

PREFACE

In the curricular structure introduced by this University for students of Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is introduced by this University is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that university has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'.

Keeping this in view, study materials of the Post-Graduate level in different subjects are being prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis.

The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing, and devising of a proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in 'invisible teaching'. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other.

The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials the easier it will be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up the University.

Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts are still experiment—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned.

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Post Graduate Degree Programme
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Code : PGSW-III

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**Netaji Subhas
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**PG : Social Work
(MSW)
(New Syllabus)**

Course Code : PGSW-III

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Unit 1 □ Social Groups: Features and Types

Structure

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1.0 Objective

In this unit we will focus our attention on the meaning & features of Social Group, and know the classification of group with special emphasis on the characteristics of Primary & Secondary group.

1.1 Introduction

When human beings enter into human relation, interact with each other, is resulting a sort of bonding and ultimately forming a social unit. The social unit first take in the shape of primary group (s), like family and then enlarge themselves into various social associations. The groups and the associations together form the society. It may be noted that a mere collection of individuals does not make a group. If such individuals do not have any awareness of the fact of a relationship existing between each other, the group cannot come into exist as social unit. This unit will highlight understanding on the concept of social groups: its basic features and various types.

Meaning of Social Groups:

Two or more persons in interaction in general sense constitute a social group. In strict sense, group is a collection of people who interact each other in an orderly way on the basis of shared expectations about each other's behaviour. As a result of this interaction, the members of a group feel a common sense of belonging. But all collectivises do not constitute a social group. A group is distinct from an aggregate (people waiting at railway station or bus stand) member of which do not interact with one another. The essence of the social group is not physical closeness or contact between the individuals but a consciousness of joint interaction. According to MacIver, by social group, we mean "any collection of human beings who are brought into social relationship with one another". According to Bottomore, "A social group is an aggregate of individuals in which a definite relations exist between the individuals comprising it, and each individual is conscious of the group itself and its symbols"(*Social Groups: The Meaning, Characteristics, Classification and Other Details (7041 Words)*, n.d.-a). This consciousness of interaction may be present even there is no personal contact between individuals. According to Maclver and Page social groups refers to "any collection of human beings who are brought into social relationship with one another". Social relationships involve some degree of reciprocity and mutual awareness among the members of the group.

Thus, a social group consists of such members as have reciprocal relations. The members are bound by a sense of unity. Their interest is common, behaviour is similar. They are bound by the common consciousness of interaction. Viewed in this way, a family, a village, a nation, a political party or a trade union is a social group. In short, a group means a group of associated members, reciprocally interacting on one another. Viewed in this way, all old men between fifty and sixty or men belonging to a particular income level are regarded as 'aggregates' or 'quasi-groups'. They may become groups when they are in interaction with one another and have a common purpose. People belonging to a particular income level may constitute a social group when they consider themselves to be a distinct unit with special interest.

Sociologists have classified social groups on the basis of size, local distribution, permanence, degree of intimacy, type of organisation and quality of social interaction etc. Therefore, persons in very close proximity with each other, and travelling by a common public transport at a time, cannot form a group. But as soon as a

consciousness arises that they are related with each other, either through a common social organization or for achieving a common goal, they form themselves into a group.

1.2 Features of Social Group

The social group, therefore, can be taken to possess the following characteristics:

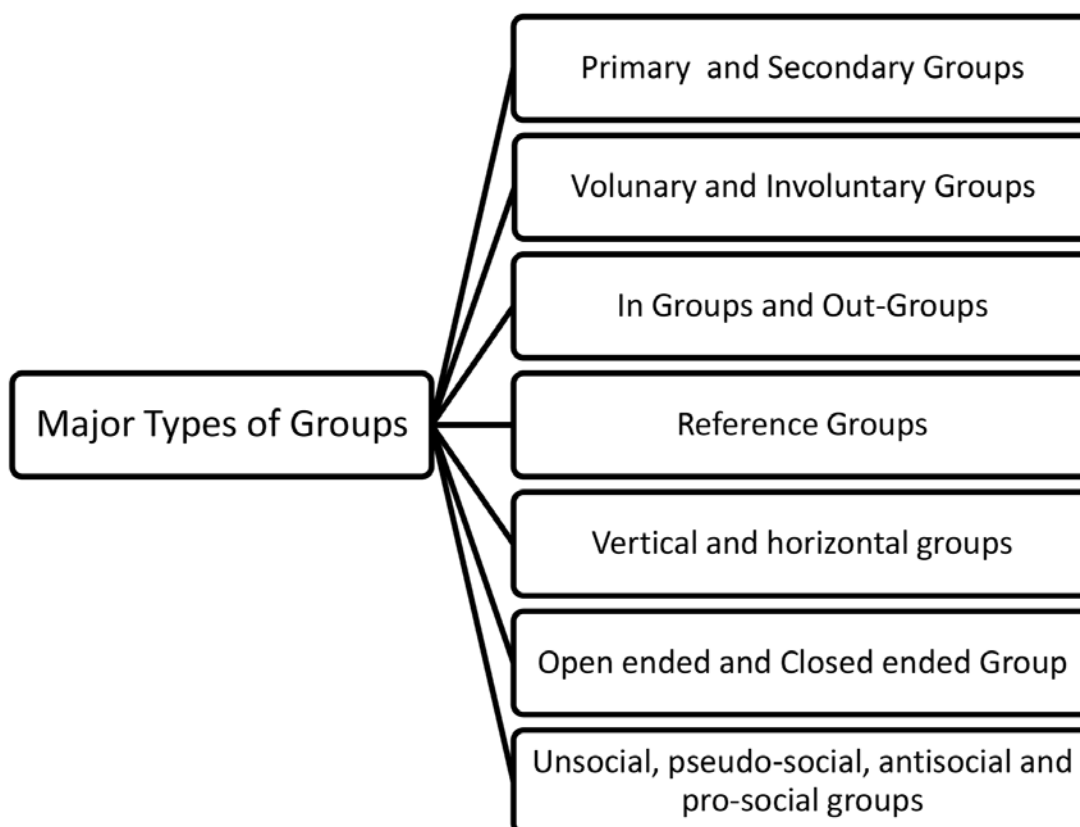
1. **Mutual Awareness:** The members of a social group must be mutually related to one another. A mere aggregate of individuals cannot constitute a social group unless reciprocal awareness exists among them. Mutual attachment, is therefore, regarded as its important and distinctive feature. It forms an essential feature of a group.
2. **One or more Common Interests:** Groups are mostly formed for the fulfilment of certain interests. The individuals who form a group should possess one or more than one common interests and ideals. It is for the realization of common interests that they meet together. Groups always originate starts and proceed with a common interest.
3. **Sense of Unity:** Each social group requires sense of unity and a feeling of sympathy for the development of a feeling or sense of belongingness. The members of a social group develop common loyalty or feeling of sympathy among themselves in all matters because of this sense of unity.
4. **We-feeling:** A sense of we-feeling refers to the tendency on the part of the members to identify themselves with the group. They treat the members of their own group as friends and the members belonging to other groups as outsiders. They cooperate with those who belong to their groups and all of them protect their interests unitedly. We-feeling generates sympathy, loyalty and fosters cooperation among members.
5. **Similarity of Behaviour:** For the fulfilment of common interest, the members of a group behave in a similar way. Social group represents collective behaviour. The-modes of behaviour of the members on a group are more or less similar.

- 6. Group Norms:** Each and every group has its own ideals and norms and the members are supposed to follow these. He who deviates from the existing group-norms is severely punished. These norms may be in the form of customs, folk ways, mores, traditions, laws etc. They may be written or unwritten. The group exercises some control over its members through the prevailing rules or norms.

1.3 Classification of Groups

We all are members of different types of groups at the same time. We are members of families, friendship groups, labor groups, and fan clubs and religious groups. Let us try to classify different types of groups with some understanding of such concepts as follows:

Types of Groups:



Primary Group and Secondary Groups

We all are members of a primary group, i.e. family. In primary group, there is a face-to-face, close and intimate relationship among the members such as we all are experiencing in the family. But in a secondary group the relationship among the members are indirect, impersonal and superficial such as the political party, a city and trade union etc.

C.H. Cooley classified social groups on the basis of kind of contact into primary and secondary groups. The concept of primary group was introduced by Charles Horton Cooley, in his book “Social Organisation” published in 1909. The Primary group is the most simple and universal form of association. It is nucleus of all social organisations. It is a small group in which a small number of persons come into direct contact with one another. They meet “face to face” for mutual help, companionships and discussion of common questions. They live in the presence and thought of one another. The primary group is a small group in which the members live together. In the words of C.H. Cooley “By primary groups I mean those characterized by intimate face to face association and cooperation. They are primary, in several senses, but chiefly in that they are fundamental in framing the social nature and ideal, of the individual”. Such groups in Cooley’s phrase are “the nursery of human nature” where the essential.

Voluntary and Involuntary Groups

Anyone can join political parties or specific groups (usually professions). Such groups in which we participate with our own choices and efforts are voluntary groups. In contrast, we are forced or automatically accepted to join a particular group without making a choice. For example, you will be automatically grouped as a member based on gender, age, nationality, religion, and ethnicity. These latter groups, which we have been born with or have no choice but to become members of, are involuntary groups.

Dwight Sanderson has classified social groups into three types on the bases of structure such as involuntary, voluntary and added one more as delegate groups. An involuntary group is that to which man has no choice, which is based on kinship such as the family, tribe or clan. A voluntary group is one which a man joins of his wishes. At any time he is free to withdraw his membership from this group. A delegate group is one to which a man joins as a representative of a number of people either elected

or nominated by them. Parliament or Assembly is a delegate group (*Social Groups: The Meaning, Characteristics, Classification and Other Details (7041 Words)*, n.d.).

Open ended Group and Closed ended Group

An open group is a group that features a change of membership. Virtually anyone can be a member here. If some members withdraw, new members will join and the group will continue. For example, anyone can join the Hrithik Roshan fan club. On the other hand, some groups maintain their exclusivity by limiting membership and making participation much more difficult. There are few eligibility to qualify for membership in such clubs. Such groups with limited membership criteria are closed groups. Examples: Mafia (Underworld), Royal Enfield Motorcycle Club, Nightclub, etc. Closed groups usually have a time limit, and group meetings have a given number of sessions. Members are usually expected to stay in the group until the end of the group, and no new members are added.

There are several advantages to opening a group that takes on new members when other members leave. One of these is a better opportunity for members to interact with different people. The potential drawback of the Open Group is that changing members quickly can lead to loss of cohesion, especially if many customers drop out or many new customers are added at once. Therefore, it is recommended to add new members one by one as soon as the opening is done.

Vertical and horizontal groups

There is a specific group whose horizontal group members are made up of individuals from all walks of life. For example, the religious community can include members of all classes. Such groups can be thought of as vertical groups. Horizontal groups, on the other hand, are primarily composed of members of one social class, for example occupational groups of doctors (eg IMA); other groups like electricians, carpenters, and hidden officers etc, are primarily made up of members of the same social class. This is also supported by P.A. Sorokin, an American sociologist, has divided groups into two major types – the vertical and the horizontal.

Reference Group:

The term ‘reference group’ was coined by Herbert Hyman (1942) to apply to the group against which an individual evaluates his or own situation or conduct. He distinguished between membership group to which people actually belong and a

reference group which is used as a basis for comparison. A reference group may or may not be a membership group (*Social Groups: The Meaning, Characteristics, Classification and Other Details (7041 Words)*, n.d.). The term reference was introduced into the literature on small group by Muzaffar Sherif in his book “An Outline of Social Psychology”. The concept was subsequently elaborated by R.K. Merton and Turner. Strictly speaking, a reference group is one to which we do not actually belong but with which we identify ourselves or to which we would like to belong. We may actually belong to a group, yet we accept the norms of another group to which we refer but to which we do not actually belong. L. Merton writes, individual in the society choose not only reference group but also reference individual. Reference individual has often been described as “role model”. The person who identifies himself with a reference individual will seek to approximate the behaviour and value of that individual in his several roles (*Social Groups: The Meaning, Characteristics, Classification and Other Details (7041 Words)*, n.d.).

According to Sherif, “A reference group is one to which the individual refers and with which he identifies himself, either consciously or sub-consciously. The central aspect of the reference group is psychological identification.” According to Shibutani, “A reference group is that group whose outlook is used by the act or as the frame of reference in the organization of his perceptual field. Horton and Hunt have pointed out, “A reference group is any group to which we refer when making judgements – any group whose value-judgements become our value-judgements”. They have further said, “Groups which are important as models for one’s ideas and conduct norms...” can be called reference groups. Ogburn and Nimkoff say, “Groups which serve as points of comparison are known as reference groups”. They have further added that the reference groups are those groups from which “we get our values or whose approval we seek”.

The individual evaluates his own situation and behaves with respect to three reference group situations (*Social Groups: The Meaning, Characteristics, Classification and Other Details (7041 Words)*, n.d.). The reference group provides many of the standards that guide behaviour, even when the standards are contrary to those of earlier membership groups.

Unsocial, pseudo-social, antisocial and pro-social groups

George Hasen has classified groups into four types on the basis of their relations to other groups. They are unsocial, pseudo-social, antisocial and pro-social groups.

An unsocial group is one which largely lives to itself and for itself and does not participate in the larger society of which it is a part. It does not mix-up with other groups and remains aloof from them(*Social Groups: The Meaning, Characteristics, Classification and Other Details (7041 Words)*, n.d.).

But it never goes against the interests of the larger group. A pseudo-social group participates in the larger group of which it is a part but mainly for its own gain and not for the greater good. An antisocial group is one, which acts against the interest of the larger group of which person is a part. A pro-social group is the reverse of the antisocial group. It works for the larger interest of the society of which it is a part.

In-group and Out-group

William Graham Sumner, an American Sociologist in his book “Folkways” made distinction between in-group and out-group According to Sumner, “The groups with which the individual identifies himself are his in-groups, his family or tribe or sex or college or occupation or religion, by virtue of his awareness of likeness or consciousness of kind”. The individual belongs to a number of groups which are his in-groups; all other groups to which he does not belong are his out-groups. In-group produces among the members the sense of belonging together which is the core of the group life. In-group attitudes contain some element of sympathy and a sense of attachment to the other members of the group. It embodies the collective pronoun ‘we’. The members of the in-group display cooperation, goodwill, mutual help and respect for one another’s rights (https://www.pacc.in/e-learning-portal/ec/admin/contents/47_DSW%2013_2020122905135171.pdf).

1.4 Characteristics of Primary Group and Secondary group

Primary Group possesses certain essential traits. The following are the characteristics of Primary group.

- 1. Closeness or Physical Proximity:** Physical proximity or presence provides an opportunity for the development of intimate and close relations. In order that relations of the people may be close, it is necessary that their contacts also should be close. Seeing and talking with each other makes exchange of ideas and thoughts easy. It is because the members of primary group meet

and talk frequently that a good feeling and a sense of identify develop among them quickly. Prof. K. Davis remarked that physical proximity or face-to-face relation is not indispensable for establishing close contact or intimacy. For example, we may have face-to-face relations with our barbers or laundrymen; there may not be intimacy or primary group relationship with them. On the other hand, we may establish contact with our close friends through the correspondence of letter even though we may not have seen for many years. Relationships among primary group members are based on intimacy not on contractual obligations.

2. **Smallness:** Primary groups are smaller in size. The smaller the size of the group, the greater will be the intimacy among its members. Relationship can be intimate and personal only in a small group. It is a fact that intimacy declines as the size of the group increases. The limited size of the group facilitates the participation of all its members in its common activity. Better understanding and fellow feeling among the members can be possible only when the group is small in size.
3. **Durability:** Primary group is relatively, a permanent group. Intimacy between the members becomes deeper because they meet frequently and are closely associated with one another. All the members of the primary group try to fulfill the condition of continuity or durability of relationship.
4. **Identity of Ends:** Members of a primary group have similar attitudes, desires and objectives. They all work together for the fulfillment of their common end. Every member tries to promote the common welfare of his group. The experiences, pain and pleasure, success and failure, prosperity and adversity of an individual member are shared by all the members of the group. The interests of one are the same as the interests of other. Kingsley Davis has rightly remarked “the child’s needs become the mother’s ends”. Such a complete and mutual identity of ends is seldom found.
5. **Relationship is an end in itself:** The Primary relationship is regarded not as a means to an end but rather as an end itself. If the people make friends for specific purpose or means, we cannot regard their friendship as genuine. A genuine friendship or true love is not formed for a purpose. It is above the consideration of any selfish interest or interests. Friendship is a source of

pleasure, it is intrinsically enjoyable. The primary relations are voluntary and spontaneous because they possess intrinsic value.

6. Relationship is Personal in nature: The primary relationship is a matter of persons. It exists because of them and it is sustained by them. It should be noted that this relationship comes to an end as soon as one of the partners disappears from the primary group. The personal relationship is non-transferable and irreplaceable. One individual cannot be substituted by another individual in the same relationship, for example, no one can take the place of our dead friend. The vacuum created by his death cannot be filled in, nor can anybody establish and continue the same kind of relationship with us after his death.

(vii) Relationship is Inclusive: In the primary group, we face our fellows as total human beings. A person comes to know his fellow in all the details of his life, as a whole being.

It thus becomes clear that primary relationships are non-contractual, non-economic, non-political and non-specialised; they are personal, spontaneous, sentimental and inclusive.

Secondary group have the following features :

1. **Large in size:** Secondary groups are relatively large in size. These groups comprise a very large number of persons. For example, a political party, a trade union, international associations, such as Rotary Club, Lions Club, the Red cross Society which consists of thousands of members scattered all over the world.
2. **Formality:** The relations of members in a secondary group are of a formal type. It does not exercise primary influence over its members. Secondary groups exert influence on the members indirectly. They are controlled by formal rules and regulations. Informal means of social control are less effective in regulating the relation of members.

Formal social controls such as law, legislation, police, court etc. are very much important for the members. Moral control is only secondary. A formal authority is set up with designated powers in secondary groups. Here man is a legal and not a human entity.

3. **Impersonality:** Secondary relations are impersonal in nature. In the large scale organisation, there are contacts and they may be face-to-face, but they are, as says K. Davis, of “the touch and go variety.” Here contacts are chiefly indirect. The two persons may never see each other. Relations among them are impersonal, because members are not very much interested in other members as ‘persons’.

They are more concerned with their self-centered goals than with other persons. There is no sentiment attaching to the contacts. It is not required that the parties know each other. For example, in the large scale factory organisation, the members are known to each other as the boss, the foreman, skilled workers, ordinary workers etc. The secondary relations are viewed as a means to an end and not an end in itself.

4. **Indirect Cooperation:** Indirect cooperation is another characteristic of secondary groups. In it, members do different things interdependently. Ali contributes to the same result, but not in the same process. They do unlike things together. In the large scale organisation where division of labour is complex, the members have not only different functions but different powers, different degrees of participation, different rights and obligations.

5. **Voluntary Membership:**

The membership of most of the secondary groups is not compulsory but voluntary. Individuals are at liberty to join or to go away from the groups. It is not essential to become the member of Rotary International or Red Cross Society. However, there are some secondary groups like nation or the State whose membership is almost involuntary (*Netaji Subhas Open University*, n.d.).

6. **Status depends on Role:** In secondary groups the status or position of every member depends on his role. The determination of his status is not influenced by ascription or by his birth or personal qualities but by the achievement or the role he plays. For example, the status of the President in a trade union depends upon the role he plays in the union and not upon his birth.

Importance of Primary and Secondary Groups

The primary group is considered very important both for the individual and society. The primary group plays a commanding role in the development of human

personality. It is fundamental in forming the social nature and ideal of the individual. It is regarded as a nursery of human nature. The development of “self” – the core of personality depends on close, intimate and interaction with primary group. The primary groups not only satisfy the human needs but also provide a stimulus to each of its members in the pursuit of interest. The face-to-face association-ship or the close physical presence of others acts as a stimulus to each.

Importances of Secondary Groups are of special significance in modern society. They have become almost inevitable today. Their appearance is mainly due to the growing cultural complexity. They are also called “special interest groups” or “self-interest groups”. The examples of secondary groups include a city, a nation, a political party, corporation, labour union, an army, a large crowd etc. These groups have no direct bearing on the members. According to C.H. Cooley, “Secondary groups are wholly lacking in intimacy of association and usually in most of the other primary and quasi-primary characteristics”. According to Kingsley Davis, “Secondary groups can be roughly defined as the opposite of everything said about primary groups”.

In place of cottage industry we have now grant corporations employing thousands of people. Population has moved from the village to the city. The changing trends of modern society have swept away primary groups. Man now depends more on secondary groups for his needs. The child was formerly born in the warm atmosphere of the family, now he is born in the cold atmosphere of the hospital.

