian and non-authoritarian group members in the experimental situation. Both groups showed significant influence by group pressures, and the authoritarian subjects seemed significantly more influenced than non-authoritarians.

   Two conditions of conformity were revealed in this study: (1) the subject sincerely adheres to group norms and possesses a high level of motivation to participate. This may occur when the subject is not completely accepted by the group, but is in reach of acceptance. (2) The subject conforms only in public. This may occur when he feels on the verge of total rejection.

   Various manifestations of group pressure were examined in the situation where some subjects conformed and other subjects deviated greatly from the mode.

   It was found in this experiment that greater initial sensitivity and agreement created by psychological pressure seems to result from time limits placed on discussion. After a while, however, group satisfaction decreases, and group coalescence is inhibited.

   It was found that there is more shift toward the norm in high-attraction groups than in low-attraction groups.

The conclusions of this experimental study are as follows:
1. Minority members needed more support from other members than did majority members.
2. There was more pressure toward uniformity in homogeneous than heterogeneous groups.
3. Pressure to agree with experts was greater in heterogeneous groups, especially those under pressure for uniformity.
4. There was a greater tendency toward subdivision in the heterogeneous than the homogeneous condition.


The authors conclude that leaderless groups along with neutrally and positively led groups may experience attitude change during the course of discussion, whereas negative leadership groups do not.


This study supported the convergence effect in discussion. The author states that a minority member may have appreciable influence on others in the group.


This study deals with the effects of a strong minority member on the opinion of the group. The minority member does apparently have some influence.


The investigators found strong tendencies to perceive forces of conformity in interdependent task-oriented groups.


It was found that for high degrees of membership valuation, frequency of being chosen as a workmate was inversely related to conformity.

This study revealed the following findings: (1) Group influence is related to value placed on group membership. (2) This relationship is stronger under private than public conditions.


Two groups heard a recorded speech contrary to group norms. Applause was heard after certain main points. The group which was told that the applause was from other in-group members changed opinions more than did group which were told that the applause was from anonymous outsiders.


This study found that groups in which more successes have been experienced showed more conformity in later test tasks than did groups in which less success had previously been experienced.


This experimental study indicated that discussion was clearly superior over individual memory in group concept attainment.


This study was designed to determine the effects of group discussion on individual preferences for pictures. It was found that the amount of change in preference was related to the roles individuals took in the discussions, the timing of remarks, and the amount of questions fielded by members. The emotional tone of the discussion was also a factor.


This study confirmed the belief that group members tend to shift their attitudes toward those of the majority. Also subjects with greater anxiety tended to shift more than subjects with less anxiety.

This study compared the lecture method with the discussion method in inducing change in performance ratings of supervisors. It was found that only the subjects involved in the group process improved their ratings.


This study used the criterion of insight in determining behavior change attributable to group behavior. All group members increased insight regardless whether their group was a discussion, a task-oriented study group, or a role-playing group. There were no significant differences between groups.


Two types of small groups were chosen on the basis of a sociogram. These high and low cohesive groups engaged in discussion on racial groups. Attitudes were found to change on the subject, regardless of group. Additionally, the changes appeared relatively stable.


This study attempted to determine whether group conclusions could be influenced by reinforcement of certain predetermined patterns. Somewhat over half of the subjects were influenced in their conclusions by reinforcement. The others were not.


This article reports an experiment comparing the relative effectiveness of various conditions on judging a clear-cut fact. The conditions tested include face-to-face discussion, tape recorded discussion, and individual judgment.

   After discussing the prevalence of conformity in our society, various significant pressures to conform are listed. The author is particularly concerned with pressures to conform to majority viewpoint in the discussion classroom, often induced by the instructor. As a solution, the author proposes that the leader in discussion support controversy rather than agreement.


   After studying group discussions on city population rankings, the authors indicate that (1) discussion, group decision, and a combination of both increased the amount of coalescence in groups, and (2) the greatest change of opinion occurred in groups where both discussion and group decision took place.


   The results of this study suggest that when a perceiver has been influenced by some source, he becomes more aware of the source and/or he has an increased desire to describe the source's behavior.


   In order to determine the nature of "conformity" responses in the Asch situation, variation in the experimental results of various investigators were studied. The author believes there are three types of influence indicated: conformity by repeating information of others, conformity because of potential evaluation by the group, and conformity because of potential evaluation by the experimenter. The author stresses the importance of experimenter-subject relationship as a possible confounding variable.


   The authors attempt to bring together hypotheses about pressures toward uniformity into an integrated system.


