

C H A P T E R - I

I N T R O D U C T I O N

- 1.1 GROUP DYNAMICS.
- 1.2 COOPERATION AND COMPETITION,
- 1.3 CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE COOPERATIVE AND
COMPETITIVE SITUATIONS,
- 1.4 CONCEPT OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP,
WORK SATISFACTION AND ANXIETY.

History of small group research is virtually identical with the history of social psychology and certain areas of sociology. In the early 1920's the social psychologist and research worker of small group did not so much involve themselves in Philosophical issues as with its methodology. They began to concentrate on studying limited specified aspects of man's social behaviour. In 1930's the small group researcher widened his field of study to include mass movement, lynchings, prejudice, rumour etc. In 1940's methodological development and empirical knowledge both acquired significance, and gave thought to the study of leadership. In 1950's and 1960's, particularly in the U.S.A. more interest was developed in the area and Festinger, Thibaut and Kelley were particularly responsible for focussing attention on the study of small groups.

CONDITIONS FOSTERING THE RISE OF GROUP DYNAMICS :

In order that group dynamics was recognised as a relevant field of study the existence of a society promoting such a study was necessary. The conditions were favourable in the United States of America, North Western Europe, Israel, Japan and India for study in this field. The

cultural, economic and social conditions dictated the need to study systematically the effectiveness of group work. Both intellectual curiosity and the desire to improve social practice led a number of organisations to do systematic research work in the area. The leaders in the field of different professions got interested in promoting relevant study in the field.

In the profession of social group work e.g. clubs, recreational groups, camps, athletic teams, it was realised that the technique of dealing with groups might prove rewarding by influencing behaviours, attitudes, personalities of the participants of these groups. The other professional field to have contributed to the study in this area was Group Psychotherapy. Apart from medical setting, the use of group psychotherapy was realised to be significant in social setting also.

Freud's writings (especially his Group Psychology and the Analysis of the Ego) and the writings of Redl¹

1. Redle, F. Wineman, D. Children who hate, Glencoe, III : Free Press, 1951.

Scheidlinger² and Slavson³ led to increased interest in the study of group dynamics. The application of psychoanalytic group work to natural groups in military establishment, industry and the community was an important feature. Moreno⁴ also stressed the importance of psychotherapy in groups. His technique of role playing e.g. in psychodrama and sociodrama further contributed to research in group dynamics. In education also the public schools of the U.S.A. were supposed to prepare children for life and society. The educationists thought it worthwhile to promote skills of leadership, cooperation, responsible membership and human relations. The teacher was a sort of group leader, who shaped to a certain extent, the attitude and personality of the learners.

In the field of Administration, management of larger organisations needed that the groups should be properly

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2. Scheidlinger, S. Psychoanalysis and Group Behavior, New York, Norton, 1952.
 3. Slavson, S.R. Analytic Group Psychotherapy, New York, Columbia University, Press, 1950.
 4. Moreno, J.L. "who shall survive?" Washington, D.C, Nervous and Mental Diseases, Publishing Co., 1934.

managed so as to yield better results in the fulfilment of the objects. Special needs of specific professions e.g. business - administration, public administration, medical - administration and educational - administration were realised and studies undertaken to promote effectiveness of these groups.

SCIENTIFIC APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF GROUP DYNAMICS :

A basic premise of group dynamics is that method of science which can be employed in the study of groups. Social science, of which group dynamics is a part has, during the last quarter of the 19th and in the present century increasingly adopted experimental procedures. In the first three decades significant advance was made in the measurement of attitudes. The "social distance" scales developed by Bogardus⁵, Thurston⁶ and Likert⁷ were important landmarks.

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5. Bogardus, E.S., Measuring Social Distance, Journal of Applied Sociology, 1925, 9, 299-308.
 6. Thurstone, L.L. Attitudes can be measured, American Journal of Sociology, 1928, 33, 529-54.
 7. Likert, R.A. Technique for the measurement of attitudes, Archives of Psychology, 1932, No. 140.

Apart from this there was development in statistical methods which helped in efficient experimental design and quantitative findings. The following three scientific methodologies are worth noting.