The secondary group helps its member to improve their efficiency in their specific field of activity and in consequences, they become experts. It broadens the outlook of its members. It accommodates a large number of individuals and localities which widens the outlook of its members. It is more universal in its judgement than the primary group. The secondary groups have broaden opportunities. A large number of professions and occupations are opening the way for specialised careers. Secondary groups provide a greater chance to develop individual talents. The talented individual neither can nor rises from an unknown background to the highest position in business, industry, civil and technical services. The functions of secondary groups are essential for our society if we wish to enjoy our current life styles. The people are becoming more and more dependent on these groups. The tremendous advances in

material comfort and in life expectancy in modern world would be impossible without the rise of goal-directed secondary groups (*Social Groups: The Meaning, Characteristics, Classification and Other Details (7041 Words)*, n.d.).

Difference between Primary Group and Secondary Group

It is important to mention here that dichotomy between primary and secondary groups were perceived by Cooley but it was not elaborated by him. However, the following are the chief points of difference between the primary group and secondary group.

Subject	Primary Group	Secondary Group
Size	Primary group is small in size. The membership is limited to a small area. It is not spread over the whole world.	Secondary group the membership is widespread. It may contain thousands of members scattered in different parts of the world.
Physical Proximity:	Primary groups are based on close contacts. People in these groups do not merely know one another and interact frequently. They have a strong emotional ties.	Secondary groups do not give its members feeling of close proximity that primary groups offered. In primary group, one is concerned with the other person who is fitting a role.
Duration	Primary groups exist for a longer period. Relationships in primary group are permanent in nature.	Secondary groups based on temporary relationship. For example, members of a club infrequently and only for a few hours at a time.
Kinds of Cooperation	In a primary group, on the other hand, the members directly cooperate with each other participating in the same process. They sit together, discuss together play together.	In a secondary group, the cooperation with the fellow members. The members cooperate only to achieve the objective of the group.
Types of Structures	The primary group is based on an informal structure. The members participate in the same process. The spontaneous adjustment in the working of the group. No formal and detail rules are drafted. The structure is simple.	Every secondary group is regulated by a set of formal rules. A formal authority is set up with designated powers and a clear cut division of labour in which the function of each is specified in relation to the function of all the rest fellows.

Subject	Primary Group	Secondary Group
End in itself versus Means to an End	Primary groups are an end in themselves. Individuals enter into primary relations because such relations contribute to personal development, security and well-being.	Secondary group on the other hand is goal oriented. Members of the secondary group value extrinsic political, economic or other benefits of the relationship rather than relationship itself. It is concerned with a particular aspect of personality and it develops only that aspect.
Position	In primary groups, the position or status of a person is fixed according to his birth, age and sex.	But in secondary groups, the position of a person is determined by his roles.
Difference in Development of Personality	Primary group is concerned with the total aspects personality of a person and it develops his whole personality and qualities like love, sympathy, obligation, mutual help, tolerance etc.,	While secondary groups promote self-interest and individuality.
Relationship	The relationship of members with each other in primary group is direct, intimate and personal. They meet face to face and develop direct contacts. People in primary group share their feelings, thoughts, fears and doubts without worrying that others will think less of them.	A secondary group is based on impersonal relationships. It does not exercise a primary influence over its members because they do not live in presence and thought of one another. In secondary group individual interact with part of their personality. There is a feeling of external constraints between members.
Social Control	The mode of recruitment to the primary group is formal. Therefore, formal means of social control are more effective. As members have closeness and greater intimacy, there is great control over a member.	Secondary group on the other hand, uses formal means of checking deviation of violation of norms. Formal agencies of social control are more effective as formal relations exist between the members.

1.6 Conclusion

We may conclude by saying that this unit devoted for inculcating knowledge on various types of social groups. We all are members of different groups, like families, friendship groups, and fan clubs and religious groups or other groups. Sociologists have tried to classify different types of groups such as voluntary and involuntary groups. We can join political parties or specific groups (usually professions). We participate in such groups with our own choices and efforts are voluntary groups. In contrast, we are forced or automatically accepted to join a particular group without making a choice. For example, you will be automatically grouped as a member based on gender, age, nationality, religion, and ethnicity. These latter groups, which we have been born with or have no choice but to become members of, are involuntary groups. Besides, as observed that there is also open group and closed group. An open ended group and closed ended group, anyone can be a member in open. For example, anyone can join the Hrithik Roshan fan club. On the other hand, some groups maintain their exclusivity by limiting membership and making participation much more difficult. There are few eligibility to qualify for membership in such clubs. Such groups with limited membership criteria are closed groups. Examples: Mafia (Underworld), Royal Enfield Motorcycle Club, Nightclub, etc. Closed groups usually have a time limit, and group meetings have a given number of sessions. Members are usually expected to stay in the group until the end of the group, and no new members are added. We also see also those vertical vs horizontal groups. There is a specific group whose horizontal group members are made up of individuals from all walks of life. For example, the religious community can include members of all classes. Such groups can be thought of as vertical groups. So, a length of discussion has given on various social groups including primary, secondary, vertical, horizontal and reference groups etc, which of course would be very helpful for the learners.

1.7 Exercise

1. Define the meaning of social group. Explain the basic features of group.

2. Write notes on reference group.
3. Discuss various types of social groups.
4. Distinguish between primary groups and secondary groups.
5. Explain the importance and functions of social group.

1.8 Reference

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Unit 2 □ Historical Development of Social Group Work: Global and Indian Scenario

Structure

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- 2.2 Establishment of the club**
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2.0 Objective

This unit will help us to know how Social Group Work as a method of Social Work developed Globally as well as in India.

2.1 Introduction

Group work was considered a pre-field move. It became away and returned to the field (Middleman and Goldberg Papel, 1988). Group work played an essential role in dealing with multiple shifts. In the United States in the late 19th and early 20th centuries: American Industrialization; Large Population Moves from Rural to Urban, And; a massive wave of immigrants, especially to urban areas of the United

States (Konopka, 1972; Garvin, 1997). You can see the history of social work. In particular, and the focus is on three main phases. (1) Formation of group work Club, the 1930s; (2) Merger to form National Socialist Association Workers, 1950s; (3) Revival of group work in the 1970s. Nevertheless, we can consider some of the developments between 1910 and 1920. Adult Education, Recreation, and Community Engagement We have begun to maximize the potential of group work. You understood better that group can be used to help people work effectively in their group. A community that enriches people's lives and supports their key people The relationship was inadequate or dysfunctional. So they noticed it Possibility of groups to help people acquire social and problem-solving skills. They started using groups well to prevent crime and rehabilitation of maladapted people. The organization that laid the foundation for Group work was self-help, informal, and recreational. In a settlement house, a neighborhood center, Y's, den Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Jewish Center Camps, and more Trade union organizations in the industry. Later called "group work agency," Uniting on these ministries, a fascinating new element was involvement In small groups, democratic way of life, community responsibility, and recognition Membership in activities that affect the national or even global level. In the early 1920, Mary Richmond saw the possibility of working with the group. She wrote about the importance of small group psychology. Mary P. Foret, Politics Scientists, wrote about social solutions in the book "The New State" in 1926 (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d.).

The problem will be "resulting in the formation of groups in and around the neighborhood."

Social interest. Foret firmly believed in the power of a small group of educated people. In the community, she solved the social problems that her neighbors had in common. John Dewey proposed and developed the idea of progressive education, The usefulness of small groups as early as 1933. Dewey recognized a social group Working methods that apply the principles of progressive education to small things An informal group in the leisure sector. Dewey, through his advanced training. Advocated for exercise and cooperation with small recreation groups (Fatout, M., 1992). Increased influence of Foret and Dewey's significant thinkers in group work Individualist perspective rooted in group work (Falck interview, 1998) (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d.).

2.2 Establishment of the club

The first form of group setting goes back to Sir George Williams. Hard-working workers organized them at the Bridgewater Curtain Shop Christian way of life. The success of such groups has influenced the expansion 25th Such grouping to other textile shops and other young men; thereby, The London Youth Christian Youth Association was born in 1844. The waves soon YMCA members worked and encouraged women and girls in Germany and the United Kingdom. They are for Christian fellowship. There are few similar movements in the UK Connections with the church were created simultaneously in 1855. This was directly guided by Emma Roberts, a female who formed a prayer community among them: her friends and wife. Arthur Kennard started training general women London Institute for nurses returning from the Crimean War. Successful The activities of these two organizations motivated Mr. Kiniad and Mr. Roberts. Unite both organizations under one head. That's why the YWCA was born. It was released in 1877. Considering the underprivileged female Privileged women in the United States have launched many programs over the years. One such notable movement was the establishment of the Union Prayer Circle in 1858 by Marshal O. It was converted into a boarding school after 1860 and renamed to Ladies Christian Union in 1866. The room was rented in the attic, preparing for the number of warehouses and new wage earners' needs. In the United States, the Boston YWCA began in 1866 and had 30 women. About the temporal, moral, and religious well-being of their fellow humans. Both YMCA And the YWCA have proven to be pioneers of active organizations. Participation in education, recreation, and religious activities for young men women. The publications of these associations Greatly contributed to the literature on social group activities. Contribution By these associations in providing qualified volunteers to carry out group work It's huge (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d.).

2.3 Settlement movement

Social turmoil, a child of the Industrial Revolution, required the establishment of an organized organization to meet the welfare needs of those who bear the burden

Of industrialization. The origin of the Settlement movement is in Jane Addams who was founder of Hull House in Chicago in 1889. The exercise focused Worked in the causes of poverty and the three areas of influence (“3 Rs”)- Research, Reform, and Residence. Jane and other pioneers who believed it Use the group approach to set your exercise goals as follows (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d.): Identification of settlement workers with the environment; local residents could share their cultural and religious knowledge among the poor and group responsibility for social reform.

The crowded immigrant population has become the target of most settlement’s workforce.

There they were able to meet the changing conditions and needs of people. People match different resources to meet people in need. They provided Various services such as education, health, legal services and Advocated a change in social policy. According to Rameshweri Devi and Ravi, Prakash (2004) also served as the center of English education. Citizenship and clubs do both older and younger immigrants: the best American culture (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d.).

Stanton Coit focused its activities on forming the club A neighborhood that unknowingly builds a deep bond with the Diocese. He was the founder of a neighborhood guild, The first American settlement in 1886. Picnics and other recreational activities We have picked up so that more young people and villages can also participate. A structured and informal association. Woods and Kennedy are on the horizon of reconciliation, Commenting that the Settlement movement has opened up many possibilities for “actual interaction of associations.”

2.4 Playground and recreational exercise

Of note is the role of recreational movements in group life. The socialization process begins when the child begins dating and accepting Another kid playing with him. Even in America’s first urban playground, English Village Green and group games were only in the Nineteenth century. In 1868, Boston’s first church came up with a vacation Playground while Washington Park in Chicago was open for team play in 1876. But it was 1885 when a sand park began in Boston. Marie Zaklzevska, whose playground was chosen as an exercise in history Social group work. She got the inspiration for such a concept. Children are playing in a mountain of sand in a

public park. Immediately playground and summer camp was shot like a mushroom under the leadership of villages, churches, and schools. That is the Successful playground movement and the need for more tax-backed play Reasons that led to the establishment of a playground and recreation club American in 1906. Schools and other social institutions that supported the movement Emphasize the importance of such group experiences in child growth's social and emotional areas. World War Community Services organized between Wars I and II The recovery movement is greatly accelerated. Originating from a private territory Owned a small playground for the poor, which was the growth of the recreational movement. It's far beyond imagination. It has grown so much that it is now. The main source of national wealth (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d.)h.

2.5 World War and then reflection of Social Group Work

After World War I, social scientists also Community / community. Frederick Slasher (1927) was the first to do this. He studied criminal organizations in the Chicago area. He learned the group by making friends observe the members of the gang and the internal workings of the gang. Slasher is watching All gang members had status in the group associated with The functional role that members played for the gang. It suggests a familiar role in the evolved culture within the gang. A code that all members can follow. The code was enforced by the group opinions, coercion and corporal punishment. Work this with others affects how youths work in groups at the Settlement House (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d.). Neighborhood centers and youth organizations. Some later group workers relied on naturalistic observations from a group of boys. Show how unity and group hostility develop in summer camps and operations. Social scientists have also learned more about human behavior A group from research in the industry and the US Army. Characteristic, Workers in the industry participate in informal organizations both inside and outside the workplace. Foster expectations that their work and labor relations will affect people of one type-gender, age, ethnic qualities, education, and social class (Jose, 2008; Warner, 1947). Such aggregates (also known as "grids") are a place where employees classify themselves according to rank, such as a cafeteria, Gender, age and location of the plant (Hughes, 1946).

2.6 Theoretical foundation

In the 1930s, the influence of small group theory, especially differentiation, was seen. Performed by Coolie in connection with primary and secondary groups. The Tony's Proposal to Distinguish Society and Community It also helped to deepen the understanding of the group. There was an explosion in the 1950s Of the development of knowledge and theory related to small groups. Mayor Researchers included Vales, Hohmanns, Bion, Lewin, Weber and others. I will mention a few. A big problem that emerged in the first half of the 20th In century was suitability, patterns of communication and interaction, leadership, Interpersonal preference, and social cognition, which are important factors handling group processes in social work. It's also important to mention thatthe contribution of psychoanalytic theory, learning theory, field theory, social exchange theory, and system theory explains group functions (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d.).

2.7 A Glimpse of Professionalization and Development of Literature in Social Group Work

We all know that the group work is comparatively younger than casework. The first course of group work was offered by Clara Kaiser, the School of Social Work at Western Reserved University in Cleveland. When she left for New York in 1935, Grace Coyle continue to develop this course. Group was taught as a method and partially as a field of practice. By 1937 about 10 schools of social work offered this course in social work. However, as Schewartz points out, the real historical differences between the two is that caseworksoon becomeidentified with social work profession, where groupwork didnot become to formally linked with profession until much later during the National Conference of Social Work in 1935. It was earlier rather informal in nature until the founding of National Association of Social Workers (Toseland and Rivas 1998). Some of the milestone may be pointed out as below:

- National Conference of Social Work 1935
- Development of American Association of Study of Groups 1936. The group created National Association for the Study of Group under the leadership of Arthur Swift
- 1939, group work began to be treated as a distinct subject marked by National Conference of Social Work
- Identification of group work in social work became stronger in 1940s
- 1940 and 1950s group workers began to use groups more frequently to provide therapy in mental health setting
- Youth organizations like girls scouts, YWCA started practicing it
- Some books like “Social Group Work Practice” (1949) by Wilson, “Social Group Work” (1949) by H. B. Trecker, “Group Work with American Youth” (1948) by Grace Coyle and “Therapeutic Group Work “ by Giesle Konopka given a strong input to put social group work as a part of helping function of social work widen scope of knowledge and application.

2.8 Social Group Work in India

Group work as a method of social work came to India with its introduction In 1936, 10 years after being recognized, of professional social education as a formal practice in the West. The evidence Group approach is used in various situations-providing charity services, providing religious education, and mobilizing people through oral tradition. Struggle for freedom against Britain in social reform strategies like Sarvodaya and Bhoodan’s movement. However, there are few or few documents. The theory is based on it. All social work schools in India teach social group work courses (Also known as “social work with groups” or “how to work together” group at both graduate and graduate levels”). We observed a series of social work department in different universities started incorporating this method in its course curriculum. First it is observed by Tata Graduate School of Social Work known now as Tata Institute of Social Sciences in 1936 followed by other schools of social work,

such as Delhi School of Social Work, Visva-Bharati university, BHU, Madras School of Social Work, Indore School of Social Work, Lucknow School of Social Work, and so on.

There was a brave attempt to develop some indigenous materials in group work by the then United Nations Social Welfare and Development Centre for Asia and the Pacific and the Association of Schools of Social Work in 1979. Compared to casework Contribution to the development of indigenous materials for community organizations and groups, the work can be traced back to the 1960s. Social School Association Cooperation with the technical cooperation mission (US) designated minimum The standard for group work practice in India. VD. Mehta (1987) and Helen Joseph (1997), two social workers attempt and agree to follow the historical evolution of group work in India. With the theoretical perspective used in social work schools in India, the practice model is primarily American, as is the case with social work itself. The practice of social group work in India is generally limited to corrective actions. Other facilities in urban areas, hospitals, etc. The general activities undertaken were recreational, educational, and cultural in character. The method of group work was also practiced in community work. In the case of Mahila Mandala and Yuvac Mandala, it was mainly recognized. As a collaborative work. The practice of group work is a Field research program at some schools initiated. Opened with the mediation of agency students, the community works with groups of children, adolescents, adults, and the elderly. In urban and rural areas, it is "ill" or healthy. For example, social work students in Kerala, housed in an open community, organize groups for children (Balasamithis) for adult women (kudumbashree self-help group) a disadvantaged area. For such groups, Socialization, structured recreation, functional literacy, awareness-raising effective parenting, health and hygiene, environment, Joint autonomy and other socially related issues. In recent years, a group of adolescent girls and boys was also organized in the village Addressing life skills development issues, including property management, Consider reproductive and sexual health, sexuality, family planning methods, and more. The social reality is that most of them get married early. This brief review of historical trends in group work practices Understands the current trends in group from a broad perspective. An

improvement approach focused on improving individual function is underway group members continue to be the best practice. Practice is based on problem identification, assessment, and addressing of this model. Emphasizing the mutually beneficial characteristics of group work. The role of workers is to mediate between the needs of group members and society. In these situations, mutual help and sharing of responsibilities are appropriate. Like short-stay homes and Nariniketan are supposed to help women Live together in adversity, support each other, and confront adversity events in life. Also useful for community groups such as Mahila Mandals and Youth Associations and other community groups that share mutual benefits. The central purpose is to give and receive support. Professional social workers are also involved as advisors or moderators for self-help groups highlight the Mutual Help property for the group (Jose & Jyotiram, n.d).

2.9 Conclusion

In this unit we get a detailed Glimpe of the historical development of Social Group Work in global as well as Indian Scenario. We came to know the contribution of various clubs & movement in developing Social Group Work as one of the crucial Primary method of Social Work.

2.10 Exercise

1. Briefly write the history of Group Work around the globe

2. Write history of social group work in india

3. Write Short Note on—
 - (a) Settlement Movement.
 - (b) Establishment of the Club.
 - (c) Impact of World War & reflection of Social Group Work.

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Unit 3 □ Introductions to Social Group Work

Structure

- 3.0 Objective**
- 3.1 Introduction**
- 3.2 Definition of Social Group Work**
- 3.3 Goal & Functions of Social Group Work**
- 3.4 Functions of group work**
- 3.5 Underlying Values in Social Group Work**
- 3.6 Conclusion**
- 3.7 Exercise**
- 3.8 Reference**

3.0 Objective

In this Unit we will get a swpe to understand the Scope, Goal & function of Social Group Work, we will also become aware of the values and principles of Social Group Work.

3.1 Introduction

Social group work is a method of social work that helps individuals improve their social function and better address individual, group, or community problems through targeted group. It is also the process and method by which group life is affected by workers who consciously direct the interaction process towards achieving the goals envisioned within the framework of democratic standards. Its characteristics are that group work with group experience is used as a means of individual development in association with groups and that group workers develop social responsibility and active citizenship for the improvement of democratic society. It is to be interested. Group work is a way of servicing individuals within and through small groups of individuals to make the desired changes to the client's participants.

The basic objectives of this unit is to make the learners understand about social group work, its basic purpose, values catering around group work and detailed discussion on various principles one should follow while practicing group work.

3.2 Definition of Social Group Work

Social Group work is a psychosocial process which is concerned no less than with developing leadership ability and co operation than with building on the interests of the group for a social purpose (Hamilton, 1949).

Kanopka (1960), group work is a method of social work which helps person to enhance their social functioning through purposeful group experiences.¹(Rengasamy, n.d.)

Trecker (1980) says, “ Social group is a method in social work through which individuals in groups are helped by a worker who guide their interaction in programme activities so that they may relate to one another and experience growth opportunities in accordance with their needs and capacities to the end of individual, group and community development”.²(Rengasamy, n.d.)

(In Indian context) Social Group Work will refer to working with a small group (members ranging from 7-10) to a medium size group (members ranging from 10-20) for a variety of purposes beginning from recreation to behaviour modification on the one hand and accomplishing tasks including social change and development on the other, with a variety of clients ranging from children to elderly. The worker makes use of the expertise in human relationships to help these groups to achieve the group goals in a participatory manner while paying adequate attention to individual needs and social norms (Siddiqui,2008)

Group Work is well accepted method in social work profession. It basically helps towards improving social functioning of an individuals and groups. It is directed towards bringing about desired changes of individuals, group and community level. The method is applied mainly at two levels, one at individual level and two, entire group as a system level. It helps individual to develop potentialities; identify abilities and help to cope better; enhance social functioning with their environment; to learn to inculcate new behaviour which sustained their life. One should remember that the

relationship between Worker to Member, Worker to Group, Member to Group generate a lot of forces attraction and interaction. Group became an instrument to meet the basic needs and strengthen human capacities. It functions through programme media(Rengasamy, n.d.).