   This is an experimental study on the effects of discussing issues on one's attitudes. The author reports that subjects felt more competent in an area after having discussed it, although they felt less sure that original statements were sound.
Subjects in this experiment were asked to judge group consensus at various points. The authors conclude that (1) change in actual consensus seemed to correlate with change in estimated consensus, (2) both estimated and actual consensus changed toward the point of view expressed in discussion, and (3) change in estimated and actual consensus were not significantly different from one another.

This article reviews current research on the effects of conformity and disagreement. Some positive conditions for disagreement are presented as well as factors working against disagreement. The author supports disagreement and believes that it is good.

This study attempts to define the relationship between certain variables and the amount of opinion shift experienced by conference members. The variables include confidence in pre-conference opinion, type of problem discussed, sex, intelligence, extremity of opinion, and difference among participants in pre-conference opinions.

An attempt is made to quantify shift of opinion which occurred at a student conference in 1950. The author believes that the conference caused significant change of opinion among delegates. The amount of shift seems related to the amount of confidence the delegates had in their opinions before the conference.

It was concluded in this article that although majority influence is strong, more adherents are attracted to a minority armed with superior arguments.

The two experimental conditions used in this study included small group discussion on controversial topics and recorded discussions. Apparently more shift of opinion occurred under the first condition than the second.

It was found that when incentive to perform was high, group members tended to conform unless they were low in attraction and group acceptance. When incentive was low, only members low in group acceptance but high in attraction tended to conform.

VARIABLES RELATED TO GROUPS (Continued)

V. INDIVIDUAL PARTICIPATION

289. Bales, Robert F., et. al. "Channels of Communication in Small Groups," American Sociological Review, vol. 16 (1951), 461-468. Rankings of group members by number of communications initiated tend to be correlated with rankings on (1) number of communications received, (2) number of communications addressed to other specific members, (3) number of communications addressed to the group as a whole.


291. Buchheimer, Arnold and Philip Pendleton. "The Reliability and Validity of the Group Participation Scale," Educational and Psychological Measurement, vol. 14 (1954), 566-569. This is an attempt to find the validity and reliability of the Group Participation Scale by Pepinsky, Siegel, and Vanatta. The split-half reliability coefficient is reported between .84 and .96, and the test is reported as valid.

292. Crowell, Laura. "Problems in Measuring Participation in Discussion," Journal of Communication, vol. 3 (1953), 17-20. Problems and methods in five areas are discussed: (1) finding the individual factors of participation, (2) formulating a complete list of these factors, (3) including only mutually exclusive factors, (4) weighing factors approximately, and (5) differentiating degrees of achievement.

293. Dickens, Milton. "A Statistical Formula to Quantify the 'Spread-of-Participation' in Group Discussion," Speech Monographs, vol. 22 (March, 1955), 28-30. Dickens here develops a formula for a spread-of-participation score based on the total number of words in the discussion, number of discussants, and numbers of discussants using more and less words than total words/number of discussants.

294. Gaier, Eugene. "When They're Not Talking," Adult Leadership, vol. 1 (March, 1953), 28-29. This article lists several techniques for getting silent members to speak. Some such persons are described and their reasons for not participating stated. Some problems listed include anxiety, rigidity, and negative thinking.


This short monograph expands upon Stephan and Mischler's (1952) mathematical model of small group member participation. The author states that the model is valuable in abstracting behavior and analysis of small group discussion.


The authors found in this experimental study that individual and group competition increased quantity of participation and individual motivation. Quality of performance was also better in competitive groups. Low competition conditions yielded more favorable group relations.


The authors developed a fifteen-item questionnaire, which they sent to seven community groups in Washington, D. C. The authors wished to determine predictors for high-level participation. Significant predictors are education, income, knowledge of topic, status in the group, attendance record, extent of acquaintance with other members, and number of group members.

This study attempted to determine the effect of reinforcement on group participation. It was noted that S's verbalization increased significantly when reinforced with a red light.

This study corroborates previous evidence that high participants are perceived as contributing more to the final solution of a discussion. The authors believe that the talkative individual has greater ability to command attention and support from other members.


The following findings are related: (1) The prevailing current of participation flows upward to the top-ranking person. (2) The communication from the top man to lower members diminishes as the member rank decreases, and most of his comments are directed to the group as a whole. Some mathematical models for analysis of participation are presented.

This article applies an exponential mathematical model to the distribution of participation in small group discussion. This model seems to fit when there is a range of participation potential among the members, there is no systematic interference with this potential, and a lack of well-differentiated roles exists.