1) EXPERIMENTS ON INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR IN GROUPS :

Experimental technique for conducting experiment on the conditions affecting human behaviour are a valuable gain for group dynamics. Lately the experimental research designed to investigate the effects of social variables upon individual behaviour was yet another gain. One problem experimentally investigated was :- "What change in an individual's solitary performance occurs when other people are present". The laboratory answer to this question came from Triplett⁸ when he compared the performance of children in winding fishing reels when working alone and when working together with the other children. Triplett's conclusion was that the "group situation tended to generate an increase in output of energy and achievement". Yet another important study in the present era was that

8. Triplett, N. The Dynamogenic Factors in pace making and competition, American Journal of Psychology: 1897 9, 507-533.

conducted by Moore⁹ in which he showed experimentally the influences of expert and majority opinion upon the moral and aesthetic judgement of individuals.

A similar line of research attempted to compare the performance of the group and the performance of the individual. Gordon¹⁰, Watson¹¹ and Shaw¹² experimented on tasks which could be performed either by individuals or by groups.

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9. Moore, H.T. The Comparative Influence of and Expert Opinion, American Journal of Psychology, 1921, 32, 16-20.
 10. Gordon, K. Group Judgements in the Field of Lifted Weights, Journal of Experimental Psychology, 1924, 7, 398-400.
 11. Watson, G. B. Do Groups Think More Effectively than Individuals? Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1928, 23, 828-336.
 12. Shaw, M. E. A Comparison of Individuals and Small Groups in the Rational Solution of Complex Problems, American Journal of Psychology, 1932, 44, 491-504.

2) CONTROLLED OBSERVATION OF SOCIAL INTERACTION :

The observation about the nature of group functioning depends upon the skill, sensitivity and interpretive predilections of the observers. This, however, led to variations in the results. To refine methods of observations, attempt was made first in the field of child psychology. Reliability was heightened by restricting observations to rather overt interactions whose meaning could be revealed in short span of time. Methods were also developed for sampling the interaction of large group of people over a long time to ensure efficient estimates. This method of controlled observation has been used extensively in field group dynamics¹³. Where observational technique is combined with experimental procedure. The principal researches responsible for these important advances were Goodenough, Jack, Olson, Parten and Thomas.

3) SOCIOMETRY :

The techniques of sociometry are also applied in this study of groups. Moreno was responsible for initiating this technique in the U.S.A. A questionnaire was prepared and

13. Bonner, Hubert, Group Dynamics Principles Applications, 1956.

each person was required to indicate those other people with whom he would prefer to share some specified activity. This procedure led to finding of valuable information about interpersonal attraction and repulsion among the members of the group. The data concerning "who choose whom" helped in preparing a SOCIOGRAM which revealed the picture of cohesiveness with the help of sociometric techniques in the field of group dynamics. It was easy to find features of groups, patterns of friendship and sub group formation etc. Hence, "the significance of sociometry for group dynamics lay both in the provision of a useful technique for research on groups and in the attention it directed to such features of groups as social position, patterns of friendship, sub-group formation and more generally, imformal structure "¹⁴.

EXPERIMENTAL MANIPULATION OF GROUP ATMOSPHERE :

In the field of group dynamics the works of Lewin¹⁵,

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14. Cartwright & Zander, Group Dynamics, Page 15.
 15. Lewin, K., Lippitt, R. & White, R., Patterns of Aggressive Behaviour in Experimentally created "Social climates". Journal of Social Psychology, 1939, 10, 271-299.

Lippitt¹⁶, and White have made significant contribution. The main objective of the researches done was to study the influence of experimentally induced group atmosphere on the individual members and the group as such. Groups of children aged about 10 and 11 years were formed to meet regularly over a period of several weeks and the leaders of these groups tried to induce the group atmosphere. While creating these groups, care was taken to ensure their initial compatibility : by using sociometric test, play ground observations and teacher interviews etc. The adult leaders behaved in a desired fashion for manipulating experimentally the atmosphere of the group. The leadership also was categorised as democratic, autocratic and Laissez-faire.

Lewin chose problem of leadership for investigation because of its practical importance in education, social groupwork, administration and political affairs. He thought that the study of problems like leadership status, communication, social norms, group atmosphere and intergroup relations would help in understanding the nature of group dynamics. French conducted a laboratory experiment

16. Lippitt,R.An Experimental Study of Authoritarian and Democratic group atmospheres, University of Iowa, Studies in Child-Welfare,1940,16(3),43-195.

in order to compare 'the effects' of fear and frustration on organised Vs. Unorganised groups. Bavelas¹⁷ undertook an experiment to determine whether the actual behaviour of leaders could be significantly modified through training. He also suggested the idea of 'group decision' which was used as a means of improving industrial production.