Basic aims and objectives:³

1. Enable individual change;
2. Provide Individual support
3. Socialization of individuals
4. Develop self concept
5. Inculcate positive values.
6. Individual growth and assessment
7. Group growth

3.3 Goal & Functions of Social Group Work

Social group work is an orderly, systematic plan; way of working with people in groups. Social group work is not an activity but a way of conducting many different activities. The members are helped to learn new ideas, develop skills, attitude changes & responsibilities through participation in a social process(Sehgal, n.d.). In group work group itself has utilized by the individual with the help of the worker as a primary means of personality growth, change & development of individual Alan Brown (1992 summarizes goals or purpose of group work are individual assessment; individual support and maintenance; individual change; use for educational, information-giving and training groups; leisure/ compensatory groups for recreation & enjoyment; mediation between individuals and social systems(Sehgal, n.d.). The specific purpose of group work could be mentioned as:

- To teach individual to live & work together and participate in group activities for their intellectual emotion& physical growth
- To taught to work together with other people & participate in different activities.
- To develop individual personality& behaviour by using different group work process

- To prepare the individual to learn how to take responsibility in a democracy style of working.
- To give opportunity to them who have potentiality, worth and dignity of leadership
- To make best use of leisure time ; to learn division of labour & specialization of role just to indicate to play individual role in the group
- To provide suitable task to the individual according to her/his skill, knowledge and interest
- To widen ones horizon; to prepare people for social change
- To apply group therapy in need of physical, mental and emotional adjustment
- To solve problems of adjustment by development of individual's personality through the group process.
- Prepare the individuals to learn to share responsibility in working of democracy as active citizens of the country.
- Give opportunity to those who have potentialities of leadership.
- To prepare the people for social change.

3.4 Functions of group work

Group works mainly sees the situation & the needs of all the individuals & try to solve the problems of the individuals. Main functions of group work could be summarized as below:

- Group work is carried on with voluntary group in practice in social agency settings for helping individual to grow and assist in a group.
- A group fulfil the socially desires need of each individual in the group
- Group workers take care of social agencies using it in many fields such as education, religious & recreational field.
- It's a helping process with dual purpose of individual as well as group growth. So, the function of the group work is always for the betterment of the individual as well as for the growth of the entire group.

- Group worker plays role of a enabler & helping person who use her/his better knowledge and try to make the group better.

3.5 Underlying Values in Social Group Work

Values refer to our belief that influences our practice on how one should behave. It is therefore influences our practice. There are few core values relating to group work practice as discussed below:

1. Contextual value:

The main sources of this value are sponsoring agency and value of social work profession. The core social values in group like equality, democratic participation, group interaction, etc. the agency has its own values that prevail and influences group work. Therefore, it most important to look into the questions: are decision made within the group or outside group? What is the locus-standi of power? Another set of influence come from social work profession. Group worker imbibe professional values like worth and dignity of individual group member, teach respect and fairness in approach, importance of participation, individualization etc.

2. Value of Group Worker:

Personal value of worker also influence in the process while working with group. But it is necessary that group worker should inculcate value of cooperation and mutual help enable participation among themselves, promote individual and group initiative, freedom to express thought and feelings, value of members etc.

3. Value of Group Member:

Group members also have their own set of values. Worker should be aware about this. It is also a fact that member's values are influenced by case, race and culture. So the worker need to make understanding clear that the own value or interest should not dominate rather they should respect each other and create a good value system within the group

4. Human Relationship:

The group work process deals with basic values of human relationship. The basi values as conceptualizes by Northen (2007) and Kurlend are:

- (a) Dignity and worth of individual member;
- (b) Social Justice
- (c) Mutual help/responsibility

Dignity and Worth: All members should be accepted as they are. We should respect the inherent worth and dignity of member. Group worker should recognize and treat each member as dignified member;

Social Justice: fairness in approach should be the cardinal principal. Everyone should get equal opportunities. They have the right to self determination. The worker should understand and take up working on removing causes that created inequalities.

Mutual Responsibilities: People are interdependent. They are capable of helping with each other. Worker should therefore enable norms, communication, democratic process and taking mutual responsibilities for the development of group and community at large.

Principles of Group Work as pointed out by HB Trecker mentioned below with elaborate discussion (Sehgal, n.d.) :

The group worker benefits the conscious understanding of the basic principles of social group work because this knowledge provides him/her a frame work to work with the group. They are basic to all social work methods. A principle is a verbalized statement, general rules or laws, fundamental truths by which we proceed from one situation to another. Principle must be understood to mean a hypothesis so adequately tested by observation and experiment that it may be put forward as a guide to action. Social group work principles are guiding statements that have come from experience and research. Basic principles of working with people in groups to help them grow and change have emerged from the practice of social group work. The objectives of social group work can be fulfilled only within the frame work of principles. In 1948 H. B. Trecker wrote 10 principles in his book “Social Group Work: Principles and Practice which is still read widely as those are cardinal principles of group work practice. The ten principles are discussed below for our better understanding:

1) The Principle of Planned Group Formation

In social group work, a group is a basic unit that an individual can carry out. As a result, organizations and employees responsible for group formation or agency acceptance have factors specific to the group’s situation that make a particular group

a positive potential for personal growth and the realization of recognizable needs. You need to know how to form a group. The Social Group Work process uses group as a medium for providing services to the individual, hence the formation of a group is a prerequisite for a group worker. Whether a group worker works with groups already functioning or forms her own group, s/he should be aware of certain factors while forming a group so that the group becomes a positive potential for individual growth. A group has to be formed in a planned way before initiating the group work process. From what is explained by Trecker we can say this principle comprises the following fundamentals (Sehgal, n.d.) .Groups like individuals are different, evolving, developmental and ever-changing and tremendously influential upon the behaviour of individuals. While forming the group age, sex, socio economic background etc must be looked into before setting elements of conscious design and plan.

The group worker's skill will be evident in the way s/he consciously gives aid at the point of group formation. In India group formation can become a difficult exercise as the people may lack the motivation to join a group and may do so after much persuasion. So the group worker must have the skill to deal with the resistance of such members. The group worker should be equipped with an in-depth understanding of the client population, and pay attention to inter- personal compatibility and other factors such as age, caste, gender, socio-cultural background etc.

2) The Principle of Specific Objectives.

In the work of social groups, specific goals for the development of individuals and groups must be consciously set by employees based on the needs of individuals and groups. Specific objectives of individual and group must be consciously formulated by the worker in harmony with group wishes looking into capacities of members and in keeping with agency function. The group worker should help the members achieve the overall objectives of social work through its own specific objectives, which are to assist individuals to grow and change; supplement emotional and social nourishment; promote democratic participation and remedy individual and social disorganization (Sehgal, n.d.) .

Agencies and their workers must be aware of what people want from group experiences and help them to get it. The group worker who recognizes the need for consciously formulated specific objectives for individuals and groups becomes a

purposeful, rather than an unfocused worker and makes the group work in a planned than haphazard exercise. Objectives, thus, become a controlling force in the life of the group and the group worker should have clarity about the specific goals s/he wants to achieve along with the benefits s/he is hoping the members would get.

When the worker focuses on individual and group objectives, s/he reduces the likelihood of permitting her/his own needs to get in the way of the group s/he helps the members to see their strengths and limitations and set their objectives accordingly, in alignment with the agency's formulated purposes. The expectations and the aspirations of the members should also be given due weightage while formulating the objectives and activities planned accordingly.

3) The Principle of Purposeful Worker-Group Relationship.

In social group work, there is a conscious intentional relationship between workers and group members based on the acceptance of group members as they are and the willingness of the group to accept assistance from workers. There is a need to establish a good relationship between worker and member. A consciously purposeful relationship must be established between the worker and the group members based on mutual acceptance. This principle is based on the premise that it is both possible and necessary to create an effective working relationship with a group before the worker can be of any help (Sehgal, n.d.). Before the worker helps the group members, it is necessary for him/her to develop meaningful relationships and win confidence with each other. The worker's relationship with the group is a major tool, and the quality and strength of this relationship determine the extent to which the group can be helped to the fullest realization of its potentialities. When the group workers adopt the procedures suggested by this principle, they begin their work motivated by an initial desire to understand the group as a basis for helping it. By encouraging the group to "be itself" and accepting it as it is, the worker becomes accepted and helpful to the group.

4) The Principle of Continuous Individualization.

In social group activities, it is recognized that groups are different and individuals use group experiences in different ways to meet diverse needs. Therefore, continuous individualization must be practiced by workers. Groups and individuals within groups must be understood as potential for development and change. Groups

are different and individuals utilize group experiences in a variety of ways to meet their differing needs; consequently, the principle of continuous individualization must be practiced by the group worker. Each group has to be seen as unique, different from any other group, like the members in the group (Sehgal, n.d.). When the group worker individualizes a group, she accepts the fact that human beings are naturally different. To work with groups in awareness of their differences as well as similarities is a reinforcement of the belief that people have a capacity to change, when given adequate opportunities for and help in changing. The worker should be ready for a variety of individual responses rather than a uniformity of response. S/he should accept the differences in individual ability and growth; strive to help individuals understand themselves and help them modify their behaviour towards those who have special needs. Individualization should be a continuous process on the part of the group worker who accepts the certainty of change of individuals and groups (Sehgal, n.d.).

5) The Principle of Guided Group Interaction.

In the work of social groups, the main source of energy that drives the group and makes a difference to the individual is the interaction or interaction of the members. Group workers influence this interaction through the type and quality of participation. Social Group Work is a method through which individuals in groups in an agency setting are helped by a professionally trained worker who guides their interaction in various program activities. The idea is that they relate themselves with others and experience growth opportunities in accordance with their needs and capacities (Sehgal, n.d.).

Interaction is a process whereby two or more persons are in a meaningful contact, whereby their behaviour is modified. When people are in groups, the possibility of interaction and inter-stimulation are always present (Sehgal, n.d.).

The main source of energy which propels the group is the interaction of the members through planned programme and the group worker influences this interaction by the quality of her/his designed plan and participation.

As the possibility of inter-stimulation through interaction is always present in a group, the Social Group Worker must harness and consciously direct and utilize this natural social process. The presence of the worker whose role is to actively influence

the type and the degree of interaction, converts the social process into the social group work process. The worker is primarily interested in helping to bring about individual growth and social development for the group as a whole as a result of guided group interaction(Sehgal, n.d.). S/he enhances the potential for interaction by helping members to assume participating roles. The group worker uses methods that stimulate the group to the fullest possible analysis and understanding of their own situation and thereupon influence the social interaction of the constituent members of the society(Sehgal, n.d.).

6) The Principle of Democratic Group Self-Determination.

In social group work, groups must take the highest level of responsibility according to their abilities, make their own decisions and help them decide on their own actions. The principle of self-determination is a core value of the social work philosophy and has to be practiced, irrespective of the method of working. In social group work method, as in other methods of social work this principle is of great significance. The idea is to inculcate in the members an ideology of democracy(Sehgal, n.d.). The group must be helped to make its own decisions and determine its own activities, taking the maximum amount of responsibility in line with its capacity and ability. The group has a right to make its own choices and the capacity to make satisfactory decisions. The aim of the group worker is to encourage an ever-increasing capacity on the part of the group to take responsibility for its actions. This principle assumes that groups can develop only when they are given opportunity to behave responsibly but it is to be consciously judged as to how much responsibility a group can be asked to assume at any point in its development (Sehgal, n.d.) .

The group worker must first help the group to develop a conscious group-self before it can become responsibly self-determining. The worker should give up any need to dominate the group and instead work with the group on the basis of her/his ability to share her/his wide experience and competence (Sehgal, n.d.).

7) The Principle of Flexible Functional Organisation.

In social group work, the processes by which workers lead a group build a formal organization for greater programme. It is important as the details of the actual structure of help in taking activities systematically. A formal organization must be flexible and should be promoted if it can meet the perceived needs, be understood

by its members, and function accordingly. Formal organizations need to be able to adapt changes within the group. Every group has some informal organization of its constituent members enables it to function. As the group is formed for specific objectives, it should also have a formal organization to help it achieve these objectives. This formal organization should meet a felt need, be flexible, adaptive and should change as the group changes (Sehgal, n.d.) . The principle does not imply that group worker should organize the group; rather she should help the group organize itself (Sehgal, n.d.) . The group should be encouraged to explore its needs, set its objectives and determine specific functions and helped by the group worker to make its own decisions.

The worker should help the group to determine who should take the leadership assignments along with the qualifications and expectations, so that the members are aware of what the group expects from them.

Not only the structural details of this formal organization, but the process through which the worker guides the group to have a formal organization is equally important. Group efforts which may be scattered and haphazard become focused when formal organization is made available, as it allows the energies of the group members to be properly channelized. Tasks and duties should be identified and allocated in an orderly manner and members helped and encouraged to assume responsibilities as like a formal organization. The process to organize itself is an excellent vehicle for growth. The formal group organization should be simple, stable yet flexible, open to changes as per group needs. The experiences of the group members in solving the organizational problems are no less valuable than the other program experiences.

8) The Principle of Progressive Programme Experience.

In social group work, the program experience in which the group participates must begin at the level of progress related to the interests, needs, experiences, abilities of the members, and the developmental abilities of the group. Program in social group work does not only mean the activities or events but is abroad concept that includes the entire range of individual and group relationships, interactions and experiences deliberately planned and carried out with the help of the group worker to achieve the group goals (Sehgal, n.d.) .The group worker should not impose her/

his program plan on the group but help the group to develop its own program by extending to the group a variety of choices. S/he may only make suggestions as to possible programmes. The program development is a continuous process and grows out of group potentialities. This principle implies that there is starting point for all group programmes. Small beginnings can culminate into bigger and more challenging tasks as the group progresses. Always programming to be designed from simple to complex so that members can achieve the vision. The program experiences in which the groups engage should begin at the level of member interest, need, experience and competence and should develop in tandem with the developing capacity of the group (Sehgal, n.d.). The worker should help the group to enjoy a progressive series of program experiences in consonance with the group's potential and capacities. The group cannot be expected to do the same thing all the time (Sehgal, n.d.). After success in simple activities, the group can be encouraged to move to more complex experiences.

9) The Principle of Resource Utilization.

In social group work, the entire agency and community environment has resources that should be used to enhance the content of individual and group-wide group experiences. This principle guides the group worker to utilize the available resources to enrich the content of the group experience for individuals and group as a whole. For this it is imperative that the Social group worker should possess knowledge about the resources available in the group, agency and the community (*Social Group Work Working With Groups*, n.d.). S/he should use her/his skill in locating and then acquainting the group with the various resources which can be utilized by the group for different programs (Sehgal, n.d.). The worker serves as a liaison between the group and the community and her/his ability becomes apparent in the skill with which she draws upon the environment. S/he not only helps to stimulate the group to action but also helps them to discover and use the agency and community resources and those within the group. She must ensure that the members procure the required material for the smooth conduct of the group sessions. S/he should take initiative in mobilizing both material and human resources and oversee the utilization of the available resources by the members for the common good (Sehgal, n.d.).

10) The Principle of Evaluation.

In social group work, continuous assessment of outcome processes and programs is essential to ensure maximum self-actualization for all. Continuous evaluation of the process and program regarding the results of workers, agencies and members are essential. The social group worker should carry out the evaluation of the outcomes in a carefully planned manner. Maintaining records in a systematic and orderly way aids the evaluation process. Evaluation carried out in an objective and neutral way helps in revealing the extent to which the group has been successful in achieving the group goals. A feedback from the members along with the observation and assessment of the worker help the group members develop insights into their strengths and weaknesses. Evaluation should be done at the end of each session and at the time of the termination.

Konopka has described certain principles to work with the groups. Summary of these principles has been narrated here (“Principles of social group work,” n.d.):

- Social worker’s goal is to enable group members to move toward greater independence and capacity for help.
- The social worker must use the scientific method to prepare for action fact-finding analysis and diagnosis in relation to the individual, group and the social environment.
- The social worker must form purposeful relationship. It means a conscious focusing on the needs of the group members and attempts to fulfil them. The social worker must use himself consciously. This includes self-knowledge and discipline in relationship but without the loss of warmth and spontaneity.
- The social worker must accept members as they are, without condemning their behaviour. This involves deep understanding of group members as well as knowledge and identification of values regulating human beings.
- The social worker must understand the origins of his own value system and be able to handle it in relation to the value system of others.
- He must allow members to develop their own behaviour without much interference and to choose their own point of departure without imposing outside demands. But the worker has responsibility for stimulating change.

Cohen has also discussed certain principles which maybe significant in working with the groups. According to him:

- The group members must be encouraged to help themselves by the social worker playing as in director enabling role rather than a manipulative one. It means the group members be given the right of self-direction and self-determination.
- The work with the group should be started at the level of group members. It means that proper knowledge of educational, economic, social and other characteristics are essential while working with the group. If the work or programmes are above the mental level of members, they will lose their interest. Social worker must focus not merely on the immediate problem as seen by the group but on relation to the total situation.
- Social worker must keep in mind that individual differences exist while dealing with the group members.
- It should be kept in mind that the welfare of individual is inextricably interwoven with the welfare of the group. Therefore social worker must be concerned with the development of material, human and social resources to meet all the needs of all the members of the group.

3.6 Conclusion

On the basis of above discussion, one would be very clear about various principles of social group work practice. These are guiding principles and without understanding of such ideas, practice of group work in any set up would be meaningless. One should at least consider HB Trecker 10 principles of social group work, such as principle of planned group formation, principle of specific objectives, principle of purposeful worker group relationship, principle of continuous individualization, principle of guided group interaction, principle of democratic group self determination, principle of flexible functional organization, principle of progressive planning and programme, principle of resource utilization and principle of evaluation.

3.7 Exercise

1. Define Group Work. What are the purpose of group work
2. Discuss underlying values in group work practice
3. Explain various principle of Social Group Work practice in India
4. Discuss the function of Group Work

3.8 Reference

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(Footnotes)

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Unit 4 □ Group Work as a Method of Social Work

Structure

4.0 Objective

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Social Work and Social Group Work

4.3 Values

4.4 Sanctions

4.5 Group Work Education

4.6 Group Work as Method of Social Work

4.7 Requirement of Knowledge to practice as a method in social work

4.8 Technology Mediated Group Work

4.9 Functions of Social Group Worker

4.10 Conclusion

4.11 Exercise

4.12 Reference

4.0 Objective

In this unit we shall know about the relationship of Social Work & Social Group Work. We will also know in what ways Group Work would be an important method of Social Work and also the role of Social Group Workers.

4.1 Introduction

Social group work is a primary method of social work. The other two primary methods are case work and community organization. We shall devote this chapter to understand basis of social group work as a method of social work and what are its advantage and disadvantages. First, we will discuss the concept by understanding social work and group work and its current trends as a method, and then we shall reflect on its advantages and disadvantages along with understanding of functioning of social group workers.

4.2 Social Work and Social Group Work

Group work is a method of social work is used to organize and carry out different types of group activities. Giselle Konopka pointed out group work as a method of social work that helps individuals members in a group to improve their social function and it addresses individual, group, and community issues through targeted group experiences (Varghese, n.d.). The Trekker defined group work as a method of social work supported by staff that guides individuals in many groups in different community environments to interact with others and gain experience in their program activities. So, group work provides opportunities for growth according to needs and abilities until individuals, groups, and communities (Varghese, n.d.). Alan Brown said: “Group work provides a situation where individuals help each other. It’s a way to help both groups and individuals. In the definition of social work created by the US Open in 1956, described five attributes are required for social practice jobs. These attributes are considered to be the basis of value, purpose, sanctions, knowledge and methods. Let us try to understand it.

4.3 Values

The values of social work practice are based on democratic and humanitarian principles. It influences the practices of social work. We are already familiar with social group work definitions. Here we are trying to explain some descriptions of group work to look at how attributes finds its expression in the practice of group work and how social group work and social work have evolved separately from each other. We will also briefly explain how group work has been established as a method over time (Varghese, n.d.).

Social work values are based on the principles of democracy and humanitarianism. The intrinsic value and dignity are recognized, regardless of position or behavior. Social work believes in inequality, justice, and freedom. Social challenges, structures, institutions, and practices that prevent individuals, groups, and communities from achieving these goals. Therefore, human rights values are also important in social work values. Another significant value is recognizing that everyone has the unique

ability to solve their problems. Given the right conditions, this person can solve the problem well. Social work values are systematized as professional ethics carried out by professional associations. Social work principles are derived from these values of acceptance, personalization, self-determination, confidentiality, worthless attitudes, and controlled emotional participation. Group work values correspond to the general importance of social work (Varghese, n.d.).

Gisela Konopka describes three human concerns about the group work while practicing group work as a method of social work as mentioned below:

1. It gives a unique value to the individual in a group set-up.
2. People are responsible for each other for growth and development.
3. People have a fundamental right to mental health created by social and political conditions that help them fulfill.