VI. GROUP INTERACTION


Prior to the publishing of this book, Interaction Process Analysis had developed over many years. It is based on rater observation of small groups. The book goes into the method of training observers, method reliability, and interpretation of results.


This article introduces an observer category sheet for analysis of interaction. The broad categories include social-emotional area: positive reactions; social-emotional area: negative reactions; task area: attempted answers; task area: questions. These are further broken down into sub-categories.


The following hypotheses were at least partially supported by this experimental study: (1) Members who share majority opinions direct most of their communication to opinion deviates. (2) When interdependence is high there is a greater tendency to reject the deviate. (3) A member with a high affiliation motive tends to communicate more with the deviate and reject him less than low affiliation-motivated members.


This study found that the amount of social restriction placed on a person is related to the level of his emotional responses in interaction. In experimental conditions where the subject was relieved of social sanction, more negative emotional responses were emitted.


This article analyzes the indices of support in interaction which strengthen coalitions in groups. A particularly close look is given to Theodore Mills' index of support (see item 358). The authors stress the need to base indices on empirical concepts rather than speculative ones.


This study found that higher levels of interaction induced more attraction to the group as a whole. The authors are able to state the relationship between interaction and attraction mathematically.
   This article describes the use of a modified stenograph machine used to record discussions.

   The data reported in this article tend to support the theory that less stress on individual members in small groups results in reduction of members' restraints, thus leading to greater freedom of action.

   This article describes the study of conditions producing tension and conflict in conferences. The investigators studies several government and business groups.

   This article presents a scheme for conceptualizing variables in interaction. The purpose is to provide a framework for organizing ideas.

   Both task and social groups were examined for patterns of interaction. In the task group, the pattern of interaction is predictable from centrality of position and distance between members. In social groups, the tendency was to speak to persons sitting next to the subject. Personality was found to be related to choice of sitting position.

   The author found that trained groups cooperated more than did untrained groups. He suggests that trainers pay more attention to goal-oriented discussion.

   Several groups were studied experimentally and group interaction analyzed. It was found that initially high status consensus groups decreased and then increased in that quality; such groups experienced sharp and focussed emotional conflict; such groups decreased in the amount of interaction in categories associated with status; high status groups were more satisfied with the group and the decisions than low status groups; and high groups were generally more efficient.

   108 groups were studied, and it was found that more than 60% of group activity was determined by the type of task considered.

This experimental study found that (1) listeners were more persuaded by the most hostile participant in a conflict, (2) emotional conflict may make the discussion seem meaningless and irrational to listeners, and (3) listener learning seems unaffected by emotional conflict.


The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of role and opinion deviation on interaction. It was found that opinion deviates received generally more communication than controls and role deviates received generally less communication. The role deviate was ranked lower on a sociometric measure than controls.


The authors report that the feedback in discussions occupies a major part of the total effort.


Eight experimental groups were observed for fifteen weeks to determine how small groups evolve into real social groups through interaction. Variables observed include member commonalities, leadership, friendship development, role development, member interdependence, sub-group formation, tendency toward consensus, group ideology, group harmony, relations with other groups, discipline, group solidarity, and participation.
VII. ROLE TAKING AND STATUS

This paper first reviews the concepts of "group norm" and "role." A method is then presented for using these in research. A list of 51 behavior traits and a sample role profile for a ten member group is also included.

This study developed a predictor test for role behavior consisting of four personality factors: assertiveness, power orientation, rigidity, and aggressive nonconformity. The author suggests further development of such instruments.

This is an experimental study related to Bales' and Slater's Theory that roles are differentiated by a task/social-emotional polarization. It is further hypothesized that an inequality in participation in task-oriented behavior causes the differentiation and that high task participation is not legitimated by social climate.

Six role patterns emerge in this study. Each of these patterns is defined by a few overt behaviors observed in discussions. According to the authors, these patterns can be applied to groups other than the original groups studied.

High status individuals perceived greater possibilities to control others and did attempt to control others more than low status members. High status members were more satisfied with group discussion, and the more a person understood his role, the less he was concerned with his performance.

The hypotheses were generally supported in this study. It was predicted that subjects using sarcastic wit would be judged more influential but less popular while subjects using clowning wit would be perceived as more popular, but powerless.

In order for role performance to be successful, a person must have three qualities: identity (self), poise, and confidence. However, embarrassment destroys one or more of these, rendering role performance impossible.

The original article is written by Franklyn Haiman, and commentaries are included by the two other authors listed. Forces leading to specialization of roles are discussed as well as the disadvantages of this state of affairs. The commentators disagree with Haiman's point of view only slightly.