An noted earlier, small group research has assumed considerable importance in our modern social setting. There are many areas in which the efforts of small group prove rewarding. The study of the structure of the group and its dynamics¹⁸ can prove helpful in making the group function more effectively. The questions that can be posed are whether the effective cooperation inside the group can yield better results or when the individuals within the group compete with each other.

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17. Bavelas, A. Morale and Training of Leaders. In G.Watson (Ed) civilian morale Boston. Houghton Mifflin, 1942.
 18. Hare, Paul, A, Handbook of Small Group Researches, 2nd edition, 1976.

HISTORICAL APPROACH OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP :

Kropotkin's work at the beginning of the century pointed to some of the social structures (guilds, cooperatives and similar associations) through which human cooperation has been carried on historically, and he offered many valuable insights into their functioning and context. His objective, however, was more moral than scientific. A few followers of the French Sociologist Frederic Le Play, most notably Patrick Geddes and his students in England also did some work in the field. One should also note the too little known field studies of Demetrius Gusti (1941) in Rumania, whose investigations of rural villages included informal systems of cooperation among villages as well as internal patterns. In India, the early work of Radha Kamal Mukerjee (1923) and his students gave much attention to process of cooperation through which interfamily and intervillage projects were carried on in such areas as irrigation.

In the United States, it is chiefly in the works of the earlier rural sociologists that any attention to cooperation is to be found in significant degree. Scattered throughout historiography and ethnology, there

are, of course, specific references to the various cooperative enterprises that have marked man's struggle for existence. But nowhere have these been brought together, and nowhere has a systematic, scientific effort been made to deal with cooperation as a cultural and historical force.

Margaret Mead, in her notable work 'cooperation and competition among primitive peoples' (1937), showed what could be done among preliterate people but few have chosen to follow.

In a remarkable monograph Mark A. May and Leonard W. Doob (1937) made a distinguished effort to summarize existing knowledge on the subject and to arrive at central principles. This work provided an analysis of experimental approaches to cooperation and competition as well as an evaluation of existing anthropological and sociological studies and it covered a wide range of types of cooperation in military organisations, clubs, associations and economic enterprises.

Nothing of comparable stature has been done since May and Doob's contribution. Given the seemingly assured place of cooperation as the subject of social-interaction

studies, "it may therefore be said without reservation that the most urgent sphere of research in the future must be comparative historical. Types of cooperation drawn from all ages and social orders must be distinguished, their structures and internal processes analysed, their relations to the surrounding scene investigated, and their impact upon members assessed."¹⁹

Moreover, such studies were coordinated with inquiries into the dynamics of social development. One of the major aspects of the rise of new nation is the impact - often dislocative of the emerging administrative structures of national authority upon cooperative systems that have been in existence for centuries.

Cooperation and Competition :

Although cooperation is commonly contrasted with competition (a process in which efforts towards a common objective are separate and in rivalry with one another),

19. International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences,
Vol. 3, The Free Press, Page 389-390.

it must be emphasised that the two rarely, if ever occur separately. Indeed, each may have a contributory relation to the other.

Competition requires at least a degree of prior cooperation that is necessary for the setting of rules and imposing of sanctions without which competition would dissolve into open war. Conversely it is, doubtful that cooperation would be the major force it is were it not for pressures of competition that spur some to cooperate with others as a means of enhancing their effectiveness in the struggle for existence. In any event, a purely cooperative or purely competitive relationship would be hard to imagine.

In each of the types of cooperation outlined above ranging from the automatic to the spontaneous, elements of competition are to be found side by side with, indeed often embedded in, those of cooperation. However dependent the two orders or types may be upon one another in natural or human ecology, competition is always a latent possibility²⁰.

20. International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences,
Vol. 3, Page 390.

In groups which are motivated to cooperate, all the members work towards a group goal which depends on interdependent activity on the part of the members, while in competition individual's reward depends upon his achievement which can usually be maximised only at the expense of other group members (May and DOOB 1937).

BIESANZ AND BIESANZ : have said that - "competition is the striving of two or more persons for the same goal, which is limited so that all can not share it".

According to Sutherland, Woodworth and Maxwell (1952) "competition is an impersonal unconscious, continuous struggle between individuals or groups, for satisfactions which because of their limited supply, all may not have".