These values find their expression in the practice of group work. The focus of group work is the voluntary work of the members. Group workers may work with involuntary groups due to legal or regulatory requirements (Varghese, n.d.). But that's not a rule. Second, social workers' value the principles of group selection and self-determination. Group members are encouraged by group workers to participate in the planning and implementation of group activities (Varghese, n.d.). The worker does not impose her decision on the group, even if there is a disagreement between the group and the social worker regarding the fruitfulness of the activity. Negotiations and discussions are a way for workers to help the group understand their views. Similarly, decisions about groups must be made by groups using democratic methods. Participation of all members is essential. Everyone has the same right to participate in group discussions (Varghese, n.d.). The group must respect the principle of confidentiality. However, in contrast to a clerk, group workers also rely on group members to achieve this goal. Therefore, confidentiality clauses are often included in contracts. Social workers pay special attention to confidentiality when working with children who have difficulty with this. Purpose

The purpose of group work is to contribute to society and legitimacy. Individuals and institutions accept groups by assessing how well they can achieve the goals set by group work. The goals of group work as a method of social work given by Alan Brown (1992) are mentioned below:

- a) **Individual assessments within a group set up:** Groups are used to assess individual behavior. This rating is based on employee ratings, membership ratings, and group membership ratings. Group ratings can be used to obtain data from juvenile training schools, nursing homes, and elderly care centers (Jose & Nair, n.d.).
- b) **Individual care and nursing in group:** Groups provide psychosocial support to members in stressful situations. Groups are formed for people with disabilities, carers for dementia, and students with learning disabilities (Varghese, n.d.).
- c) **Individual changes:** Management of individual deviant tendencies can also be done through group. For example, child using slang language can be trained to control their behavior.

Group work specifically as method helps to socialize individuals to learn social skills for community life, improving interpersonal relationships, improving the economic sector—for example, self-help groups, develop better self-concepts and emotions. For example, a neighborhood woman discussing common issues (Varghese, n.d.). It is also helpful for individual growth and development of encounter groups and T-groups (Jose & Nair, n.d.).

- d) Education, information, and training groups
- e) Leisure / relaxation groups for recreation
- f) It can mediate between the individual and the social system: For example, group workers can prepare for discharge by instructing patients to live outside the facility (Jose & Nair, n.d.).
- g) Working with natural or existing groups to improve certain aspects of groups or solve the problems using family therapy for improving communication is one example.
- h) Environment Change: Group Formation to demand institutions and services government and non-government organizations.
- i) Social changes. These groups raise member awareness, organize members, and help fight the unjustified structure of society.

4.4 Sanctions

Social group work as a method of social work is recognize as the primary method by different professional associations, National Social Workers Association, British Social Workers Association, Australian Social Work Association, etc (Varghese, n.d.). Other institutions of care facilities, school facilities, industry, family and child welfare offices, communities, retirement homes, and youth reform centers use this method to practice very much in different aspects.

4.5 Group Work Education

The international studies on the existence of social group work in social work schools in different countries worldwide show that 135 schools participated in the survey, 2,497 were teachers, and 174 (7%) were group work trainers and teachers. Group work was taught as an individual course and a general approach. In most places, the focus of group work seems to be on individual needs such as support, therapy, and personal development. In India, group work is proposed as a separate paper in the UGC Model curriculum. Most universities and colleges in India teach group work (Varghese, n.d.).

4.6 Group Work as Method of Social Work

The method means “one way to do things,” “a set of skills and techniques.” But everyone has a way to do what is based on the action of their theory and assumptions about the situation guide his actions. The application method distinguishes itself from the voluntary behavior of the layman as follows(Varghese, n.d.):

1. It is informed by the profession’s value system, which has been arrived at by the consensus of the members.
2. The profession uses the method deliberately and purposefully to attain the treatment goals.
3. Its practice is carried by the knowledge base, which constantly increases by research and sharing of knowledge by professionals

4. It is recognized as a procedure by competent authorities.
5. The use of the method helps the clients/members and society at large through it.

According to Schwartz, a occupation should have three attributes, one a function to perform in society to which it is held accountable; two, the performance of this function involves specific modes of activity- a particular pattern of actions and three, these actions are performed within the systems in which it takes place. Further, Schwartz says that the “method is functioning in action”.

Now let us understand what social work tasks in our society are? Schwartz identifies the following tasks (Jose & Nair, n.d.)-

1. Search for common ground between the member's perception of his own need and the aspects of social demands with which he is perceived.
2. Identify the barrier which stop people from harmonizing their self-interests and the needs of others.
3. Provide data ideas, facts, and value concepts that are not available to the client to help him resolve the problems.
4. Give the client or member a new vision (hope) and confidence about the future.
5. Maintain a professional relationship with the client.

Advantages of working with Group as a method (*Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Work – Article1000.Com, n.d.*)

1. Groups are natural places where people live and grow. Families, peer groups, workgroups and neighborhood groups are central to human social life. If this group has a significant impact on our personality, shouldn't we use it to change the behavior of its members? Group work aims to achieve these goals in a variety of environments.
2. Group members with similar interests and interests can help each other by sharing experiences and interests. Emphasizes the principles of mutual aid and self-help. A significant advantage of group work over case studies is that each member becomes the group's helper and helper. Support is therefore provided and provided in the spirit of equality.

3. Group members empower members by raising awareness and awareness. Human problems are known to the public and become involved when many are known. Decisions are then discussed and an additional actions, actions are planned and implemented.
4. Groups are used to confirm the views of institutional members on the services provided.
5. Group work can actually demonstrate democratic principles.
6. Group work is very effective for certain groups of people such as adolescents, children and women. It is more convenient for these groups to be helped as a group. This is because the needs for security and accessories are satisfied as a group.
7. Group work can work with multiple clients at the same time, which is economical and time-saving.

Disadvantages of Group Work (*Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Work* – *Article1000.Com*, n.d.)

1. Personal knowledge is shared with the group, so it is difficult to ensure confidentiality.
2. Group formation can be complicated. Members often disband, are absent, and do not cooperate, which can lead to the disbandment of the group.
3. The agency does not fully support group work because it is not fully aware of the benefits of group work.
4. Group work often degenerates into fun and games, ignoring the healing process.
5. The group needs resources such as expected time, location and assistance.
6. Lack of personal attention and non-participating members will be lonely.
7. Group work can contribute to the stigma and discrimination faced by members in society when they identify themselves with the group.
8. Group work is often considered a general skill that everyone can acquire, so there is often a lack of technical know-how.

4.7 Requirement of Knowledge to practice as a method in social work

Knowledge is defined as the capability to understand. The knowledge base of group work is steadily growing. Primary sources Knowledge Social groups use group work as methods (Varghese, n.d.).

1. Knowledge of groups requires help of other disciplines

Sociology, Psychology, and Social Psychology Research Groups, tiny groups, CH Cooley (primary and secondary groups), GH Mead (group and outgroup), Robert Merton (reference group), Kurt Lewin (group dynamics), Moreno (sociometry), Elton Mayo (importance and influence group) and Simmel are pioneers in the field of group research (Varghese, n.d.). Asch, Sherif Festinger, and Kresch and Tuckman made significant contributions to improving group understanding, impact on members, group development, and more (Jose & Nair, n.d.). Another essential source is Psychoanalysis School than in Casework and contributes to group therapy.

2. Requires knowledge from other practitioners

Gisela Knopka, Grace Coyle, Josephine Klein, Gertrude Wilson, and Gladys Ryland have previously participated in group work practice. They documented their experiences and developed basic practices and rules for group work. Grace L. Coyle (1948) *Group Work with American Youth: A Guide to Leadership Practices* and Gertrude Wilson and Gladys Ryland (1949) *Social Group Work Practices* (Varghese, n.d.). The creative use of social processes was the earliest textbook. Social work with groups, small group studies, and group worker magazines are currently being published to disseminate the knowledge of the group.

3. Need knowledge from research perspectives

Group work research were relatively less frequent than other areas of social work. Most of the available literature on group work is a descriptive presentation of the practice of anecdotal evidence and (Varghese, n.d.). A range of cognitive behavioural interventions in children. Research for other approaches and other clients was inadequate. Further Search was performed group passed short, is a firmly structured, time-limited, and homologous clients. Of these study results from other

groups' relevance needs further analysis. In India, the situation is out of studies. The work of in the group is equal to. Research-based social work articles are limited. A small number of PhDs have been obtained on this subject, primarily clinically(Varghese, n.d.). Three models have emerged in the practice of social work. Papelland Rothman (1966) proposed three models. repair.

The goal of a job/agency is personal social adaptation. Often a social ideal of group workpromotes social justice through collective and socialbehavior. (Mark Smith, 2008) Thus, knowledge of social group work and the integration of theory and practice is steadily growing. The group work knowledge base has grown by developing new research tools for assessing group work practices. The major gap in social work was the lack of evidence of the method's effectiveness(Varghese, n.d.). In other words, social workers could not definitively show that the skills and techniques of professional social workers, consciously applied in different situations, made a big difference to their clients. Evidence-based growth of Social Practice is the answers to these gaps. These trends also influence the practice of social group work. A new research method has been identified to address this issue. (Gant in Gravin, 2004.)

4. Trends in Group Work during COVID 19

4.8 Technology Mediated Group Work

Many self-help groups form their groups online. For example, women with breast cancer have an online support group. Most of these support groups provide information about problems and treatment options (Varghese, n.d.). They also offer reviews from people who have successfully dealt with the illness.

Frequent Asked Questions: A section called Questions (FAQ) can often be used to raise questions or explanations related to a problem/illness. These websites are operated by hospitals and support groups(Varghese, n.d.).

4.9 Functions of Social Group Worker

Let us try to understand the function of group workers while practicing group as a method of social work.

The American Association of Group Workers (1949) explains the functions of a group worker practicing group work as a method. Group workers enable different types of groups to function, ensure group interactions, develop program activities to personal growth and for achievement of desirable social goals. Group worker goals include self-development tailored to individual skills and needs (“Group work,” 2008, p. xx). Adapting individuals to groups, other institutions and societies, individual motivations to improve and awareness of individual rights, skills, and differences. Group workers want to influence the group process by participating in decision-making through the integration of knowledge and exchange, ideas, experience and expertise, rather than control inside and outside the group. Social work interventions with individuals and groups through expertise, he / she is responsible for citizenship, cultural, religious, economic or mutual understanding between specific groups within the community and participation to contribute to the community (“Group work,” 2008, p.).

Group workers aim to establish relationships with other connected groups and wider communities. Continuous improvement of our society towards democratic goals. The main purpose of such leadership is based on the standard assumptions of a democratic society. That is, each individual may be free to exercise his or her abilities, respect and appreciate others, and be socially responsible for maintaining and continuously improving a democratic society. Group work practices are based on modern social science-based knowledge of individual and group behavior, as well as social conditions and community relationships (“Group work,” 2008, p. xx).

Based on the knowledge base, group workers contribute to groups that enable members to fully utilize their abilities and organize socially constructive group activities. He recognizes program activities for guided interactions within the group for desired change. Depending on their interests and needs, they help to benefit from group experience with program activities and engaged in self-development through social relationships, and they get opportunity to participate as a responsible citizen (“Group work,” 2008, p.).

Group workers in any set up, whether rural community or urban community set up working with the group consciously leverage their relationships with the group, their knowledge of the program as a tool, their understanding of the individual and the group process, and recognize their responsibilities to both the group and working with the individual (“Group work,” 2008, p. xx).

4.10 Conclusion

Social work as a profession and its field is expanding because of its various practice methods, group work is one of it. However, some professional questions have yet to be answered to as to effectiveness in group work can be ensured. Survey-based findings rarely clarified their position. This may be due to the methodology used by the researchers. Alternatively, the complexity of human behavior may make it difficult to detect changes in people. Group work as a method of social work seems to have this problem. Social workers often rely on personal experience and observation to determine benefits their clients /members. This method should all apply principles, small group theories and models, group therapy wherever treatment group developed, assist members understanding the group process meaningfully. So, help of other practitioners are necessary requirement of the day. However, in pandemic situation, technology mediated group can be very meaningful in assisting many members in our society.

4.11 Exercise

1. Discuss group work as a method of social work.
 2. What are the present trends in Group Work?
 3. What are the advantages and disadvantages in group work?
 4. Write a short note on Group Work Education.
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4.12 Reference

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Unit 5 □ Theoretical Approaches and Models in Social Group Work

Structure

- 5.1 Objectives**
- 5.2 Introduction**
- 5.3 Theories and Models in Group work**
 - 5.3.1 Theories in Group Work**
 - 5.3.2 Models in Group Work**
- 5.4 Conclusion**
- 5.5 Exercise**
- 5.6 Reference**

5.1 Objectives

The objective of this unit is to develop a clear understanding on various social science theories relevant to social group work practice among social work students for necessary use in their field work practice.

5.2 Introduction

Groups may be defined in many ways as there is no single definition on it. It is also highly problematic and contestable. For the purpose of discussing group work within a context of working with people we may define a group as a small gathering of people. While on the other side group work may be described as the study and application of the processes and outcomes experienced when a small group comes together Konopka (1963) defines group work as a method of social work that is utilised in order to 'help individuals to enhance their social functioning and this is possible through purposeful group experiences, and to cope more effectively with their personal, group or community problems. This definition shows a tradition within group work of helping individuals with problems. Brown (1994) provides a

modernised and more comprehensive definition of group work. He is of the opinion that 'group work provides a context in which individuals help each other. It is a method of helping groups as well as helping individuals. It can enable individuals and groups to influence and change personal, group, and organizational and community problems. He then goes on to distinguishing between 'relatively small and neighborhoodcentered' work and 'macro, societal and political approaches' within community work, explaining that only the former may be properly classified as group work.

The role of group work can be seen as one which gives emphasis on sharing of thoughts, ideas, problems and activities, in which theoretical understanding is very much essential for the worker to undertake group activities meaningfully.

5.3 Assumptions and Theories

Life Skills:

One of the assumptions in group work is that many persons lack requisite skills and experiences to cope with stresses in their social relationships. These stresses usually occur in their childhood when children and adolescents move from one status and role position to the other or from one interaction milieu to the other (Rengasamy, n.d.). For example, when a child moves out from secure home environment to a school which is a more open and dynamic environment, from a primary school to middle or higher secondary school, from school to college, etc. These changes can cause stress as a child or an adolescent is expected to adapt to a new set of norms and also rules, meant for regulating behaviour. Adolescents in general experience stress associated with physical development, social acceptance and academic performance (Rengasamy, n.d.). The degree of stress is directly related to the degree of life skills they possess in coping with the change. For example, for a young boy to move from a rural school to an urban higher education institution will cause more stress than for a young person moving from an urban school to a higher education institution in an urban area. Similarly, a child from a family of uneducated parents will face more stress at school and other educational institutions (Siddiqui 2008). The inadequacy of life skills such as verbal and nonverbal communications, asserting, handling feelings and conflicts, functioning of group consisting of members from

multicultural background, increases the stress leading to maladjustment problems (Rengasamy, n.d.).

This framework would help a group worker to understand the children and adolescents exhibiting stress symptoms and their inability to adjust in the group. The worker can provide these children a support group to discuss their problems and learn from each other and to understand the coping strategies that they are using to deal with the situation. The group worker can help them to learn new life skills to update their competence to cope with stresses and sources of stresses (Rengasamy, n.d.).

Sharing Feedback:

The other assumption is that the sharing feedback can influence children and adolescents group very much in building healthy peer relationship. Hence, it is important for them to understand how others relate them. How others view the behaviour of a member? The group can provide an opportunity to children and adolescents to discover how others view them (Rengasamy, n.d.). It can also help them to analyze it objectively and learn to take corrective action if needed. For example, labels to members of a particular religious, linguistic or caste group, which are negative. Also the children and adolescents of these groups experience a high degree of stress leading to academic and mental health problems (Siddiqui 2008).

The group worker can use the knowledge to design a number of programs for children and adolescents indulging in labelling and for those who are at the receiving end (Rengasamy, n.d.).

Emotional Support

It is observed that a number of persons experience trauma due to a variety of reasons. Some examples are loss of significant persons, family violence, long-term unemployment, retirement, trauma, and loss of shelter or other valuables, etc. These conditions produce stress and could become traumatic. Individual counselling is helpful but emotional trauma shared with fellow sufferers has been found to be of help. There are many studies of children and adolescents affected by disasters indicate that the trauma produces a great deal of anxiety, resulting in loss of concentration and producing incoherent behaviour. The adolescent's reaction to stress may vary such as withdrawal or opting out, depression, loss of control, inability to concentrate, irritability, disturbed sleep or eating patterns, flashbacks and emotional

numbing. Loss of significant members such as parents or siblings and material resources such as housing will require a different set of life skills and coping strategies to survive. The studies indicate that emotional support from others who have undergone a similar trauma is helpful (Shelby, 1994). The finding is used to form groups of persons having suffered a trauma to provide emotional support to each other. By now it is clear that in order to understand the events taking place within a group, one need to understand the individuals within the group on the one hand and their interaction in the group on the other (Rengasamy, n.d.).

There are a number of psychological, sociological and political theories that provides an explanation of individual behaviour and how it can help in understanding the group functioning. Some of these theories are explained below

5.3.1 Small Group Theories

Learning Theory

Learning Theory has raised a lot of controversy in social group work as it focuses more on individual than on group dynamics with reference to influencing individual behaviour. Learning theory also provides a frame work for understanding human behaviour. It provides an understanding of the social functioning of persons within their environments. The person in dynamic interaction with all aspects of the environment is the focus of attention. Further, it emphasizes the importance of assessment of observable behaviour, and advocates the use of specific terms in defining behaviour. And finally it takes a positive approach as if behaviour is learned then it can also be unlearned (Rengasamy, n.d.). It explains that respondent conditioning, which refers to the emission of behaviour in response to a specific stimulus. The stimulus could be a word, sight or a sound. It has been already experimented on dog. The second type of learning here explained to called modelling, which simply refers to learning by observation. The children of parents who smoke are likely to be smokers. Children of parents with ability to control their feelings under stress are likely to learn self-control. However, a number of factors or conditions can affect the effectiveness of modelling. Some of them are similarity of the model to the observer, the prestige, status and expertise of the model, and the diversity of models around the observer (Rengasamy, n.d.). Operant conditioning is a type of learning in which behaviours are altered primarily by regulating the subsequence

which follows them. New behaviours could be learned and undesirable behaviours could be weakened and eliminated by regulating the consequences (Rengasamy, n.d.).

By using the learning theory framework, social worker can understand how group can provide reinforcements to strengthen behaviour. There are both positive and negative reinforcements. A good example of negative reinforcement in a group situation is to discourage behaviour which are not accepted by others. The learning theory thus provides a framework for group workers to modify behaviour. The context could be achievement of group tasks and development, or helping the members to unlearn behaviours that create problems in their social functioning.

Field Theory

Kurt Lewin (1946) is one of the pioneers to study group functioning. He focused on the forces that influenced the working of groups. He tried to study leadership styles by creating groups with different styles of leaderships in order to see their impact on the functioning of the group (Rengaswamy, n.d). It is commonly observed that a leader becomes authoritarian when the members are seeking favours, rather than questioning the decisions or even discussing the issues objectively. Lewin argued that the leadership style is a product of leader and member interaction rather than a personality trait of the leader. Further, while developing his Field Theory, he argued that a group has a life space and it has movement. It tries to accomplish goals or group tasks and faces hurdles in its movement. He believed that group was an entity of opposing forces which keep the group members in the group and move them along in achieving group goals. However, the behaviour of individual members and the group itself should be seen as a product of the totality of the group situation (Lewis, 1946). He introduced several concepts to help in the understanding of forces at work in the group. Some of them are

- Roles—status rights and duties of group members;
- Norms—Rules governing the behaviour of group members;
- Power—the ability of members to influence on another;
- Cohesion—The attraction the group members feel towards one another and towards the group;
- Consensus—the degree of agreement regarding goals and other group phenomena, and
- Valence—the potency of goals and objects in the life space of the group.

Other field theorists have continued to work on the characteristics of group that influence the individual behaviour. Cohesion has been identified as an important factor, defined as, “the totality of forces acting on individual members to keep them in the group. Cohesion reflects the agreement on goals and norms, shared understanding and a greater homogeneity in demographic background, as also the productivity, satisfaction and cooperative interaction patterns (Cartwright and Zander 1968). Lewin developed t-group as a means to observe the effects of group process on group members and as a means to induce changes in behaviour. He thus helped in developing a theory that people change when they see their behaviour as others see it, thus leading to development of the feedback method whereby the group members and the group leader provide feedback to the individual as to how his/her behaviour was affecting them. Role plays and simulations are also used to highlight the group process (Rengasamy, n.d.). The group workers using the field theory framework can design their own interventions in working with the group for achieving the group goals along with individual development (Rengasamy, n.d.).

Systems Theory (Rengasamy, n.d.)

The systems theory is helpful to explain the functioning of a group. Talcott Parsons explained social system as a set of interdependent elements trying to function as a unified whole to maintain order and a stable equilibrium. The social systems are constantly facing new challenges as the environment around them and within, is constantly changing. Therefore, they must act to maintain the equilibrium if they have to survive. This act of survival depends upon mainly on four basic functions, such as integration; adaptation; pattern maintenance; and goal attainment (*Siddiqui, H. Y.* 2008). The group viewed as a system would therefore be able to achieve its objectives once it is able to carry out these four functions effectively. It is able to integrate members by achieving individual and group goal matching. It also has the capacity to make changes to adapt itself to outside demands like that of the community and the sponsoring organization and with the internal dynamics as it changes with time. The pattern maintenance would require development of norms and guidelines to regulate its activities and develop well defined objectives, identify and procedures that are able to sustain these over time.