This study investigates the problem of dyad segregation in three-person groups. It is concluded that the extent of interdependence within the "coalition" determines the subject's change in behavior, but not necessarily his change in opinion.


The purpose of the study was to contribute to our understanding of role behavior in problem-solving situations. It includes findings on (1) perceptions and evaluations of behavior, (2) relationship between actual behavior and perceived roles, (3) orientation of various role-types, (4) influences of social status, (5) member satisfaction, and (6) member developmental histories.


Ad hoc four-man discussion groups were studied in order to determine the effect of different orientations and norms on structure and functioning of the groups.


Three types of role structures are isolated and discussed: (1) A single leader assumes all functions, and there is not further differentiation. (2) There is moderate role specialization determined by personality and situational factors and forced by sociological pressures. (3) Psychological and sociological pressures force extreme role differentiation causing disruption of task performance.


Silent collaborators in small groups were included to induce ambiguous role expectations. It was found that such role ambiguity reduced group productivity and satisfaction.
VIII. GROUP COHESIVENESS


The instrument described in this paper attempts to measure potential for group unity. The test is an inventory of attitudes toward potential groups to be administered to individual members.


It was found in this study that on ego-involving problems cohesive groups were significantly better in producing unique ideas than non-cohesive groups. Also sociometric choices for brainstorming partners were found to be related to perceptions of partner's skill.


This index of group cohesiveness is based on scores derived from sociometric ratings within the group. The assumption is that higher scores result from more mutual choices in the sociogram.


Group attraction and mutual esteem were found to be a function of the group's effectiveness. Persons are attracted to other persons who aid them in solving the task. Self esteem is increased by influencing the group decision.


This study substantiated the previous hypothesis that pressures toward uniformity in social groups are related to group cohesion.


High cohesive groups were found to be significantly more congenial, more in agreement with one another, and displaying less overlap in the proportion of activity in the areas of suggestion, opinion, orientation between the two subjects rated proportionately most active in these areas.


This experimental study revealed that cooperativeness, efficiency, and insight facilitated group functioning. "Striving for individual prominence" reduced cohesiveness and friendliness within the groups.


A person's attraction to the group was found to be related to degree of confirmation of expectations and general acceptance of the individual by the group.


The author claims that an individual's attraction to the group is of central importance, and in this book (100 pages) he describes methodologies for the study and measurement of this variable. The two methods stressed include a projective technique (group picture impressions) and a behavior observation technique.


This study revealed that group cohesiveness was related positively with level of communication and conformity within the groups. Fifteen groups in 30-minute discussions were studied.


It was discovered in this study that the solidarity between two persons in a three-man group is very threatening to the third member and the presence of a common object of opposition is most conducive to the development of such a solidarity bond.


It was found in this experimental study that groups with greater spread of participation had less cohesiveness. This may be explained by the high level of participation on the part of high status individuals, for when this condition existed, the group was found to be more cohesive.

VARIABLES RELATED TO GROUPS (Continued)

IX. SEATING ARRANGEMENT AND GROUP SIZE


   This experimental study related the following findings: (1) There is less agreement in larger groups. (2) Leaders in smaller groups have more influence, although their skill is less important than in larger groups. (3) Members of larger groups are generally less satisfied with the group decision because of less opportunity to speak.


   The author found in his investigation that where interaction was spontaneous in groups, the groups subdivide into the smallest size possible for face-to-face interaction (2). He suggests that groups above two members may be unstable.


   It was found that generally individual attitudes shifted toward group norms after discussion. Attitudes tended to shift more in groups of 7 than in groups of 3 or 11. Also it was found that as group size increases, instances of very good and very poor participation increase.


   32 groups of various sizes were studied in the areas of member satisfaction, instructor satisfaction, and member (student) achievement. An inverse relationship was found between group and student satisfaction.

In this study of groups ranging from 2 to 7 members, the following conclusions emerged. Members preferred 5-man groups. In larger groups, members were perceived as aggressive, impulsive, competitive, and inconsiderate. Large groups were considered too hierarchical, centralized, and disorganized. In smaller groups members appeared tense, passive, tactful, and constrained.


In this study groups in a cafeteria and a library were observed. In the cafeteria, where interaction is encouraged, subjects sat opposite one another. In the library, where interaction is discouraged, subjects chose to sit apart. The author categorizes groups as casual, cooperative, competing, and co-acting. He describes the seating arrangements used by the various types of groups.


This experimental study revealed that leaders preferred the end position in a group and that others preferred positions close to the leader. Members generally preferred to sit opposite rather than beside the leader.