Thus it can be said that competition is a struggle, in which more than two persons are involved and they try to achieve the same goal.

In the words of Fairchild(1944) - "Competition is the struggle for the use or possession of limited goods".

According to Bogardus - "Competition is a contest to obtain something which does not exist in a quantity sufficient to meet the demand".

The concept of cooperation and interrelated concept of competition are rarely missing in discussions of interpersonal and intergroup relations. They play an important role in the writings of many social theorists. Yet despite the obvious significance of these concepts for the understanding and control of social process, there has been little in the way of explicit theorizing and virtually no experimental work with respect to the effects of cooperation and competition upon social process.

The work in this area has largely been concerned with the effects of the individual's motivation to achieve under the two different conditions. None of the experimental studies has investigated the interactions between individuals, the group process that emerges as a consequence of the cooperative or competitive social situation.

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE COOPERATIVE AND COMPETITIVE

SITUATIONS :

Cartwright and Zander²¹ in their book have illustrated that in a cooperative social situation the goals for the individuals or subunits in the situation under consideration have the following characteristics - the goal regions for each of the individuals in the situation are defined so that a goal region can be entered (to some degree) by any given individual or subunit only if all the individuals under consideration can also enter their respective goal regions (to some degree). All the members of the group are interdependent on each other and they have their common goals interrelated.

In a competitive social situation the goals for individuals or subunits in the situation under consideration have the following characteristics: If a goal region is entered by an individual or a subunit, the other individuals or subunits will to some degree, be

21. CARTWRIGHT AND ZANDER, Group Dynamics Research & Theory, Page 461.

unable to reach their respective goals in the social situation under consideration. The phrase "contriently interdependent goals" will be used to identify any situation in which the individuals or the subunits composing it have their goals interrelated by the characteristic defined immediately above.

It is however, important to note that in real life, "Pure cooperative" and "pure competitive" situations do not exist. Therefore it is possible for individuals to be promotively interdependent with respect to one goal and contriently interdependent with respect to another goal. Deutsch points out an example of a basketball team where members may be cooperatively interrelated so far as the 'Goal' is winning the game, and competitively interrelated so far as the goal is to be the star of the team.

On an analysis of the cooperative situation it is revealed that if one individual makes a move in a direction the others also move in the same direction. On analysing the competitive situation it is seen that the movement of an individual towards a goal has no necessary effect on the movement of others.

when pairs or larger groups are compared in the solution of the same types of problems, the groups are found to be more efficient when a division of labour is possible. Similar problems were used by the OSS in their assessment of men, such as crossing a mined road or building a bridge. Five men teams were found to ask more questions and produce better written and field solutions than individuals, regardless of the method of presenting the problem (e.g. Verbal, photograph or scale model). The group will be specially efficient if the members are friends (Husband, 1940). On the other hand, if a task does not tend itself to a division of labour (e.g. a mathematical problem), pairs take longer to solve each problem but have more correct answers presumably because of the error checking feature of interaction (Barton, 1926, Watson, 1928). In another study with a similar type of task three men groups were no more effective than individuals in solving problems in symbolic logic (Moore & Anderson, 1954).

The individual will also be more efficient if the task requires a kind of coordination of the group which some of its members can not supply because of low motivation, personality conflict, poor communication or

other reasons (Thorndike, 1938). In one experiment college students chose individual problem solving over paired. On the other hand, the difficulties in cooperative effort when cooperation was seen as taking too much time may have unexpected "Positive" effects.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP :

Each one of us, through sheer chance and the influence of heredity and personal experience, develops a distinct type of disposition according to which he responds to other people in characteristic ways. Thus, one man will work upon all of his neighbours as potential enemies and will be suspicious in his dealings with them; another will see himself surrounded only by well wishers and will be free and open in his social dealings. These dispositions may be termed as interpersonal response traits.

In addition to the interpersonal categories there are dimensions of personal behaviour, which also play an important role in the activity of a group. The personal categories include those dimensions usually associated with personality, such as intelligence,

social sensitivity and adjustment, as well as aspects of the individual biological nature such as age, sex and physical strength.

One way of forming a concept of the phenomenon of attraction on the part of one person towards another is in terms of valence for any other object to the degree that there are forces acting upon the latter that impel it (either physically or psychologically) towards the former. In behavioural terms, positive valence corresponds to an approach tendency. This way of looking at things has the advantage of identifying the particular phenomenon of interpersonal attraction as a special case of a general class of phenomena.