The functioning of a system depends to a great extent on the carrying out the role assigned to them. The goal attainment is the final task to ensure the smooth functioning

of the system. The members will lose interest and the functioning of the group will be affected if the goals are attainable is an important attribute of group stability and functioning. Parsons pointed out that problems will arise during the functioning of the group; the group, including its leadership must make use of its resources effectively to tackle the problems to maintain the equilibrium of the group(Rengasamy, n.d.).

Robert Bales (1950), however, believed that the survival of the group depends on two central tasks. The first he termed the instrumental problems related to tasks or goal related functions and the second, socio-emotional tasks related to the interpersonal relationships between members, and between members and leader, for coordinating and maintaining the emotional unity and morale of the group. While the instrumental problems generally arise on account of the external pressures, the socio emotional problems are rooted in the internal dynamics of the group(Rengasamy, n.d.).

The insights are helpful for workers to deal with both kinds of challenges in their working with groups. It is often seen that exclusive focus on one results in ignoring the other, making the group dysfunctional in the process. The worker can keep in mind that the emphasis on tasks will vary in different groups, depending upon the central purpose of the group. It will be different in a self-help group formed to achieve a specific task, than in a group of children. It is also possible to analyze the interaction between members in a group by using a tool developed by Bales called interaction process analysis(Rengasamy, n.d.).

Conflict Theory

Sociologists differ in their understanding of conflict as a social phenomenon in society, yet some of the explanations of conflicts are helpful in understanding the conflicts in groups and in dealing with them(Rengasamy, n.d.). Sociologists have identified two broad categories of conflict, one endogenous conflict, which refers to sources of changes from within a society and other one exogenous conflict, which refers to changes from without or between systems. Endogenous conflict highlights the sources of conflict like inherent predilection to change, conflict over the differential distribution of resources such as wealth, power and prestige, conflict of values, conflict of authority and Conflict between individual and collectively. The exogenous conflict identifies three sources such as wars, cultural invasions and conflict of ideology. Lewis Coser (1973) distinguishes between realistic and non-realistic conflicts.

Realistic conflicts are conflicts arising on account of non-fulfilment of specific demands, whereas non-realistic conflicts are rooted in the need for release of tension and are not oriented towards achievement of any specific demand (Rengasamy, n.d.).

In every group there are occasions for conflict, since individuals and sub-groups are likely to make rival claims to scarce resources, prestige or power positions. But social structures differ in the way the group allows expression to these claims. Some are more tolerant, others are not. Firstly, it will not aim at resolving the immediate issue as all accumulated grievances will come to force. Secondly, it is because of total personality involvement of the group members. It is important for a group worker to remember that the hostility should not be permitted to accumulate and conflict should be allowed to occur wherever a resolution of tension seems to be allowed to occur. In such cases the conflict is likely to remain focused primarily on the condition leading to its outbreak. Conflicts within a group can also help to revitalize existing norms and help to develop new norms as well (Rengasamy, n.d.).

Social Exchange Theory

According to the social-exchange theory, people help because they want to gain in future from the one being helped. People calculate rewards and costs of helping others, and aim at maximizing the former and minimizing the latter, which is known as a “minimax” strategy (“Minimax,” 2021). Rewards are incentives, which can be materialistic goods, social rewards which can improve one’s image and reputation (e.g. praise) or self-reward. Rewards are either external or internal.

External reward is things that obtained from others when helping them, for instance, friendship and gratitude. People are more likely to help those who are more attractive or important, whose approval is desired. Internal reward is generated by oneself when helping others and gaining sense of goodness and self-satisfaction. The central concern of the exchange theory is to find an explanation for the human transactions of giving and receiving. James Frazer suggests that men enter in to institutionalized patterns of exchange to satisfy their economic needs (*Social Group Work | PDF | Social Group | Psychological Trauma*, n.d.)

But there is a difference between economic exchange and social exchange. Social exchange process can yield for the larger society a moral code of behaviour, which acquires an independent existence outside the social exchange situation and which

informs all social, economic, and political interpersonal relationships in society (Rengasamy, n.d.). The triple obligations of social exchange— to give, to receive and to repay — are to be understood not as self-interest but in terms of interpersonal, hence inter-group, relations. Social exchange transaction creates social bonds creating ties between individuals and the collectively. Some argue that it is the exchange which is important not the things which are exchanged and the primary function of the exchange is structural integration of the collectively (Rengasamy, n.d.). Homans (1950) and Blau (1964) among others have developed the exchange theory to explain members' behaviour within a group. They argued that all members in a group will try to maximize individual rewards and minimize punishments. All human interaction according to them is seeking something in return from the other. The behaviour is conditioned to maximize rewards and minimize punishment in all interactions (Rengasamy, n.d.).

The cognitive process and the members' capacities are not fully explained by the exchange theory can be summarized as follows:

social —the greatest rewards within a coalition are given to the least dependent member of the coalition.

Behaviour— is an exchange of goods, material and non-material, such as approval or prestige.

Persons that give to others try to get something in return, and persons who receive from others are under pressure to give in return. This process of exchange tends to create equilibrium to balance the exchanges.

Human Capital and Social Capital

James Coleman (1988) is one of the advocates for rational choice theory. Coleman believes in a concept known as methodological individualism. The two concepts in Coleman's theory are actors and resources, and two key resources, according to him are: human capital and social capital. Similar to the creation of physical capital by shaping the material into tools and machines to facilitate production, human capital is created by shaping the individuals by giving them skills and capabilities that gives them power to act in innovative ways to produce (Rengasamy, n.d.). Social capital is Human Capital created by shaping relations between individuals to facilitate action. For example, a group where members trust each other will act

better than the one where there is no trust. The importance of social capital has been exhibited by the acceptance of team development efforts by the corporations.

- Skills & Abilities
- Creativity
- Life Experiences
- Knowledge
- Human Capital

Human capital and social capital can complement each other or they can destroy each other. Social capital as a concept can help the actors to realize the importance and usefulness of those aspects of social to realize the importance and usefulness of those aspects of social structure which will help them to achieve their interests. In a cohesive group where members are willing to help each other and abide by the group norms, the level of trust worthiness of the group environment is a crucial factor in the success of the group. It means that the obligations will be repaid (Rengasamy, n.d.).

A simple example is the rotating credit groups. In such groups, each member contributes an amount to a central fund, which is given to a member. Each member gets his/her amount back and in addition gets a loan without interest. However, if obligations and expectations are not balanced the social capital gets diluted. Norms and effective sanction can help in balancing obligations and expectations.

Psychoanalytic Theory

Sigmund Freud is one of the earliest theorists to provide an explanation of human personality. He conceptualized that the human mind has broad systems. He described these systems as conscious, pre-conscious and unconscious and the other as Id, Ego and super Ego (Daniel K. Lapsley and Paul C 2011). Freud suggested that mind was composed of thoughts (ideas), feelings, instincts, drives, conflicts and motives. Most of these elements were located in the unconscious or preconscious. There is a repressed area which serves as a barrier where a lot of disturbing material (thoughts and feelings), as unresolved conflicts, are placed through the process of defense mechanism. Defense mechanism or repression is a process in which unacceptable desires, memories and thoughts are excluded from consciousness by

sending the material into the unconscious area under the repressed barrier are avoided.

He observed that this results in producing irritants such as unwanted emotions and behaviour such as anger, hallucinations, etc. Describing the second system Freud explains that Id is the primitive psychic force hidden in the unconscious. It represents the basic needs and drives such as hunger, thirst, sex and self-preservation, which support other personality factors. Id governed by the pleasure principle primarily seeks to express itself irrespective of the consequences, while Ego acts as the rational component of the mind which controls the thinking of the mind. Super ego serves as the conscience by indicating what is right and wrong socially and morally (Rengasamy, n.d.).

Freud conceptualized that people pass through six psychosocial development stages. During any one of the stages conflicts may arise and if it remains unresolved the person's personality development will be affected. He thought that disturbances can arise from several sources. Traumatic experiences which a person's ego is not able to cope with directly are repressed. Similarly internal unconscious processes could also cause disturbances. Freud, in elaborating the group's influence on human behaviour, specifically mentions about the importance of group leader, and the early life experiences of the members (Rengasamy, n.d.).

The members use transference in their interactions that occur within the group and try to recreate conflicts. A number of psychologists have contributed in developing learning theory as an explanation of human behaviour, which is very helpful to understand individuals and also helping them, which could be studied first and helped through group activities, counselling, etc.

5.3.2 Models in Social Group Work

Social workers basically utilized four distinct group work models. These are Social Goal Model; Remedial Model; Mediating Model and Developmental Model. Besides, there are other models, which are considered as suitable models for effective practice in social group work such as the Behavioural Model, Kurt Lewin's individual change process, Bale's stages of group development, Tuchman's stage model, Fisher's theory of decision emergence in group, Northen and Kurland's model, etc. A brief of each of these models are given below:

The Social Goals Model:

The basic concepts of this model are social consciousness, social responsibility, and social change. It is suggested that by participation with others in a group situation, individuals can affect social change. Social action is the desired outcome, and the group worker is regarded as an influence person and enabler, who personify the values of social responsibility and acts as stimulator and role model without purveying any political viewpoint. Implicit in this model is the emerging leader within the group. The model is concerned with democracy and the enhancement of personal functioning within the social context, heightened self-esteem and an increase in social power for the members of the group collectively and as individuals (Bimal Antony, 07:39:28 UTC).

Remedial Model:

Remedial model focuses on the individual's dysfunction and utilizes the group as a context and means for altering deviant behavior. This approach to group work practice emphasizes its utility in removing the adverse conditions of individuals whose behavior is disapproved by the society. Clients of such social group work practice are physically and mentally handicapped, legal offenders, emotionally disturbed, isolated and alienated persons. The Michigan School contributed to this model. Credit goes to Vinter and his colleagues for developing remedial model. In this model attempts are being made by social worker to bring change in the individual. According to the Remedial Model, the group can be used to treat problems of adjustments in personal and social relations. According to Vinter "attention to such problems reaffirms the profession's historic mission of service to those most in need". The remedial model is considered more as a clinical model that seeks to help the socially maladapted to improve social functioning through guided group interaction experience (Bimal Antony, 07:39:28 UTC).

The social worker plays a key role as he/she gives expertise knowledge through the following activities.

- The social worker is the central person. The worker is the object of identification and drives.
- He/she is a symbol and a spokesman. He/she tries to maintain norms and values of the society.

- He/she is a motivator and stimulator. He/she helps the individual and group to understand their goal as a group member.
- He/she is an executive. He/she facilitates the activities of the group in order to gain the said objectives.

In this model whatever the changes are brought, they are explicitly limited to organizational and institutional elements that are responsible for individual's dysfunction. Though this model, one can focus on the individual client who is experiencing difficulty in a group situation. The model is helpful for those likely to be affected. It means this model focuses on preventive aspects also.

Reciprocal Model or Mediating Model:

Schwartz has introduced this model in 1961. This model is based on systems theory, humanistic psychology and an existential perspective. The chief characteristic of this model is that the people and society are interdependent as due to the reason they have mutual needs. In this model attention is directed towards the relationship of members in the group with each other, with the worker and the group as a whole. It is the relationship among the members that shows the characteristics of the group. It gives importance to the emergent goal and actions, which are based on feelings of the group. Client and worker together as well as separately challenge the current problems with their total capacity. Basic educative processes are utilized which incorporate particularizing, synthesizing and generalizing the feeling and action components of the problem. In this model distinctions are not made with respect to types and several of group since it is presumed that this model is widely applicable. In this model the individual and the group are significant components. The workers role appears here to be facilitative, relying on the power and potency of mutual aid system to take care of itself.

Developmental Model:

This model has been developed by the faculty members of Boston University in 1965

In this approach, groups are seen as having "a degree of independence and autonomy, but the to and fro flow between them and their members, between them and their social settings, is crucial to their existence, viability and achievements. The main characteristics of this model are intimacy and closeness between the members

over a span of time. The degree of intimacy is taken into account for appropriate worker interventions. This model derives knowledge from Erikson's ego psychology, group dynamics and conflict theory. The worker is connected with community, agency, social group and also with the individual member in our society (*Principles, Skills and Models of Group Work Practice - IGNOU, n.d.*). The social group worker tries to improve the situations among individual member, group agency and the social environment. In short, it can be said that the developmental model is a compromise between the reciprocal, remedial and traditional approaches.

Behavioral Model:

In this model some specific group programmes are implemented to alter dysfunctional patterns behavior. The expertise of behavioral group therapist is essential in assessing and devising a treatment plan for each individual member within the context of the group

The group worker calculates the specific elements of the disturbing behavior to be decreased or desired behavior to be developed. Other group members provide assistance and feedback concerning progress throughout the stages of the treatment process.

Beside, a number of such theoretical models have been developed to explain the change in group over certain period of time. Some of the important theorists' models are given subsequently.

Kurt Lewin's (1947) individual change process:

Kurt Lewin is remembered for coining the term 'group dynamics'. His model of individual change is a stepping stone for many pioneers who have contributed theoretically. His model has three stages such as unfreezing, change, and freezing in a change process or small group. The first stage makes effort to remove lethargy or sluggishness and dismantles the existing mind set. The second stage is the transition phase that brings change. In the last phase, the new mind set is crystallized and individual becomes stable (*Lewin's 3-Stage Model of Change: Unfreezing, Changing & Refreezing - Video & Lesson Transcript | Study.Com, n.d.*).

Bales's (1950) stages of group development:

Bales noted some stages of group development like orientation stage, evaluation stage and decision making stage, which are described as below: *Orientation:* The

first thing in the stages of group development is that the person in a group has to familiarize himself with other people and explore the possibilities that the group has to offer to him. Thus, Bales termed this as orientation stage. *Evaluation*: Bales went on to suggest next things to members to analyse the information gathered and reach some conclusion about what kind of members are there, whether they are trustworthy, helpful and cooperative and how they look at the other members, its activities, programmes and so on. He therefore termed this stage as evaluation stage. *Decision making*: According to Bales, the evaluation of members about the people, programmes and benefits would lead to decision making about the participants and action in the group. Bales termed this stage as decision making.

Tuckman's (1965) stage model:

Bruce Tuckman reviewed about fifty studies of group development (including Bales model) in the mid nineteen sixties and synthesized their commonalities in one of the most frequently cited models of group development. The model describes four linear stages, such as Forming, Storming, Norming and Performing stage. *Forming* which is the first stage of group process. The forming of the team takes place. The individual's behaviour is driven by the desire to be accepted by the others, and avoid controversy or conflict. Serious illness and feelings are avoided, and people focus on being busy with routines. This is comfortable stage to be in but the avoidance of conflicts and threat means that not much actually get done. The team meets and learns about the opportunities and challenges and then agrees on goals and begins to tackle the tasks. Team members tend to behave quite independently. *Storming is the second stage*. The members begin to assert the individual personalities and the comfort of the forming stage begins to come under siege. Members experience personal, intra and inter group conflict. Every group enter the storming stage in which different ideas complete for consideration. The team addresses issues such as what problem they are really suppose to solve, how they will function independently and together and what leadership model they will accept. Team members open up to each other and confront each others ideas and perspectives. The activities make in the storming phase are lack of cohesion, subjectivity, hidden agendas, conflicts, confrontation, resentment, anger, inconstancy, failure and so on. The next stage is *Norming*. During this stage, the group begins to work more constructively together towards formal or informal roles (*THEORY / GROUPS & GROUPWORK*, n.d.). Some

members may not be comfortable with the role or roles which have been allotted. During norming stage sub-groups are likely to form in order that a supportive environment is once more created. Group members establish rules about how they will achieve their goal (*TEAM / Meaning in the Cambridge English Dictionary*, n.d.). They address the types of communication that will or will not help the task. Indicators include: questioning, performance, reviewing, clarification objectives, changing/confirming roles, opening risky issues, assertiveness, listening, testing new ground, identifying strengths and weakness. *Performing is the 4th stage of group development*. This is the best stage for a group to complete the tasks and assuming that task. This stage the group also reach to a conclusion and implement solution to their issues. Indicators in this phase include creativity, initiative, flexibility, open relationships, pride, concern for people, learning, confidence, high morale, success, etc. Last stage is *Adjourning*. This phase was added when Tuckman and Jensen updated original review of the literature in 1977. The final stage in the group ultimately is the termination. Though often overlooked, this stage in a group development is equally important to positive outcomes. The ending of a group can be very unhappy and distressing tune for some members, as they may feel some extent of dependency on the group.

Fisher's (1970) theory of decision emergence in group:

Fisher outlines four phases i.e. *orientation, conflict, emergence and reinforcement*. In the first phase, members get to know each other and experience primary tension. Second phase is meant for conflict and marked by secondary tension. Members there disagree with each other and debate ideas. Group's tasks as well as members' viewpoints become apparent in the emergence phase and group members bolster their final decision in the last phase (*Fisher's Model – Small Group Communication*, n.d.).

Tubbs's (1995) system model of group development:

Stewart Tubbs studied small group interaction and developed a system model focusing with four phases of development such as orientation, conflict, consensus and closure (*Tubbs' Systems Model, Fisher's Theory of Decision Emergence in Groups, Poole's Multiple-Sequences Model - Organizational Behaviour*, n.d.). In the first phase, group members introduce each other, start talking on the problems and examine the strengths as well as weaknesses. Ideas are evaluated through conflict in

the second phase. Conflict ends in the third phase and the last stage announces results.

Northen and Kurland's (2001) model:

Northen and Kurland focus on a few stages of group development and point out that each stage has its own developmental issues that must be attended and at least partially resolved before the group can move into the next stage. Northen and Kurland proposes a four staged model with emphasis on socio-emotional themes. The different stages are described below.

Inclusion-Orientation:

The main socio-emotional theme of this stage, as implies, is whether or not group member will feel included. This stage is typically marked by anxiety and uncertainty as the group members become acquainted with the group leader and each other. The major task for the members is to become oriented to the group and to decide to be included in the group's membership.

Uncertainty-Exploration:

The major theme of this stage has to do with group member's uncertainty regarding issues of power and control. The socio-emotional issue pertains to conflict, especially relationship to the group leader. Group members at this stage explore and test their relationship with the leader and each other in order to establish roles and develop trust and acceptance.

Mutuality—Goal Achievement:

At this stage, the group is characterized by mutual aid and problem solving. Socio-emotional patterns among group members show greater self disclosure, empathy and mutual acceptance. Conflict and differences are dealt with as a means to achieve both individual and group goals.

Separation-Termination:

The final stage focuses on the socio-emotional issues of separation and termination. Members at this stage may be reluctant to leave the leader and the group. The task here is to help prepare members for termination, deal with any unfinished business and, most importantly, help group members thereafter what they have learnt in the group to life outside the group.

5.4 Conclusion

Social group work is a primary method of social work, which believes that the development of individual is mainly dependent on the group experiences. There are number of socio-psychological problems that cannot be solved without the help of the group and understanding of the theory. The development of personality is also dependent on the use of group life to some extent. The group worker should follow various social science theories, some of the theories as discussed like learning, Social Exchange, Field, System Theory, Psychoanalytic, Conflict Theory and Human and Social Capital etc., are very important. But one should not also forget the theory of Sigmund Freud, psychoanalytic theory. Individual behaviour and their problems could be study well when he or she is in conflict situation. So, using all such theories the group worker can be more knowledgeable, skilful, and logical and make themselves scientific in their approach into practice field.

This is also equally applicable that the group worker should develop knowledge and follow appropriate model of group work practice, which would definitely help in reaching the objectives that are set for the groups at the beginning stage. Some of the models like Social Goal, Remedial, Developmental, Fisher's theory of decision emergence in group, Tuckman's (1965) stage model, Kurt Lewins individual change model, Northen and Kurland's (2001) model, Tubbs's system model of group development, Bales's stages of group development, etc, all are important in group work practice. These models are helpful in developing and nurturing groups, especially in understanding individual in a group and a frame of reference. Scientific knowledge about motivations of human behavior not only provided new insights to the problems which individuals experience as individuals, but make interpretation of interaction of individuals in groups much more meaningful. All theories as discussed therefore are helping to group worker to understand small group and its interaction, behavior etc for group growth and development. It is significantly important because it is helping the individual for personality formation and also personality development. So, understanding of all theories and models relating to group work are important.

5.5 Exercise

1. Briefly discuss any four small group work theories in social group work practice (use separate page if required)
2. Write how small group work theories help worker in group work practice
3. Write different models in group work practice and discuss how it can help worker in group work activities.

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Unit 6 □ Process of Group Formation

Structure

- 6.1 Objectives**
- 6.2 Introduction**
- 6.3 Topic name: Group Formation**
- 6.4 Conclusion**
- 6.5 Exercise**
- 6.6 Reference**

6.1 Objectives

The basic objective of this unit is to help the students to understand how one should form a group and what should be its basic criteria. Such understanding not only essential, but it is also helpful for the social worker to follow a process for setting a purposeful group, whether it is in community set up or in agency set up.

6.2 Introduction

The various types of groups that can be formed by social group workers are classified as a) Remedial groups, b) Growth groups, c) Task groups(Jagadish, n.d.).