This is an expository article on findings concerning the spacial arrangement of small groups. Three broad topics are covered: leadership and spacial arrangements, task and location, and individual distance. About 40 studies are cited.


In the fifteen groups studied, it was found that a relationship existed between the degree of interaction and the distance between group members.


Problem solving efficiency was measured in groups of one, two, and four in terms of the number of questions asked by individuals, the time required, and the number of failures. Generally, groups were found superior to individuals in all three categories, but four-man groups were not found superior to two-man groups.


31 empirical studies of small groups are reviewed in this paper. In all, the independent variable is group size. Such topics as the following are considered: group performance, distribution of participation, nature of interaction, group organization, member performance, conformity, and satisfaction.

   This is an experimental study of groups ranging in size from two to ten members. It was found generally that as group size increases, quality of decisions also increase.

   It was found in this study that 2 and 5 member groups seemed more influenced by a knowledgeable member than other sized groups.
CHAPTER IV.

TASK VARIABLES

I. General Considerations


This book collates findings concerned with group decision making. The following areas are reported: group and individual performance, productivity, interpersonal behavior, interpersonal influence, sources of power, communication, participant satisfaction, and leadership.


This test is a situational measure of social relations skills in children. The stimulus involves a problem-solving situation. The author believes that the test may be used to study effects of various environments upon children interacting in groups.


This study was designed to determine various multiple correlations between group productivity and various sets of predictors from 18 possible variables. The variables are grouped into broad categories of acceptance of group goal, success or satisfaction with previous group experiences, use of individual skills, and leadership patterns.


This article provides a summary of findings on problem-solving. Topics discussed include recent theoretical trends, trial and error problem-solving, and non-trial error problem-solving. Nearly 150 sources are cited.


The author points out that a common criticism of discussion is that the subject matter is often weak—"a pooling of ignorance." Thus groups should concern themselves with real action problems. They should think about solutions and be genuinely concerned. Several methods for eliciting solid ideas from the group are presented.


Some problems listed include the following: (1) Previous research has centered on simple puzzle-type problems. (2) The influence of cultural values has been ignored. (3) More research is needed in problem perception. (4) While the critical faculty has attracted much research, the creative factor has been ignored. (5) More research is needed in patterns of problem-solving. (6) There is a need for more research in semantics. (7) Research should continue on correlates of problem-solving ability. (8) There is a need for more psychological research. (9) And more study of training is desireable.

6 dimensions emerge in this factor-analytic study for describing written passages prepared by groups. These include (1) action orientation, (2) length, (3) originality, (4) optimism, (5) quality of presentation, and (6) issue involvement.


The relationship of the following variables to two-party bargaining is investigated: (1) availability of a central solution, (2) information about the degree of agreement reached in a previous session, (3) the values of various alternatives, (4) the pattern of communicating, and (5) sex.


This book deals with planning change by the individual, organization, community, and small group. Often small group procedures for problem-solving have become obsolete and must be changed.


This device is claimed to be a measure of discussion outcome. The "Index of Agreement" is a function of the total number of participants, the number of alternative solutions to the problem, and the number of participants espousing each of the solutions.


This brief article describes the benefits of the democratic method of group discussion. The answers in such a group do not come quickly, but neither are solutions dictated.


The author recognizes that group productivity is a function of task demands, resources, and process. He discusses several models for predicting productivity potential of groups, which he hopes eventually to integrate into a theory of productivity potential.


The authors describe the problems used in experimental studies of creative problem-solving in groups. Five basic variables are related: (1) task, (2) individual vs. group, (3) leadership, (4) training, and (5) group characteristics.
II. QUALITY OF DECISIONS, ACCURACY, AND EFFICIENCY


This study relates findings on the relationship between conflict and group decisions: (1) On the average unanimous groups produce superior decisions over conflict groups, but conflict groups under majority rule produce superior decisions. (2) Conflict groups exchanged more information than unanimous groups.


The authors conclude that there is very little advantage to a group approach over an individual approach. They claim that because of methodological differences, this finding does not contradict previous studies.
The following conclusions emerge from this study: (1) A group does not necessarily seem to be more efficient in search for solutions than is a single individual. (2) There is no significant time difference in developing solution between groups and individuals. (3) There seems less variability among groups than individuals in solutions, time, steps taken, and errors made.

These investigators found that groups with feedback (knowledge of results) made more accurate decisions than groups without such feedback.