Within any given society, each person develops a distinct mode of interpersonal relationship that characterizes his social conduct. These traits are consistent and constitute stable response dispositions that channel the behaviour of the individual in a variety of social situations.

Karen Horney was one of the leaders in the NeoFreudian movement who asserted that neurotic difficulties must be seen as disturbances in interpersonal relations. At one point in her theoretical work she found

it convenient to classify her patients into three types according to their predominant interpersonal response traits: (1) Moving towards people; (2) Moving against people; (3) Moving away from people.

ANXIETY :

While, conducting the experiments on competitive Vs. cooperative situations, the element of anxiety was studied as dependent variable. It was considered necessary to determine whether cooperative situation account for more anxiety or competitive.

Anxiety is increasingly recognised as a powerful factor in our present day life. It is to be found influencing behaviour in different settings and facets of our life. It was Freud who first of all tried to explain this factor of anxiety. He regarded it as an unpleasant affective state or condition. It was distinguishable from other affective states such as anger, grief, sorrow etc. Initially Freud believed 'that anxiety resulted from the discharge of repressed, unrelieved somatic, sexual tension (LIBIDO)'. However, he later modified his views and conceived anxiety as a signal

indicating the presence of a danger situation. He also made distinction between objective anxiety (source of danger being external world) and neurotic anxiety (source of danger being internal impulsion). Objective anxiety was considered by Freud as synonymous with fear and was proportional to the magnitude of the external danger whereas neurotic anxiety was disproportionate to the magnitude of external danger.

1. Mowrer enunciated a 'guilt theory' of anxiety in which he said "Anxiety comes, not from the acts which the individual would commit but he dares not, but from acts which he has committed but wishes that he had not" (1950).
2. Sullivan regarded anxiety as an unpleasant state of tension arising from experiencing disapproval in interpersonal relations. Once anxiety is aroused "it distorts the individuals perception of reality, limits the range of stimuli that are perceived and causes those aspects of the personality that are disapproved to be dissociated".
3. According to May, anxiety was "the apprehension cued off by a threat to some value which the

individual held essential to his existence as a personality "(1950, Page 191) further he said that "competition for success is the greatest source of anxiety in our culture"²².

WORK SATISFACTION :

Arousal of want and its immediate satisfaction is so common in the life of man that little attention has been paid to it by either the wanting and fulfilling individual or the observing psychologist. As one psychology textbook has put it :

"That a hungry man bites food, is not 'news' and it does not seem to make interesting psychology".

Since individuals tend to join groups for three general reasons, either for the prestige of membership or to help the group reach a goal, or because they give importance to the association with member (Festinger et al. 1950), their satisfaction with the group can be the result of success in any of these three areas.

In a study of competition versus cooperation, individual

22. Rollo May, The meaning of anxiety.

working together but with individual goals, are contrasted with individuals working together with a single group goal. The competitive groups are generally less efficient and less satisfying to the members (Deutsch, 1949, Mints, 1951, Grace 1954), except in cases where members are asked to cooperate to receive a group score in a task.

One element in competition which would appear to be related to member satisfaction is the fact that the members are competing for a high status in the group. Members of groups with a high consensus on status are in general more satisfied with the other members and also with the task performance than members of group in which the status of the members is uncertain (Heinilke & Bales 1953).

However, we may ^{note} certain basic aspects of the dynamics of the group in regard to cooperative Vs competitive social situation. In a study made by Martin M. Grossack²³ following points were noted :-

23. Martin M. Grossack : Some effects of cooperation and competition Upon Small Group behaviour, Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology, Vol. 49-1954.

- 1) A cooperative situation is one of "task directions" whereas a competitive situation is not. A situation of task direction is defined as one in which an individual goal is reached by the achieving of a group task.
- 2) According to Deutsch the basic difference between cooperation and competition is in the way an individual achieves his goal in both situations. Cooperation was defined by him as a situation in which no individual reaches his goal unless all other individuals also enter their goal region.
- 3) Cooperation may be viewed as an example of cohesiveness due to task direction. Back demonstrated that the relatively high amount of cohesiveness existed in situations where the group mediated individual goal.
- 4) Conditions of task direction are likely to produce instrumental communications, while the competitive situations will tend not to have such an effect.