Remedial groups are mostly to enable the members to sustain their changed behaviour and to cope up with new situations in life. The focus is more on the socio-emotional needs. This type of group is formed with those people who have undergone some treatment for a pathological condition. For example, a group of people who have been discharged from a drug de-addiction centre have to be helped to continue their changed behaviour and the treatment(Jagadish, n.d.).

Growth groups are to create awareness about the opportunities to grow and develop in their career and other life positions. These groups focus both on the social and emotional needs of the members as well as achievement of a tangible target. Some examples are: a group of youth is brought together to enhance their

entrepreneurial abilities so as to improve income generating capacities and make them feel they are worthy members of the society, teaching children to acquire social skills and social etiquettes, so that they perform their social responsibilities properly and grow as useful adults(Jagadish, n.d.).

Task groups focus on certain work or activity the group is to achieve for its own development. The task could be development oriented, solving a problem or a crisis situation or a social disadvantage. Some examples are: a committee formed by an organisation to deliberate on certain strategies to improve the service delivery, an administrative group of heads of different units of an agency to work out ways and means to improve the performance of the staff and bring about coordination among the different units, group formed to tackle water shortage, poor civic amenities and reservation of jobs for women.

Therefore, formation of any short of groups should be done with care and as per proper process, which are analyzed in details as below.

6.3 Group Formation

The Ken Heap (1985) discussed these as group formation and planning; the first meetings; the working phase; use of activities and action; and the termination of the Group. According to Douglas (1979) there are five stages of group forming and its activities viz., conceptualization, creation, operation, termination and lastly evaluation. He has discussed these as the functions of leader while Toseland and Rivas (1984) discussed the stages under planning phase, beginning phase, middle phase and ending phase. For our purpose of understanding how one should form a group or what matters the worker should take care in different form of groups are stated below(*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation, n.d.-a*):

- Pre-group formation phase
- Initial phase of group
- Middle (active working) phase
- Evaluation of the group
- Ending phase

In the pre-group phase worker identifies the need for organising a group and initiates steps to form the group. In the initial (first meetings) phase the worker and the group members meet at the place specified agency or any other place where group is likely to have it's and initial orientation to the group's purpose and other information is given and shared. In the middle (active working) phase the group continues its deliberations and activities to accomplish its goals and in evaluation phase the performance of the group is examined vis-à-vis the group purpose and members, goals. Finally, in the ending or termination phase the group is made to dissolve and the worker enables the members to part with each other on a goodwill note (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation, n.d.-a*). The worker should remember the following important areas while going for group formation.

1. Planning and Group Formation

The social group worker representing an agency providing services such as residential care, day-care and community work may come across situations where the services of the agency are effectively utilised by the members through a positive group experience. The needs of the group may even be identified. Once the worker identifies the need for formation of group, he/she starts planning for the formation of the group. For this the worker has to answer some questions with his/her professional background very carefully and systematically (*Stages in the Group Work Process.Pdf, n.d.-a*). These questions are: Why is the group? Here, the worker has to look at the need for forming the group. The purpose and goals it can attain have to be conceptualised and defined. For whom the group is being formed? Here, the task is to work out type of members the group addresses to. What are the eligibility criteria to enrol a member? How many? This focus on the life span of the group in terms of time period and the number of sessions/ meetings it shall have (*Stages in the Group Work Process.Pdf, n.d.-a*). The group exists for days, weeks, months and the frequency of its meetings. How to ensure members' involvement in the group? The agreements the members and the worker enter into ensure the group processes to go on till the attainment of the purpose of the group. Keeping in mind these questions the broad steps at this stage are:

- Formulating group objectives or purpose
- Composition of group

- Size of the group
- Enrolling the members
- Contracting

Formulating Group's objectives:

Here the worker has to be clear in his mind as to why the group is being conceived and what it is addressing itself to. The purpose has to be expressed in a well-defined statement's. It shall not be confusing and shall not give any scope for suspecting its genuineness as to group's broad aim of helping the potential needy members. Therefore, it shall be formulated in simple statements. It shall provide answers to the potential members as to what to expect and to what extent their participating in the group is beneficial. A well-defined statement of the purpose also takes care of unnecessary members to join the group. It also enables the agency that the formation of the group is within the confines of the agency's areas of operations and is not against its interests and services. It also enable the sponsors and other resource agencies what to expect from the group.

Composition of Group:

Once the group is established then the worker should look into what shall be the composition of the group. Should it be homogeneous in its composition or heterogeneous? Homogeneity indicates sharing common features among the group members such as age, educational background, social class, and other interests. Homogeneity helps in building the group bond faster which is a decisive force in group process. Heterogeneity addresses to the need for diversity of certain characteristics of the members such as the length of time suffering with or coping with the problem, the efforts put into deal with the problem, the emotional state besides the other demographic attributes. Diversity ensures sharing of each other's situations, making comparisons, finding alternatives, and stimulates each other. At the same time it poses problems of acceptance and involvement (*Participant Manual - Social Welfare - Part 3.Pdf*, n.d.).

Therefore, it is an important task for the group worker to decide the composition of the group keeping in mind the broad purpose and the individual member needs and goals (*Participant Manual - Social Welfare - Part 3.Pdf*, n.d.).

Another aspect that has to be considered is whether to have an open group or a closed group. In open group there are no restrictions on joining the group from the point of the time. One can be enrolled into the group any time during the life of the group. While the closed group stops enrolment of members after the stipulated time of admission. Opting for open or closed group depends on the purpose, the goals and the time frame set for the group. Size of the Group: How many members shall compose the group? What shall be the ideal size? What are the criteria to determine whether the size of the group is too big or small (*Participant Manual - Social Welfare - Part 3.Pdf*, n.d.)?

All these questions are there in the mind of the worker There are no hard and fast rules to determine the size of the group. It basically depends on the purpose of the group and manageability from the point of time, space, funds and some form of controls that need to be introduced. Small size is easy to manage, cohesive and it provides higher levels of interaction (*Participant Manual - Social Welfare - Part 3.Pdf*, n.d.).

Enrolling Members:

Once it is decided to form the group and other modalities of the group viz., group's purpose, composition and the size of the group have worked out, then the next step is to enrol the group members. Here, the worker has to make arrangements to inform the potential members about forming the group. The information may be given directly to the potential members or passed through a notice in the agency's notice boards, a circular to the staff and other agencies concerned and by advertising in the media such as newspapers, local channels etc., and seeking applications from the interested members. The prospective members may approach either directly or by sending in their applications (*PG_M.S.W._Social Work_349 21_Social Group Work_MSW.Pdf*, n.d.).

The worker has to examine the applications as to the suitability of the candidates on the basis of eligibility criteria established. The criteria include extent of need, urgency of intervention, demographic attributes, experience, and other skills. The worker can also arrange interviews with the applicants to ascertain their suitability (*PG_M.S.W._Social Work_349 21_Social Group Work_MSW.Pdf*, n.d.).

By interviewing the applicants the worker can also explain to them about purpose of the group and dispel some of their doubts about joining the group. Once the

worker completes the screening, the suitable applicants are enrolled into the group (*PG_M.S.W._Social Work_349 21_Social Group Work_MSW.Pdf*, n.d.)

Contracting:

At the time of enrolling the members the worker and members have to enter into an agreement and certain conditions are followed during the course of group work. It consists of a statement of general responsibilities of the members and the worker during the life of the group. Some of these include assurance to attend the group sessions regularly, to complete any task or work assigned, maintain the confidentiality of the discussions of the group, not to indulge in a behaviour that is detrimental to the well-being of the group (*PG_M.S.W._Social Work_349 21_Social Group Work_MSW.Pdf*, n.d.). The contract also specifies the fees or charges if any for undertaking certain activities and for procuring any material, as well as the penalties or fines the member/s has to pay for any violations of the terms of contract. The contents in the contract are subjected to revisions to accommodate some unforeseen developments as the group process unfolds. The contract may be in written or an oral understanding. The contract binds the worker and members to planned schedules of the group and facilitates an environment to conduct the group processes effectively (*PG_M.S.W._Social Work_349 21_Social Group Work_MSW.Pdf*, n.d.)

Finally the worker has to prepare a stage for beginning the group proceedings. She/he has to procure a conducive place for group sessions either in the agency itself or any other suitable place, arrange for monetary back up, and gather necessary information and material. And make such other preparations for launching of the group.

Initial Meetings:

In this section we are looking into what are the tasks the worker and members have to undertake to begin the group. In fact it is the most crucial stage as the success or failure of the group depends on how well the initial meetings are handled by the worker. The members attend the meeting with a lot of expectations. Member attends the meeting with the hope that time has come to get over the problem that has been affecting them over a (long) period of time. How much of it is going to be solved? They are also enthusiastic to meet and interact with others whom they have not met before and who are also having similar needs/problems. They will look forward to

having new social experiences. While on the other hand members many entertaining a number of doubts about the competence of the worker and whether participating in this group exercise can really deal with their problems effectively. They are also having a number of fears. They do not know what type of persons are the worker and other members (*Stages in the Group Work Process.Pdf*, n.d.-b). The steps involved in this stage are self- presentations by the worker and the members, orientation about the group, goal formation, structuring the group session and reviewing the contract

Self-presentations:

As soon as the group is convened for the first time, the worker takes the initiative of making the group members feel comfortable by friendly greetings with each and every member. Once the members are settled comfortably then the worker introduces himself/herself giving personal and professional details. The worker shall give adequate information about himself/herself as possible so that it not only makes members confident about the worker but it also act as guide as to the details of information they have to disclose when their self –presentations turn comes. After that the members are asked to introduce themselves. This exercise of introductions shall be planned in such a way that it will help the members to feel at ease, and come out with more details about their situation(Jagadish, n.d.).The worker should make them understand that the more the details they give the better will be their understanding about each other and will make a way for developing trust which is very important for effective results. There are a number of ways of introductions. The worker can employ any of such introductions keeping in mind the group’s purpose and composition of the group. One way is to sit in a circle and introductions start in either clockwise or anticlockwise direction. Another way is the members are divided into pairs and each pair is asked to exchange information about each other and then one member of the pair introduces the other and vice versa.

Orientation about the Group:

After the self-presentations the worker shall orient all members about the broad purpose of the group for which it is formed. Here the worker spells out circumstances that paved the way for forming the group. How their disadvantage/s are likely overcome through the participation in subsequent group processes. Members are told explained about the functions and the roles of both the worker and the members. The

worker also mentions previous experiences if any, so that members develop confidence in the worker as well as the strategy of adopting group work as a viable alternative. Members are encouraged to seek clarifications as to the relevance of the group's purpose to their needs or problem situation. The worker also explains the agency's background.

Goal Setting:

In this step, the goals of the group are framed. Goals are statements of desired levels of change in behaviour or in social situation or in physical conditions to be achieved at some future time. The purpose of the group, agency's purpose, the needs of the individual members and the modalities of conducting the group—Then norms of conduct — determine the goals. The worker assesses the individual needs of the members and in consultation with them frames the goals. Toseland and Rivas (1984) specified three areas of goal formation. First area covers group centered goals that revolve around the conduct and maintenance of the group. Second area consists of common group goals that address to all concerned people worker, members, agency, sponsor, and finally the third area is concerning individual member centered specific goals. The goals are again viewed as ultimate goal and a number of intermediary goals (Rose, 1973; Jagdish, n.d).

The ultimate goal indicates what final change in the status quo is to be attained while the intermediary goals that facilitate attainment of ultimate goal. These intermediary goals are formulated session-wise and / or stage-wise that is from the reference of time or progress made (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a). Konapka (1958) emphasises that while framing the goals, care shall be taken to see that these are complementing and supplementing rather than conflicting and contradicting each other. Some examples of the goals are:

- The parents of mentally retarded children join a group to learn some better ways of coping up with the challenges of upbringing their wards — the general need of the group members.;
- The purpose of the group is to provide a platform for the parents of mentally retarded children to share and exchange their skills in upbringing of the children— the purpose of the group formation.
- Agency's purpose is to make parents take more responsibility in bringing up their mentally retarded children.

- A parent's specific need is to learn to tackle the aggressive behaviour of his/her child and to make his/her spouse and other family members to accept the child.
- The group centred goal is that all members will share their problems without any reservations and will not waste the group's time by indulging in irrelevant issues.

All these are complementing and supplementing each other. For example, if the goal of joining the group is to question the policies of the agencies or to demand for more facilities then the goal is not complementary to other goals and create problems in attaining other goals, therefore, should not be included.

Structuring Group Session:

Structuring the group session involves two aspects. First is structuring the time and the second addresses to the pattern of interactions. The group has to work out how much time has to be allotted to each session, to each activity and to each member. The group has to evolve the modalities of adhering to the time schedules. It has also to work out alternatives in case of failure to adhere to the time schedules. For example it has to spend 30 minutes for a video show but because of the electricity failure, the video could not be played. Instead of idling away the time the group can have a discussion focused on the theme of the videotape.

The interactions among the members and between the members and the worker have to be structured. Structuring the interactions includes how to address each other, how to and when to intervene and interrupt how to encourage docile and shy members to participate and control the domination of some members. It also includes certain group norms that are to be followed strictly by the members.

Reviewing the Contract:

At the time of enrolling, the members and worker entered into an agreement of working together. At that time the members might not have good understanding about the whole exercise. After attending the orientation and having initial interactions with the worker and with each other, members and worker may feel the need to change some conditions of the contract, for example, the frequency of meetings, time and duration of the meetings, and the fees etc. The contract is reviewed and new clauses are introduced or some clauses are deleted from the original contract with mutual

consent. Creating an environment that is conducive for the healthy conduct of the group session is a continuous process. The physical arrangements, financial back up and mobilising resources are the areas the group members and the worker have to work on (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a). This is very essential as it will help in updating felt needs of the members in group activities.

Middle or Active Working Phase (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a):

This phase occupies the major part of the working life of the group. Members attend the sessions regularly and actively working towards accomplishing its purpose and goals general group maintenance goals, common group goals and individual member goals. The steps involved in this stage are making arrangements for the conduct of group sessions, structuring the time, facilitating group meetings and assessment of the group's progress.

Making Arrangements for Group Sessions (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a):

The group gears up for attaining various goals it is pursuing. The worker and the members plan and make preparation for the group meetings. The worker has to spend considerable amount of time in developing the activities and procedures for the conduct of the group meetings. A number of decisions have to be taken with regard to the selection of an activity or task, sequencing of the tasks and activities, assigning responsibilities etc. Materials and equipment to conduct the group activities have to be procured. Resource agencies and persons have to be contacted. For example, a pre-retirement counselling group may plan for exercises that would give them an idea about the possible changes that take place in their social status and roles and how best to cope up with the new situation. The possible exercises could be role-plays, screening of a video followed with a discussion, an orientation lecture session by an expert counsellor in the field etc.

Structuring Time:

The worker continues this task of setting the time limits for group sessions and individual tasks which has already been initiated in the previous phase as the life of the group is for specified period. The members and the worker have to be quite conscious of using time to get maximum benefit out of the group meetings. It is often

the tendency to delay the start the meetings for the sake of latecomers. Delaying the starting time may encourage late coming and cause inconvenience to others who report in time. It also happens that the meetings are either closed early or late. This is also not healthy as it causes inconvenience to members who have other works to attend and discourage them to attending or they may not pay proper attention to the group activity. Further, it is quite possible to get totally engrossed in a particular group task and lose track of the time. This may spill over into the other activity and giving it insufficient time. Consequently the benefits from the other activity are badly affected. So it is important that members must carefully structure their time and follow it.

Facilitating the Group Sessions:

It is not sufficient just to plan and prepare for the group sessions. The very reason for forming the group is to enable the members to come on to one platform to work towards solving their problems, which they could not solve individually. This suggests that the group needs guidance and support to carry out the tasks it has set forth. The worker has to take a lead in this and facilitate the group to perform its tasks successfully. At this stage of group's life, the members seriously pursue the goals of both individual and group. Worker encourages members to actively involved in the group activities, may they be sharing, discussing, and performing a task. The worker develops some insight into their strengths and weaknesses. It may be noticed that some members are performing well and while others do not show progress. Because of this the group's progress is affected. The worker has to facilitate the non-performing members to perform. Equipped with the sound knowledge base in human behaviour he/she assists each and every member to be aware of their cognitive processes intrapersonal processes that are blocking their progress, and enables them to organise their social transactions interpersonal interactions in the group to establish purposeful relationship. Intrapersonal limitations revolve around feelings, thoughts, beliefs and behaviour patterns of the member. For example when a member is asked to give his feeling about the just concluded group session, if he/she expresses that so and so member is rude in interacting, then the member is giving his thought but not the feeling which may unhappiness or happiness with the session. Sometimes the member does not understand the association between these cognitive processes. In the above example the link between the thoughts and feelings are not established if

the member could link the association between the thoughts of being dealt rudely by others during the course of the session and his/her being unhappy. In another case a member may entertain irrational thoughts and beliefs. In the above example if a member says that he/she feels the behaviour of a particular member is rude towards him/ her because the member resembles somebody in his/ her past with which he/she had bad relationships. The worker facilitates the member to perform in desired direction by making them to understand these mental states. The worker then make suggestions for reframing and restructuring of the thoughts and expressions, as well as for stopping of the recurrence of unhealthy thoughts to enable the member to deal with these cognitive processes.

The worker facilitates interpersonal interactions whenever he/she finds them deteriorating. Deteriorating interpersonal relations are discerned when members fail to communicate with each other, participate in the group activities, avoids some members, differ and pick up quarrels with each other, and form subgroups and work against each other. The worker helps to improve the interpersonal interactions by introducing a number of ice breaking, role-playing, modelling, and simulation exercises. At the environmental level worker connects the members with resources, creates congenial physical and social environment.

Examining Group's Performance:

The group processes are examined with a view to ensure that group attains its goals. It provides proper direction and guidance to the group. It includes the assessment of the levels of participation and involvement of group members in the group activities, the changes that are taking place in the members' perceptions, attitudes and behaviours, acquisition of new skills and strengthening of existing skills that would help members to deal with their problem areas and grow. It points out the areas for and type of interventions that have to be planned and implemented by the worker at individual level as well as at the group level. The assessment is being done by the worker, members themselves and others who are associated with the group.

The tools that help generally helps in the assessment are observations and recording. The structure observation here refers to the observations of worker and other members and self-observations of members themselves. For example, it is decided to assess the communication patterns among the members. The worker and members are informed in advance or later, that is during or after a specific task has

been performed, to note their observations on various aspects of communication such as the language, the gestures, modes of communication verbal or non-verbal the member/s resorts to. While, recording of the group are written reports, audiotapes and videotapes, measurement scales of behaviour, and socio-gram etc. The interaction patterns, behaviour manifestations, group attraction, situation leading to conflicts, subgroup formations, and leadership styles are some areas that can be assessed by the above mentioned tools(*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a). The process and procedures of assessment are carried out with or without prior knowledge of members.

Evaluation in group formation process (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a)

Evaluation (on going) is an integral component of social group work. The term evaluates simply means to examine the value of. According to Trecker (1955), it attempts to measure the quality of group's experience in relation to the objectives and functions of the agency. Evaluation provides the necessary feedback on the performance of the group. It is carried out after the end of group work activity. It focuses on the worker's performance, agency support, the group process and growth of the members. The evaluation may be entrusted to the worker or to someone in the agency or to an outside expert(*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a). It points out that whether the worker competently dealt with the group work process or not. What shortcomings are constraining the worker to perform better? It enables him/her to gain confidence and make efforts to improve his/her professional knowledge and skills, gives him/ her satisfaction that he/she is contributing for good of the profession and the society. It throws light on effectiveness and ineffectiveness of planning and conducting the group sessions. Finally, it indicates measures to be taken not to repeat the mistakes or overcome the shortcomings for future groups formations and processes. Therefore evaluation is not just a routine administrative job but also a guide for the future.

6.4 Summary

In this chapter we have thoroughly studied group formation and different factors that necessitate social workers to plan for a social group. We have learnt that social

work groups are different from other groups as they come into existence for a specific purpose of enabling people in need to resolve their needs through group experience which under constant guidance from a professional trained social worker. We also have information about the types of social work groups that can be thought of by the worker keeping in mind the needs/problem situation of the members, the interests of the agency, and the availability of resources. We have learnt that the social work group formation has a number of phases and each phase has a number of steps, which the worker and members have to carefully involve. We have also examined the role of social group worker in group formation. We have discussed the generic roles group work in different stages. The group worker is the key player in the formation of the group. The worker plays a number of roles. He/ she plays the most widely shared roles of social worker in general viz., enabler, mediator, advocate, educator, and facilitator. The roles specific to social work group are that of a leader and decision maker (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a). As enabler the worker furnishes the necessary information to members so that member's doubts are clarified and their participation levels improve. He/she encourages the member/s who takes initiatives in performing the group tasks. As mediator, the worker resolves the conflicts in the group by liaison. Brings conflicting members onto discussion forum and interprets each member's points of view so that the misunderstandings that caused the conflict are put to an end. The worker also mediates the negotiations between the group and the other staff of the agency and other resource agencies (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-b).