On the basis of the study, the author concludes that group decisions will be more accurate when a heterogeneous group judgment is used and that members tend to conform more to a superior decision than an inferior one.
III. THE PROBLEM-SOLVING PROCESS


The purpose of this study was to describe quantitatively the process that groups go through in their tasks. It was found that 1/3 of the discussion time was spent on procedure, uninterrupted group attention was maintained on the average just a little over a minute, and over 10% of the themes in the discussion were irrelevant to the task.


This study dealt with the effectiveness of three patterns of problem-solving in which the order of ideation-criteria was varied. The pattern in which ideation comes before criteria yielded significantly more good ideas.


It was found in this study that in groups where subjects chose their own group goals, production output was higher.


This article describes the PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique) process in which group members work together in program planning and implementation. It is suggested that this be included as part of the discussion agenda.


The purpose of the article is to examine the thinking process which members of groups go through in problem-solving. The technique described for doing this looks into the number, type, and sequence of questions asked by subjects.

This article develops a category system applied to several groups to investigate the ideation process. Basically, it was found that there is considerable flexibility in participation from contribution to contribution in a small group discussion.


The following conclusions emerged from this study: (1) Buzz sessions may cause significant changes in problem-solving behavior or participation of subjects. (2) Lengthier discussion may also produce such changes in behavior. (3) The nature of the change may be a function of the task set in discussion.


It was found that when group members cannot communicate, one of two conditions comes to pass: (1) If the group tried to solve a problem and then moved on to another version of the problem, it solves the problem more quickly. (2) If the group continued working on the same version of the problem, it solves the problem less quickly.
IV. VARIABLES RELATED TO INDIVIDUALS


Time talked, coalescence, and profit from discussion were examined in groups, and it was found that motivation is related to decision accuracy and participation, coalescence, and attempts at leadership. Increased accuracy in decision making may result from high participation and coalescence.


It was found in this study that higher quality solutions were produced by more heterogeneous groups.


The purpose of the study was to determine effects of discussion and study groups on personality. It was revealed that task-oriented study group members changed in personality significantly more than discussion group members.


Subjects whose discussion performance was ranked high were compared with those ranked low. It was found that high-performance subjects scored significantly higher in reflective thinking ability than low-performance subjects.


The authors found a positive relationship between group members' reflective thinking abilities and the quality of the group solution.


The conclusion of this study is that when the task can be solved by logical procedures, information, increased range of ideas, and other skills will aid in increasing the group's effectiveness; but when the solution must be arrived at consensually, such factors are curvilinearly related to group effectiveness.

434. Tucker, Raymond K. "Discussion Outlines and Skill in Reflective Thinking," Speech Teacher, vol. 6 (1957), 139-142.

This author asserts on the basis of his experimental study that preparation of discussion outlines does not affect significantly one's skill in reflective thinking.
V. VARIABLES RELATED TO GROUP ATTRIBUTES


Groups were divided on the basis of easy and hard problems. In the first condition, anxiety had a relatively minimal influence on problem-solving time. However, under the difficult problem condition, anxiety was more influential in cooperative groups than in non-cooperative groups.


This article reviews six studies, and the author concludes that previous experience of a group affects the members' modification of their methods of dealing with a task.


This study queried the effectiveness of individual pooled ideas in problem-solving as compared to that of group interaction. It was found that in group interaction, solutions approach the best possible solution regardless of any individual's attempt to influence that decision.


Established groups were found to be superior to ad hoc groups in performance. This supports the importance of group tradition.


The problem-solving productivity of groups was studied in this investigation. It was found that members were more involved and attentive in non-competitive conditions. The group as a whole came up with better solutions than individual members alone.


This study was designed to determine the difference between problem-solving speed in groups with a single leader and that in groups with shared responsibility. It was found from studying teams of airmen that in problems dealing with environmental changes, the shared responsibility condition proved to be faster. In problems involving coordination of action, it was found to be better to have a single centralized authority.


This study confirmed the hypotheses: (1) Cooperative groups are more productive than competitive groups. (2) Regardless of the condition, the proportion of recalled material is greater than expected by chance.
VI. GROUP RISK-TAKING


It was found in this study that the amount of risk taken by an individual in a discussion or after discussion is related to anxiety and defensiveness.


It was found that group members, observers, and listeners shift toward more risky decisions after discussion. The authors believe that risky shift may be explained by increased information exchange in discussion.


The authors report that exposure to live discussion, but not to taped discussion, produced a risky shift.


This study was made among actual established groups. It was found that group decisions were apt to be riskier than mean individual decisions.


It was found in this experimental study that groups consisting of persons more dependent on the perceptual field are more willing to make risky decisions after discussion than are groups with field-independent members. Also it was found that among field-dependents, the greater the member's tendency to shift to the risky decision, the more he tends to attribute the shift to the group as a whole.