As advocate the worker presents the case of the members to the agency authorities to secure certain additional facilities and concessions. She/he pleads on behalf of the member with family and/or with the community to cooperate with the member by way of accommodating the member's needs. He/she presents the case of the member/s to the referral services (*Social Work/ : Stages of Social Work Group Formation*, n.d.-a).

As educator the worker clarifies the misconceptions the member/s have about various aspects such as the problem/need, irrational beliefs, unfounded fears etc. He passes on information to the members about the developments taking place in the areas concerning their social situations.

As facilitator the worker creates congenial environment for the group to go ahead with its activities and tasks. He/she procures the required material for the smooth conduct of the group sessions/tasks. The worker helps members who are shy and withdrawn type to participate by helping them to identify their intrapersonal and interpersonal shortcomings and assists them in overcoming these.

As a Leader the group worker also plays the role of a leader in the group. As a professional with sound knowledge base in human behaviour and social interactions and interpersonal relations, the group worker is automatically assumes leadership role. Till the time the group has its leader from among the members the worker discharges the functions of a leader. Douglas discussed four leadership acts the worker performs viz., preparation, intervention (working), intervention (control) and evaluation. The worker provides directions to group members in planning the group activities, making preparations for carrying out the planned activities and finally in carrying out activities. He exercises controls over those members who are either not cooperative or involving in actions that are detrimental to the group's norms and purposes.

As decision maker he performs the role as decision maker. Decision making is to choose among the alternatives available. A number of decisions have to be taken in planning and organising group and its activities. The decision-making process starts from the conception of the group to that of termination of the group. At every stage decisions have to be made. For example, a decision has to be taken to decide the size and composition of the group in the formation stage. They have to be made independently by the worker or made in active consultation with and involvement of members, agency administrators and other staff and at times even with resource and referral agencies. Even though the worker has conviction in the democratic process, still the worker is compelled to take decision as the group is in a fix or dilemma to take decisions.

Finally, the worker as a leader develops and promotes Co-leadership in the group. The worker identifies the potential leaders from among the members and creates opportunities for them to take up leadership responsibilities.

6.5 Exercise

1. What is group Formation?
2. What are the factors or areas that one should be keep in mind for group formation?
3. What role a social worker can play in Group Formation?

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Unit 7 □ Group Development

Structure

- 7.0 Objectives**
- 7.1 Introduction**
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7.0 Objectives

The basic objective of this part is to develop clear concepts on group development, group process and group dynamics. This concept is very much essential in order to help in understanding growth of the group, which generally is the system to prepare the members to face various challenges, to tackle problems, to find solutions, to plan work, and to deliver results.

7.1 Introduction

Groups, like individuals, are each unique with their own experiences and expectations. Many commentators studying group development and dynamics have recognized that group development, as a generalization, is more predictable than individual behavior. Many theories of stages of group development have been cultivated, and it must be stressed that no single definitive model of stages of group development exists. Two of the most useful theories of stages of group development are those discussed by Tuckman (1965) and Rogers (1967). These models, like others (for example Heap, 1977), propose as groups develop and change they pass through stages which may be conceptualized. Tuckman's model has been used extensively

within youth work theory and practice and is an excellent model for attempting to analyze individual and group behavior (*Groups at Work-Social Psychology Assignment*, n.d.). Before going into those models, let us try to understand the basic concept of group development.

7.2 Group Development

Group development in social group work refers to the process of progress of group's achievement over a period of time. The term generally used to indicate the pattern in a way the groups of people change over time and make decisions. Two specific indicators of group development are: (a) the members feeling settled and happy in the group; and (b) progress the group is making in achieving its objectives. Regular meetings of the group, a wider interaction among members, a free flowing conversation, and language, general spirit of cooperation and accommodation of members are some signs of positive environment in a group, reflecting a clear sign of group development (Siddiqui, 2008). The indicators of group development are : attendance, punctuality, definite meeting time and attendance, development of a formal organization, willingness on the part of the members to undertake initiative and responsibility, Increased innovation and motivation, controlled behavior of the members, high level of participation, emergence of leader, and shift from 'I' and 'Me' to 'We' and 'Us'. The process was first described by Tuckman, an educational psychologist who came up with the process in the 1960s. Since then group development is known as team building and team development and have become a generally accepted pattern of group behavior. In group development, group is formed; members get to know each other, even if there are pre-existing relationships, and also closely interact with each other.

Understanding the stages of group development helps in developing proper intervention in the group process to bring about group's growth and achieving group goals. Some theorists have claimed that groups develop through more or less predefined stages (eg. Kurt Lewin's unfreezing-change-freezing, Tuckman's Team Development Stages, etc.). Others have said that group development is cyclic. Yet some have argued that group development happens while groups may or may not go through

certain phases at some moment in time. To get an acceptable definition of this phrase is difficult because it has been defined in many ways with varying degrees of depth and complexity.

- Berkowitz (1974) has stated that group development refers to the fact that group process undergoes modification which enables the group to have more alternative ways to solve problems (as cited in Smith, 2001).
- Ridgeway's (1983) definition of group development focuses on the groups need for improved communication patterns (as cited in Smith, 2001).
- Sarri & Galinsky (1974) have defined group development as changes through time in the internal structure, processes and culture of group (as cited in Bission, 1988).

As an outline in this definition (Sarri&Galinsky as cited in Ito et.al., 2008) of group development entails changes within three different dimensions. The first dimension, the social dimension, is concerned with the organization of groups' structure and the pattern of the participants' roles and structures. The second dimension focuses on the group's activities, task and the operative process of the group and is labelled the activity dimension. The other dimension, group culture, includes properties such as group norms, values and a shared group purposes.

7.2.1 Stages of Group Development: An Overview

Tuckman's model (1965) has been used extensively used theory and practice and is an excellent model for attempting to analyse individual and group behaviour. His model is elaborated below

Stage 1: Forming

In the Forming stage, group members rely on safe, patterned behaviour and look to the group leader for guidance and direction. Group members have a desire for acceptance by the group and a need to know that the group is safe. They set about gathering impressions and data about the similarities and differences among them and forming preferences for future sub grouping. Rules of behaviour seem to be to keep things simple and to avoid controversy. Serious topics and feelings are avoided. The major task functions also concern orientation. Members attempt to become

oriented to the tasks as well as to one another. Discussion centres on defining the scope of the task, how to approach it, and similar concerns. To grow from this stage to the next, each member must relinquish the comfort of non-threatening topics and risk the possibility of conflict (*Stages of Team Development*, n.d.). Oppressive behaviour is least likely within the formation stage of a group as individuals generally look to create a comfort zone and do not wish to rock the boat. Often frustrations will be built upon between individuals who disagree strongly, but this will generally not surface until storming begins.

A knowledge and understanding of the feelings and emotions felt by group members in this stage is helpful, if not essential, to the effective structuring of a programme to work towards the desired outcome for the group. The worker should be patient and undertake activities/decisions to show results in the first sessions of group formation and to arouse the interest of members. The members can be briefed about duration of the group, its size, nature, meeting place, etc. Thus, the planning for forming the group in particular should focus on the following details.

Composition of group:

The nature of membership depends on purpose of the group and its goals. The worker must collect details about members on the following points: the socio-economic background of members, geographical location, client group, earlier experience of group participation, reasons for joining the group, and individual needs and interests. Collecting information about these issues will help the worker in carrying out the work.

Size of group:

A decision about the size of the group should be made keeping the purpose of the group and the needs of members in mind. The decision about the size depends on several factors including the experience of worker and the age group of the clients/members.

Frequency of the meeting:

Frequency of group meeting is to be fixed depending upon the purpose or convenience of members, the workers own work load, etc. As such, there is no fixed

formula to decide the frequency. For example, recreational group of children meet more frequently, support group may be once in a week or once in 15 days and self help group or saving groups weekly or once in a month and so on. Frequency of meeting of treatment group is decided more in accordance with the needs of the members.

Place of meetings:

A place of group meeting has also to be decided in accordance with the convenience of the members and in convenience of space and other resources needful for group activities. Frequent change of venue of meeting is known to cause difficulties and should be avoided. Members consent about the place of meeting could severely affect the participation.

Duration of the group:

The decision about the duration is taken considering the experience, capacity of the members to achieve the goal in a given time frame. The duration of the group can be changed depending upon the progress made by the group, such as a certain level of cohesion and the decision of the members to continue in their own.

Establish group culture, mutual aid system and social responsibility is also important for a worker in the planning and forming stage.

Stage 2: Storming

The next stage, which Tuckman refers as storming stage. As the group members attempt to organize for the task, conflict inevitably results in their personal relations. Individuals have to bend and mould their feelings, ideas, attitudes, and beliefs to suit the group organization. Because of “fear of exposure” or “fear of failure,” there will be an increased desire for structural clarification and commitment. Although conflicts may or may not surface as group issues, they do exist. Questions will arise about who is going to be responsible for what, what the rules are, what the reward system is, and what criteria for evaluation are. These reflect conflicts over leadership, structure, power, and authority (“Team to Achieve Millennium - PHDessay.Com,” 2017). There may be wide swings in members’ behavior based on emerging issues of competition

and hostilities. Because of the discomfort generated during this stage, some members may remain completely silent while others attempt to dominate. In order to progress to the next stage, group members must move from a “testing and proving” mentality to a problem-solving mentality. The most important trait in helping groups to move on to the next stage seems to be the ability to listen (“Team to Achieve Millennium - PHDessay.Com,” 2017).

The potential for oppressive behaviour is strong within the storming phase as group members preferred roles and release frustrations built within the forming period. This personal oppression should be discouraged whilst it is understood that a degree of conflict is necessary if the group is to further develop (*Groups at Work-Social Psychology Assignment*, n.d.). It is important to be aware that conflict will take place within all groups, and if handled well this conflict can produce benefits for the group in terms of development, objective and task setting, and ultimate outcome. Thus conflict is not inherently something to be feared or avoided (*Groups at Work-Social Psychology Assignment*, n.d.).

In the exploration stage, the worker must focus on preparation of profile and setting objectives. Hence, the worker must take details of members including their name, age and educational status; general awareness level of group goals; the self confidence level; communication skills; and leadership potential. This profile can serve as the benchmark to see what changes can occur in individuals as a result of their participation in group activities.

The success of the group depends to a great extent on the clarity on setting objectives. The group objectives should be broad enough to cover these individual differences of needs. The objectives of group will however depend on the kind of member the worker is working with. The purpose of the group is also influenced by the sponsoring organization. A number of other objectives can also be identified to work with the groups. Some of the objectives of group work are: to provide recreational services on activities, to provide creative activities among group members, to prepare members for social responsibility, to develop life skills, and to provide helps in dealing with problems of social functioning.

Stage 3: **Norming**

In Tuckman's Norming stage, interpersonal relations are characterized by cohesion. Group members are engaged in active acknowledgment of all members' contributions, community building and maintenance, and solving of group issues. Members are willing to change their preconceived ideas or opinions on the basis of facts presented by other members, and they actively ask questions of one another. Leadership is shared, and cliques dissolve. When members begin to know-and identify with-one another, the level of trust in their personal relations contributes to the development of group cohesion(*Stages of Team Development*, n.d.). It is during this stage of development (assuming the group gets this far) that people begin to experience a sense of group belonging and a feeling of relief as a result of resolving interpersonal conflicts. The major task function of stage three is the data flow between group members: They share feelings and ideas, solicit and give feedback to one another, and explore actions related to the task (*Stages of Team Development*, n.d.). Creativity is high. If this stage of data flow and cohesion is attained by the group members, their interactions are characterized by openness and sharing of information on both a personal and task level. They feel good about being part of an effective group. The major drawback of the norming stage is that members may begin to fear the inevitable future breakup of the group; they may resist change of any sort(*Stages of Team Development*, n.d.).

The storming and norming phases of group development are inextricably linked, as it is often through the storming and challenging that acceptable group norms become set. It is important that a youth worker works hard during this stage to ensure oppression against individuals within the group do not become the acceptable norm, as then all group members will oppress these individuals. Thus, individual oppressions must be challenged and emphasis placed on challenging attitudes and opinions but not group members(*Groups at Work-Social Psychology Assignment*, n.d.).

Stage 4: **Performing**

The Performing stage is not reached by all groups. If group members are able to evolve to stage four, their capacity, range, and depth of personal relations expand to true interdependence. In this stage, people can work independently, in subgroups, or

as a total unit with equal facility. Their roles and authorities dynamically adjust to the changing needs of the group and individuals. Stage four is marked by interdependence in personal relations and problem solving in the realm of task functions (*FacultyDevelopment_GroupDevelopment.Pdf*, n.d.). By now, the group should be most productive. Individual members have become self-assuring, and the need for group approval is past. Members are both highly task oriented and highly people oriented. There is unity: group identity is complete, group morale is high, and group loyalty is intense. The task function becomes genuine problem solving, leading toward optimal solutions and optimum group development. There is support for experimentation in solving problems and an emphasis on achievement. The overall goal is productivity through problem solving and work (*FacultyDevelopment_GroupDevelopment.Pdf*, n.d.).

Stage 5: **Adjourning**

Tuckman's final stage, adjourning, involves the termination of task behaviours and disengagement from relationships. A planned conclusion usually includes recognition for participation and achievement and an opportunity for members to say personal goodbyes. Concluding a group can create some apprehension – in effect, a minor crisis. The termination of the group is a regressive movement from giving up control to giving up inclusion in the group. The most effective interventions in this stage are those that facilitate task termination and the disengagement process (*FacultyDevelopment_GroupDevelopment.Pdf*, n.d.). The ending of a group can be a very unhappy and distressing time for some members, as they may feel some extent of dependency on the group. Garland et al. describe some of the typical responses to the ending phase as (*Groups at Work-Social Psychology Assignment*, n.d.):

- Denial – ‘forgetting’ the time of the groups termination.
- Regression – reverting to a less independent state of functioning.
- Need expression – in the hope the group will continue.
- Recapitulation – detailed recall of past experiences within the group.
- Evaluation – detailed discussion on the value of the group experience.

- Flight – destructive denial of any positive benefit of the group, or a positive disengagement towards other interests.

Potential exists within this stage for members to be oppressed as scapegoats, that is blamed or at fault for the ending of the group. This can be minimised by constant focusing and refocusing on group end points and staged celebrations of group achievements. As we have seen the value of a theoretical understanding of conceptualising this group stage theory in youth work and other helping professions, lies in enabling group workers to ‘tune into the group’s processes and respond appropriately’ (Preston-Shoot, 1987).

7.2.2 Role of Social Worker in different stages of group development

There are different roles of social worker according to different stages of development. For our easy understanding we can elaborate this concept as below by keeping reclassified stages of group development vis-a-vis role of a social worker. The social worker practicing this method in the Indian setting following the western theoretical framework may find it an uphill task. Let us try to understand to bifurcate various stages of development in view of the above to outline the role of social worker.

Stage I: Planning and Formation of Group:

Under this, the worker has to work hard to form a group. Planning stage refers to contacting the potential members individually or in small groups to share with them the idea of forming a group. The formation stage thus will require careful planning. The worker should contact the members individually and in groups to discuss the idea and purpose of group formation. The members can be briefed about duration of the group, its size, nature, meeting place, etc. Thus, the planning for forming the group in particular should focus on the following details.

(i) Composition of group: The nature of membership depends on purpose of the group and its goals. The worker must collect details about members on the following points: the socio-economic background of members, geographical location, client group, earlier experience of group participation, reasons for joining the group, and individual needs and interests. Collecting information about these issues will help the worker in carrying out the work.

(ii) Size of group: A decision about the size of the group should be made keeping the purpose of the group and the needs of members in mind. The decision about the size depends on several factors including the experience of worker and the age group of the clients/members.

(iii) Frequency of the meeting: Frequency of group meeting is to be fixed depending upon the purpose or convenience of members, the workers own work load, etc. As such, there is no fixed formula to decide the frequency. For example, recreational group of children meet more frequently, support group may be once in a week or once in 15 days and self help group or saving groups weekly or once in a month and so on. Frequency of meeting of treatment group is decided more in accordance with the needs of the members.

(iv) Place of meetings: A place of group meeting has also to be decided in accordance with the convenience of the members and in convenience of space and other resources needful for group activities. Frequent change of venue of meeting is known to cause difficulties and should be avoided. Members consent about the place of meeting could severely affect the participation.

(v) Duration of the group: The decision about the duration is taken considering the experience, capacity of the members to achieve the goal in a given time frame. The duration of the group can be changed depending upon the progress made by the group, such as a certain level of cohesion and the decision of the members to continue in their own.

(vi) Establish group culture, mutual aid system and social responsibility is also important for a worker in the planning and forming stage.

Stage II: Exploration Stage:

It is critical stage in the group process and group development and it can be a point of making a group or break a group. It is time at which members are searching s individual role and function or one's status in the group. Issues of control and power are prominent and tested in leader-member as well as member-member interaction. The worker at this stage has to offer magical solution to problems. Each group member's needs are to be met and expressed. At the task level there may be

anxiety and uncertainty. So, it is important that all members are involved in the group activity.

Thus, in the exploration stage, the worker must focus on preparation of profile and setting objectives. The following details could be mentioned as responsibility of worker in this stage.

(i) Preparation of profile: The worker must prepare a profile of members including their name, age and educational status; general awareness level of group goals; the self confidence level; communication skills; and leadership potential. This profile can serve as the benchmark to see what changes can occur in individuals as a result of their participation in group activities.

(ii) Setting objectives: The success of the group depends to a great extent on the clarity on setting objectives. The group objectives should be broad enough to cover these individual differences of needs. The objectives of group will however depend on the kind of member the worker is working with.

Stage III: Performing Stage:

In this stage, the role of the worker is that he or she must have the capacity to develop cohesion, monitoring and a change to be avoided in allocating task, which put too much pressure on individuals as well as to the groups. The feeling of cohesiveness in the group is what members enjoy most i.e. when they feel they belong to the group.

Stage IV: Evaluation Stage:

In the evaluation stage, the role of worker is to perform the following: (a) record keeping, (b) help members to evaluate what they have achieved and also have failed to achieve, and (c) find out what is the development of individual and group. Evaluation is an essential part of all processes as it helps the worker and member both to assess the outcome of their efforts. The evaluation can be carried out informally or in a formal manner.

Stage V: Termination Stage:

At the termination of a group in particular, an assessment of the individual's dependence on the group should be carefully done. The worker can help the group

to feel good about the success achieved. However, the worker must guard against any emotional over dependence on the part of the member on group as it can undermine the individual's self reliance and coping capacities.

In conclusion, it can be said that the worker has an important role to play in group development and its stages. The worker therefore should have a clear concept and thinking as well as decision towards different stages so as to bring a success of group goal.

7.2.3 Conclusion

Generally, the well known models of group development have identified a linear arrangement of development stages, where one stage is completed to precede or follow the other stage, such as forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning, provided by Tuckman (1965). As Konopka (1963) noted, the relationships of the members to each other are taken complex and full meaning and possibilities. They are never static. They change in time and in relation to specific situations and events in the life span of a group. They propose that as groups develop and change they pass through stages which may be conceptualised. This section dealt clearly on Tuckman's stage of development and it very well highlighted the role of social workers in different stages of group development.

7.2.4 Check Your Progress

1. Explain in short what is group development?
2. Write different stages of group development and its characteristics.
3. What role can a social worker play in different stages of group development?

7.3 Group Process

Objectives

The basic purpose of this sub section is to provide basic knowledge on the concept of group process for developing professional competence of handling social groups. This understanding will help a worker to know what to expect in different process of group and how to deal with the situations.

The phrase “Group Process” refers to the understanding of the behaviour of people in groups, such as task groups, and the processes used to solve problems or make decisions. A group here is defined as “a collection of individuals that have shared common interests or experiences.” A group develops relationships and generates an energy, or identity, that is different together than when individuals are by themselves or with others. When a group comes together they are primarily concerned with the contribution of content to achieve the purpose for which they were formed. Content is defined as the “substantive or meaningful part of something”. Group process as the means by which group members interact, make decisions, handle problems, and develop their roles. As the definition implies there are several elements to a group process. Elements, which typically influence group proceedings, include process design, communication, participation, decision making and role fulfilment. As the facilitator your advantage point provides a great opportunity to regularly observe how things are going. Depending on the frequency of meetings and an understanding of what to look for, you can be instrumental in ensuring group and individual success. For the purpose of this paper I am concerned with the “process that the facilitator designs” to help the group accomplish its purpose.

7.3.1 Understanding on group process

Ridgeway (1983) about the dynamics of groups listed the following group processes in small group. She identified basic fundamental processes in small group, which are identified as communication, cohesiveness, group development, conformity, deviance, social control, status differentiation, leadership, group culture. The key elements likely to happen in variety of ways and group process could be understood on the following ways:

Interaction; Communication; Cohesion; Conflict; Structuring; Leadership; Decision making; Norming and group culture; Social control; Group development

Let us try to understand each of those areas of importance in the group process.