This paper describes the group action tournament at the University of Kansas. The tournament attempts to alleviate some previous criticism of discussion tournaments: (1) failure to establish true groups, (2) distortion of member relationships, (3) lack of student motivation, and (4) insufficient time. Measurement was made at the tournament and data collected. The author concludes that the above-listed problems were eliminated.


This is a survey study of 250 discussion teachers. Results are classified as follows: general considerations, educational background, teaching experience, and practical experience.


The author describes a discussion course in which the use of tapes of actual discussion groups in the community were used. In return the class taped discussions of their own for distribution. The author lists numerous advantages of this approach.


The results of this experimental study indicate that courses in discussion and group leadership produced significant changes in subjects' open-mindedness.


This article reviews some current thinking on cooperation and competition in discussion. Ideas from Mead, Coob, Deutsch, Sherif, and others are presented. These points are applied to the controversy over competitiveness in extra-curricular speech activities.


This article describes a training program developed by the Kelsey Hayes Wheel Company and the Department of Speech at Wayne University. The program included topics on problem-solving, effective speaking, persuasion, visual aids, participation and leadership, and others.


Recognizing that approaches to teaching discussion are diverse, the authors attempt to establish some central concepts to help promote agreement among those who study discussion. Discussion is defined and qualities of good discussion problems are presented. Three kinds of "pseudo-discussion" are described.


This article delves into the problems of discussion contests and the confusion about the relation between discussion and debate. Five successful contest formats are discussed, and the author concludes with some principles for discussion topics.
CHAPTEIV
Teaching Small Group Discussion

This article criticizes present concepts of discussion, and the author provides a concept of his own. Topics discussed include the requisite conditions to discussion and types of groups.

The author challenges the popular idea that leadership should come first and group deliberation second in discussion. He lists some disadvantages of this attitude. The thesis is that primary training should concern the process of discussion, not leadership.

The author stresses the importance of teaching skills in both problem solution and group maintenance. She provides a course outline in three units designed to do this.

The authors promote a method of teaching discussion which focuses on individual development. The goals of such an approach are development of firm convictions in students as well as the ability and desire to re-examine those convictions.

The thesis of this article is that speech courses should stress both the "what" and the "how" of speech. Discussion provides an opportunity to do this. The steps in problem solving are described as being central to the teaching of discussion.

The author believes that persuasion should be stressed more in discussion. Both advocacy and inquiry find a place in group discussion. That members think differently on issues speaks for the need for persuasion. The author presents several factors which necessitates persuasion in group discussion.

This article describes a type of contest discussion which, according to the authors, may yield significant values. The object of the discussion is for students to analyze good literature.

This is an experimental study comparing the straight lecture and discussion methods of teaching courses in discussion. The investigator found no significant difference between the two methods in student retention of material.

The authors distributed 500 questionnaires concerning the teaching of discussion. They asked about the type of courses offered, departments in which they are taught, topics covered, activities included in the courses, and problem areas.


This article briefly reviews some research on communication networks begun by Bavelas in 1948. The findings of this research are then applied to the teaching of discussion in the classroom. Participant evaluation, leader evaluation, and group decisions are considered.


The author concludes that a panel forum assignment in the discussion class entails only a little teacher explanation and preparation and allows students to speak early in the term.


This brief article describes the findings of a questionnaire study of 28 schools. Topics considered include the number of discussion conferences, number of schools involved, subjects, and schools attending.


Four major problems in contest discussions are described: (1) failure of students to be selective in reading, (2) failure to evaluate material, (3) failure to evaluate member contributions, and (4) failure to follow the steps of discussion.


The author argues for including a course in debate as a prerequisite to courses in discussion. Many of the skills such as reasoning and use of evidence would provide a sound basis for discussion. Some of the arguments against such a proposal are considered and answered.


The following teaching problems are discussed: inadequate preparation in discussion, inadequate participation, lack of conversational quality, stereotyped analytical procedures, faulty evaluation techniques, handling the idle class, and inadequate understanding of principles.


This is a reply to the article by Kim Giffin (see item 461). He presents some requisite for the use of the discussion method of teaching discussion. Further suggestions for overcoming certain problems
CHAPTER VI
MISCELLANEOUS CONSIDERATIONS

I. APPLIED DISCUSSION


The author reviews several programs of discussion in agriculture: USDA extension program of 1914, Agricultural Extension Act, state extension services, Division of Program Study and Discussion, and others. Other topics included are phases of agricultural discussion, leadership training, problem-solving, and others.


After attending some 26 meetings relevant to community problems in a single year, the author analyzed some typical problems evident in many of them. Some sources of problems included meeting organization, seating arrangement, leadership, and sponsor prejudices.


This article relates discussion as a tool in mediation. The three stages include explanation, debate, and decision. These three stages are explained in the article.


This is a follow up to an article by Walser (see item 483) dealing with discussion in diplomatic affairs. Seven characteristics of international debate are listed: Ambiguity, the aim of wide acceptance, escape clauses, national pride, rationalization, importance of audience adaptation, and lack of cross-cultural understanding.


The author gives a personal account of leadership in international discussion. He describes the function of leadership in diplomatic discussion and relates particularly the problems evident in the U. N.


The author stresses the importance of the rural sociologist's use of public discussion for consideration of community problems as well as dissemination of information. A brief history of the use of public discussion in agriculture is presented. The special role of the sociologist as expert in group processes and rural problems is discussed.
II. PUBLIC DISCUSSION

   The author reports the format used for two discussion programs in a small school district. A previous questionnaire study had found great variation in public opinion on some aspects of local education. The discussion programs, which involved teachers and parents, were designed to consider these problem areas.

   The author points out that many public discussions are designed to promote a previously-established idea. Such has been the case with inter-religious groups on campuses. This form of public discussion is further described and defended.

   The investigator found no significant difference between discussion and debate in the amount of information retained by audiences.

   It was found in this study that audience opinion was influenced significantly more by discussion than by debate and that audiences tended to shift their opinions back and forth during the course of debate, while opinion shift was continuous in one direction during the course of discussion.

   This essay points out the importance of compromise in public discussion. The common task in discussion is stressed.

   This article discusses the demands of public discussion where audience participation is sought. The author suggests placing informed "invisible panelists" in the audience to aid in the audience response.

   Polled students suggested that important factors in discussion include material, organization, and interestingness. They disregarded thought and delivery.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND MEASUREMENT


For purposes of discussion evaluation, the author suggests the use of two observers: the content observer notes the effectiveness of group problem solving; the process observer makes note of group interaction and psychological processes. Ten guiding questions are suggested for each observer.


This article describes some plans for a small group research laboratory. This discussion describes existing plants, and considerations such as space and comfort, research and educational functions, and facilities design are presented.


A method for measuring various group behaviors (e.g., group stability, individual congruence, and group decision) is developed. Basically, it consists of having the members rank order some stimuli privately and as a group. Intercorrelations of these rank orderings are used as measures.


The areas discussed in this paper include group action, group consensus, quality of group consensus, information gain, and uniqueness of group effort. Each of these may be considered results. In addition, eight problems in measurement are listed.


Nine graphic evaluative techniques are displayed. Variables included in the methods are length of participation, significance of remarks, function of remarks, roles played, power exerted on the group, benefit to group direction, and relevance of remarks.


The author polled teachers of discussion in 40 colleges and universities on types of rating scales used, the adaptability of scales, reasons for using scales, diagnostic efficiency of the scales, items, and others. Some suggestions for using rating scales are given.

This article develops categories for classifying ideas produced in discussion. Any remark may be labelled in a number of ways, depending upon the categories into which it fits. A sample discussion is analyzed with this system.


This study describes a technique for isolating individual and group attributes. Possible relationships among variables are discussed along with statistical problems and examples.


This short exposition describes some pertinent principles of experimental research and measurement. Such topics as experimenter attitude, problem-centeredness, control, design, data gathering, and interpretation are considered.


After criticizing studies which restrict the natural interaction among individuals in groups being studied, the author summarizes eight methods of controlling variables in small group research.


This paper discusses some problems in classifying components of the communication process. Some areas in which measurement might take place are listed: task, group maintenance, member satisfaction, roles, and others. Finally, some possible measurement methods are presented.


The authors suggest further investigation of a projective technique for investigating group communication. The test is a modified TAT, in which groups discuss ambiguous pictures. Interaction is classified and studied.

The author discusses what he believes to be a significant problem in investigating small groups whether in the field or the laboratory. The problem is the involvement of the investigator with the group. Thus he is not an objective observer, and the group is not a true functioning autonomous organ.


The purpose of this study is to compare methods of experimental design in studies of small groups. The study considers the basic design in which a number of experimental groups are exposed to a treatment and an equal number of control groups are not exposed. Some additional extensions of this method are also considered.


This article describes some constructs useful in the measurement of group communication. A theoretical framework including task performance and group structure is described as well as some experimental studies on the usefulness of the concepts.