Interaction

People join groups for a various purposes. The interaction started rolling as people come face to face in a situation. The interaction process is very fluid and undergoes frequent changes that may lead to either conflict or cohesion of a group. While communication, both verbal and non-verbal, facilitates interaction. Interaction can be person or issue focussed. One person dominated interaction will result in concentration of power in the group. Such a person will determine its purpose and will influence the participation of other members. S/he may impose restriction on interaction of other members among themselves. In such a context the interaction will be focussed but it could be termed as autocratic. This domination can be questioned by other members. The general sociological understanding is that the larger the size of the group, lesser is the interaction among its members. The relationship among members is emotional bond (Toseland and Rivas 2001). Leadership is the key variable in understanding interaction. The low participation among members is indicative of an interaction where some members are keeping a low profile, remaining at eh periphery of the affairs of the group. The subgroup is another interaction pattern inevitable in some groups. The pattern of interaction can be isolated or formation of sub-groups or all round interaction. Some of the possible ways of improving interaction in group can be controlling the size, or reducing distance, developing effective leadership, clarify group goals, explain the nature of interaction pattern, dealing with fairness and resistance, etc.

Communication

Communication is another important aspects of group interaction. The nature of communication itself makes difference on group interaction and its various processes. The negative communication may dissatisfied members in fulfilling their desired goal, while positive communication among members makes them happy and interact more freely among them. The communication process needs close monitoring and skilful communicator always is a great asset of the group. Good communication makes a healthy environment in the group. On the other hand communication gap

may create misunderstanding among the members. So, the worker should remember that the nature of communication can help in giving a structured form in the group for assigning role and responsibility among group members.

Cohesiveness

Group cohesiveness in social group work refers to the willingness of all members to stay together in the group. Secondary groups, like women's groups, SHGs, children's group, neighbours are spontaneous and natural. The members join them in their own. The nature of group formed by social worker is little different from these groups. The cohesiveness of a formed group is more fluid and the situation changes with different events and activities. They external and internal environment of these groups are dynamic in nature. Therefore, cohesiveness is not the simple factors of members liking or disliking or interpersonal interaction. People want to stay in a group because of variety of reasons, group potential for meeting the needs. People stay in the group despite of competing with each other. But the factors that generally helps in the group cohesive are group norms and group culture; group goal; a caring leader; non threatening group environment; a greater degree of homogeneity among group members.

Group Conflict

It is natural phenomenon that the members join together in secondary group, other than primary group voluntarily and stay and work together, play or carry out their activities; therefore, it is impossible to move forward without having any conflict among them. Heated exchange of ideas, silence, negative feedback, personal remarks directed against individuals, attacking integrity of individuals, are all symptoms indicative in a group. Some factors that can cause group conflict are like miscommunication, ideological differences, rigidity of group members, cultural differences, leadership styles, group goals not being able to address individual needs, outside environment, lack of resources, and heterogeneity among members. There are various ways in which group worker, group leader or facilitator can be taken care such group conflict for smooth function of the group based on democratic norms.

Structuring

Group structuring begins with group functioning. Tuckman (1963) refers that storming is one important stage, which is useful to understand the respective positions

of members in a specific group. The structuring is based on ongoing assessment of member's ability and roles which helps in reducing conflict. It emerged as they became aware of the goals and conflict of sharing of sharing rewards.

Group Decision Making

Group decision is a process of arriving at a decision where more than two individuals are involved. It is therefore, necessary for to understand the process of decision making. It is a pattern, follow some broad models of decision making, such as the Rational Model, the Political Model, and the Process Model. The rational model is based upon grounded goal, objectives, alternatives etc. It takes all available information and the decision makers are capable in assessing the advantages and disadvantages of any alternative goals or consequences of selecting or not selecting any each alternative. But rational model does possess a silent disadvantage. The model assumes that there are no intrinsic biases to the decision making process (Lyles and Thomas, 1988). Therefore, the worker must be conscious on such facts while helping members to arrive at a certain decision. While political model, one should be careful as it tells us to the fact that the decision makers has some interest and are motivated by and act on their own needs and perceptions. It does not believe in making full information available or focussing the optimal viewpoints. Personal interest and biases are common among members and it influences their behaviour. This model cannot be the best for social group work practice. The process model of decision making is more structured. In this model, decisions are made based upon standard operating procedures or pre-establishing guidelines within the group.

Leadership in Groups

Leadership facilitate in group functioning. A leaderless group face problems in maintaining order and focus in group functioning. Social scientist doesn't however believe that leaders are born. It can emerge from the group. As Lewin suggested leadership is a function of interaction in a group. Some theories identifies as the central factors in leadership and then go on identify power as the central factor of leadership and then gone into identifying different kinds of power. All people who are able to help group or members in a society in getting the things done as seen as people having power. They are respected or fear by others and many of them have emerges as different status than other members in the group, who normally refers as leaders. French and Raven (1968) has identified a few types of power of members

which help in enhancing individual status and leadership in a group, such as connective power (expertise in any area that can facilitate the group's tasks), information power (information that are required to facilitate group's progress of activities and decisions), expert power (expertise that helps setting and implementing tasks), legitimate power (a position of authority), reference power (liking and admiring members by many), reward power —ability to punish etc.,(*Leadership Styles and Bases of Power - Strategy, Organization, System, Manager, Definition, Model, Type, Hierarchy, Business, n.d.*)

Norming and Group Culture

Norms serve as guideline for acceptable behaviour. Violation of norms invokes social sanctions. All groups establish norms and belief systems. But norming becomes a problem when there is a wide range of belief and commitment to various values. Norms define the group culture. It is difficult to evolve norms of role allocation acceptable to all. But adopting some procedure and system can regulate members and group functioning. In providing freedom to members and helping them in respecting each other can further helps the group growth (*Leadership Styles and Bases of Power - Strategy, Organization, System, Manager, Definition, Model, Type, Hierarchy, Business, n.d.*).

Social Control

A system of control is inevitable to enforce compliance. There are formal rules of conduct and violation of rules can evoke penalty. The other kind of rules is not coded but is known to members through process of socialization. It of course is an essential part to work with a group.

Group Development

The stages of group development help the worker to monitor what is happening in a group. Bale (1950) was perhaps the first person to study the groups. He noted that the first thing that the people in a group do is to familiarize themselves with other members in the group and explore possibilities that the group has to offer them. He called it as orientation stage. The members may review their relationship with others in general and assessment based on experience. He termed this stage as evaluation stage.

Besides, by generalizing the elements of the processes one can identify seven common steps of Group Process (*Facilitation Center*, n.d.). The close observation of these steps can help the facilitator to work more effectively. These steps are (Vick, Wayne. J. 2013):



Reference: (*Facilitation Center*, n.d.)

Step 1: Focusing Purpose of group-

Focussing purpose of the group forms the foundation of the work of a group and consequently the group worker work as a facilitator. He/she seeks to help a group achieve its purpose or reason for being. So the purpose must be clearly identified. That is often difficult to do particularly in problem solving when participants come to a group event seeing a problem from a completely different perspective. Yet the facilitator must clarify the purpose long before participants step foot into the room. Getting clear on the purpose is absolutely critical to achieving success for the group.

Step 2: Planning for Group and its Process

The worker helps the group by planning a process that will achieve the purpose of the group. It is during this step that other models, concepts and frameworks are

brought to bear on the kind of work that is being done. If we are doing problem solving we must look at the kind of problem the group is facing and to select and use a problem solving model as our guide to planning the event. There are many different types of problem solving models. If we are not doing problem solving and just want to explore, learn more, or understand someone's plan, it works equally well, although there may be group process steps that we spend little to no time on. If we are developing a plan, like a strategic plan, it works equally well.

Step 3: Gathering Data for Group Programme-

Information or data is just like a pile of sand one use to make a sand castle. One should understand that the sand will become a beautiful sand sculpture when it is understood and properly formed. But before we work it, it is just a pile of sand. So, data is just information if it is not reviewed or understood or assessed within the proper context.

Step 4: Process Data and information for group decision

Data is meaningless until it has been processed or activities are given proper shape. This is where we process the data, through various tools and techniques to squeeze out its meaning and learn what it has to tell us. It is possible, and often likely, that we may decide to collect more data to confirm or complete our understanding of the situation. Steps 3 and 4 are somewhat meaning that a group's activities rarely flow from one step to another in a simple, four step, and clean process. We may need to gather data and process the information two or three times before we have enough information and understanding to look at options and make a decision.

Step 5: Examine Options

In this step of the group process one should ask what group could do about this? Examining options not only assumes the development of the options but could also include the development of criteria used for assessing the value of those options to solving the issues or achieving our goals, and the actual assessment as well.

Step 6: Make Decisions

Finally, after obtaining information and its proper understanding the group members need to make a decision. Decision making is the act of choosing a course of action, determining what to do. In addition this step one can also include the

setting of priorities and action planning with success metrics and follow-up requirements.

Step 7: Document Results

This is often a forgotten step yet it is extremely important for three reasons, one standardization of documenting that changes the group; historical note for future and recognition and celebration: following implementation and verification of the successful project taking time to recognize the accomplishment provides a reward of sorts to the team. Allow them to celebrate for the success they created. Documenting all the results is critical but it is necessary for group process purpose.

7.3.2 Conclusion

The understanding of group processes is very meaningful to develop a small group. The process can be identified by highlighting some important areas like interaction, communication, cohesiveness, group development, conformity, deviance, social control, status differentiation, leadership, group culture as part of the group process. While other can also identify the elements of group processes by analyzing seven common steps, which are like focus on the purpose; planning process; gather relevant data of group and activities process information relating to progress: examining options of groups: decision making process; document results. The worker can play an effective in understanding such concept and helping group members scientifically.

3.2.5 Check your Progress (Use the space proved for your answers)

1. What is group process? Discuss the concept briefly by mentioning different points
2. Write roles of a social worker in group processes.

7.4 Group Dynamics

7.4.1 Objectives

The basic objectives of this sub-section is to give a clear understanding on the concept of group dynamics, which is a system of behaviours and psychological processes occurring within a social group (intra group dynamics), or between social groups (intergroup dynamics). As the study of group dynamics can be useful in understanding decision-making behaviour, tracking the spread of problems in groups, creating effective therapy techniques, etc, it is necessary for worker to understand this concept.

Group dynamics are at the core of understanding in psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science, epidemiology, education, social work, business, and communication studies. The group dynamics (or group processes) has a consistent, underlying premise: 'the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.' A social group is an entity, which has qualities that cannot be understood just by studying the individuals that make up the group.

7.4.2 History of Group Dynamics

In 1924, Gestalt psychologist, Max Wertheimer identified this fact, stating 'There are entities where the behaviour of the whole cannot be derived from its individual elements nor from the way these elements fit together; rather the opposite is true: the properties of any of the parts are determined by the intrinsic structural laws of the whole' (Wertheimer 1924, p. 7). As a field of study, group dynamics has roots in both psychology and sociology. Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920), credited as the founder of experimental psychology, had a particular interest in the psychology of communities, which he believed possessed phenomena (human language, customs, and religion) that could not be described through a study of the individual. Ultimately, it was social psychologist Kurt Lewin (1890–1947) who coined the term group dynamics to describe the positive and negative forces within groups of people (as cited in Kariel, 1956). In 1945, he established The Group Dynamics Research Center at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the first institute devoted explicitly to the study of group dynamics. Throughout his career, Lewin was focused on how the study of group dynamics could be applied to real-world, social issues.

An increasing amount of research has applied evolutionary psychology principles to group dynamics. Humans are argued to have evolved in an increasingly complicated social environment and to have many adaptations concerned with group dynamics. Examples include mechanisms for dealing with status, reciprocity, identifying cheaters, ostracism, altruism, group decision, leadership, and intergroup relations.

7.4.3 Some Eminent theorists

Gustave Le Bon: Gustave Le Bon was a French social psychologist whose seminal study, *The Crowd: A Study of the Popular Mind* (1896) led to the development of group psychology.

Sigmund Freud: In *Group Psychology and the Analysis of the Ego*, (1922), Sigmund Freud based his preliminary description of group psychology on Le Bon's work, but went on to develop his own, original theory, related to what he had begun to elaborate in *Totem and Taboo*. Theodor Adorno reprised Freud's essay in 1951 with his *Freudian Theory and the Pattern of Fascist Propaganda*, and said that "It is not an overstatement if we say that Freud, though he was hardly interested in the political phase of the problem, clearly foresaw the rise and nature of fascist mass movements in purely psychological categories."

Jacob L. Moreno: Jacob L. Moreno was a psychiatrist, dramatist, philosopher and theoretician who coined the term "group psychotherapy" in the early 1930s and was highly influential at the time ("Group Dynamics," 2021).

Kurt Lewin:

Kurt Lewin (1943, 1948, 1951) is commonly identified as the founder of the movement to study groups scientifically. He coined the term group dynamics to describe the way groups and individuals act and react to changing circumstances over a period of time (*Human Communication Processes Session 4.Pdf*, n.d.).

William Schutz:

William Schutz (1958, 1966) looked at interpersonal relations from the perspective of three dimensions: inclusion, control and affection. This became the basis for a theory of group behaviour that sees groups as resolving issues in each of these stages in order to be able to develop to the next stage ("What Is Group Dynamics Example - Law Essays," 2020). Conversely, a group may also devolve to an earlier stage if

unable to resolve outstanding issues in a particular stage. He referred to these group dynamics as “the interpersonal underworld” because they dealt with group processes that were largely unseen, as opposed to “content” issues, which were nominally the agenda of group meetings.

Wilfred Bion:

Wilfred Bion (1961) studied group dynamics from a psychoanalytic perspective, and stated that he was much influenced by Wilfred Trotter for whom he worked at University College Hospital London, as did another key figure in the Psychoanalytic movement, Ernest Jones. He discovered several group processes which involved the group as a whole adopting an orientation which, in his opinion, interfered with the ability of a group to accomplish its work (*Human Communication Processes Session 4.Pdf*, n.d.). His experiences are reported in his published books, especially *Experiences in Groups*. The Tavistock Institute has further developed and applied the theory and practices developed by Bion.

Bruce Tuckman:

Bruce Tuckman (1965) proposed the four-stage model called Tuckman’s Stages for a group. Tuckman’s model states that the ideal group decision-making process should occur in four stages (*Bruce Tuckman’s Stages for a Group*, n.d.).

- Forming (pretending to get on or get along with others)
- Storming (letting down the politeness barrier and trying to get down to the issues even if tempers flare up)
- Norming (getting used to each other and developing trust and productivity)
- Performing (working in a group to a common goal on a highly efficient and cooperative basis)

Tuckman later added a fifth stage for the dissolution of a group called adjourning. (Adjourning may also be referred to as mourning, i.e. mourning the adjournment of the group). This model refers to the overall pattern of the group, but of course individuals within a group work in different ways. If distrust persists, a group may never even get to the norming stage.

Richard Hackman:

Richard Hackman developed a synthetic, research-based model for designing and managing work groups. Hackman suggested that groups are successful when they

satisfy internal and external clients develop capabilities to perform in the future, and when members find meaning and satisfaction in the group. Hackman proposed five conditions that increase the chance and following to such conditions the groups will be successful (*Human Communication Processes Session 4.Pdf*, n.d.) These include:

- Being a real team: which results from having a shared task, clear boundaries which clarify who is inside or outside of the group, and stability in group membership.
- Compelling direction: This results from a clear, challenging, and consequential goal.
- Enabling structure: which results from having tasks which have variety, a group size that is not too large, talented group members who have least moderate social skill, and strong norms that specify appropriate behavior?
- Supportive context: that occurs in groups nested in larger groups (e.g. companies). In companies, supportive contexts involves a) reward systems that reward performance and cooperation (e.g. group based rewards linked to group performance), b) an educational system that develops member skills, c) an information and materials system that provides the needed information and raw materials (e.g. computers).
- Expert coaching: which occurs on the rare occasions when group members feels they need help with task or interpersonal issues. Hackman emphasizes that many team leaders are overbearing and undermine group effectiveness.

Scott Peck:

M. Scott Peck developed stages for larger-scale groups (i.e., communities) which are similar to Tuckman's stages of group development. Peck describes the stages of a community as:

- Pseudo-community
- Chaos
- Emptiness
- True Community

Communities may be distinguished from other types of groups, in Peck's view, by the need for members to eliminate barriers to communication in order to be able

to form true community. Examples of common barriers are: expectations and preconceptions; prejudices; ideology, counterproductive norms, theology and solutions; the need to heal, convert, fix or solve and the need to control. A community is born when its members reach a stage of “emptiness” or peace.

Intra-group dynamics:

Intra group dynamics (also referred to as in group-, within-group, or commonly just ‘group dynamics’) are the underlying processes that give rise to a set of norms, roles, relations, and common goals that characterize a particular social group. Examples of groups include religious, political, military, and environmental groups, sports teams, work groups, and therapy groups. Amongst the members of a group, there is a state of interdependence, through which the behaviours, attitudes, opinions, and experiences of each member are collectively influenced by the other group members. In many fields of research, there is an interest in understanding how group dynamics influence individual behaviour, attitudes, and opinions.

The dynamics of a particular group depend on how one defines the boundaries of the group. Often, there are distinct subgroups within a more broadly defined group. For example, one could define U.S. residents (‘Americans’) as a group, but could also define a more specific set of U.S. residents (for example, ‘Americans in the South’). For each of these groups, there are distinct dynamics that can be discussed. Notably, on this very broad level, the study of group dynamics is similar to the study of culture. For example, there are group dynamics in the U.S. South that sustain a culture of honour, which is associated with norms of toughness, honour-related violence, and self-defence.

Group formation:

Group formation starts with a psychological bond between individuals. The social cohesion approach suggests that group formation comes out of bonds of interpersonal attraction. In contrast, the social identity approach suggests that a group starts when a collection of individuals perceive that they share some social category (‘smokers’, ‘nurses,’ ‘students,’ ‘hockey players’), and that interpersonal attraction only secondarily enhances the connection between individuals. Additionally, from the social identity approach, group formation involves both identifying with some individuals and explicitly not identifying with others. So to say, a level of psychological

distinctiveness is necessary for group formation. Through interaction, individuals begin to develop group norms, roles, and attitudes which define the group, and are internalized to influence behaviour.

Emergent groups arise from a relatively spontaneous process of group formation. For example, in response to a natural disaster, an emergent response group may form. These groups are characterized as having no pre-existing structure (e.g. group membership, allocated roles) or prior experience working together. Yet, these groups still express high levels of interdependence and coordinate knowledge, resources, and tasks.

Group membership and social identity:

The social group is a critical source of information about individual identity. An individual's identity (or self-concept) has two components: personal identity and social identity (or collective self). One's personal identity is defined by more idiosyncratic, individual qualities and attributes. In contrast, one's social identity is defined by his or her group membership, and the general characteristics (or prototypes) that define the group and differentiate it from others. We naturally make comparisons between our own group and other groups, but we do not necessarily make objective comparisons. Instead, we make evaluations that are self-enhancing, emphasizing the positive qualities of our own group (see ingroup bias). In this way, these comparisons give us a distinct and valued social identity that benefits our self-esteem. Our social identity and group membership also satisfies a need to belong. Of course, individuals belong to multiple groups. Therefore, one's social identity can have several, qualitatively distinct parts (for example, one's ethnic identity, religious identity, and political identity).

Optimal distinctiveness theory suggests that individuals have a desire to be similar to others, but also a desire to differentiate themselves, ultimately seeking some balance of these two desires (to obtain optimal distinctiveness). For example, one might imagine a young teenager in the United States who tries to balance these desires, not wanting to be 'just like everyone else,' but also wanting to 'fit in' and be similar to others. One's collective self may offer a balance between these two desires. That is, to be similar to others (those who you share group membership with), but also to be different from others (those who are outside of your group).

Group cohesion:

In the social sciences, group cohesion refers to the processes that keep members of a social group connected. Terms such as attraction, solidarity, and morale are often used to describe group cohesion. It is thought to be one of the most important characteristics of a group, and has been linked to group performance, intergroup conflict and therapeutic change.

Group cohesion, as a scientifically studied property of groups, is commonly associated with Kurt Lewin and his student, Leon Festinger. Lewin defined group cohesion as the willingness of individuals to stick together, and believed that without cohesiveness a group could not exist. As an extension of Lewin's work, Festinger (along with Stanley Schachter and Kurt Back) described cohesion as, "the total field of forces which act on members to remain in the group" (Festinger, Schachter, & Back, 1950, p. 37). Later, this definition was modified to describe the forces acting on individual members to remain in the group, termed attraction to the group. Since then, several models for understanding the concept of group cohesion have been developed, including Albert Carron's hierarchical model and several bi-dimensional models (vertical v. horizontal cohesion, task v. social cohesion, belongingness and morale, and personal v. social attraction). Before Lewin and Festinger, there were, of course, descriptions of a very similar group property. For example, Emile Durkheim described two forms of solidarity (mechanical and organic), which created a sense of collective conscious and an emotion-based sense of community.

Black sheep effect:

Beliefs within the in group are based on how individuals in the group see their other members (*Human Communication Processes Session 4.Pdf*, n.d.). Individuals tend to upgrade likeable in-group members and deviate from unlikeable group members, making them a separate outgroup. This is called the black sheep effect. A person's beliefs about the group may be changed depending upon whether they are part of the in group or out group. New members of a group must prove themselves to the full members, or "old-timers", to become accepted. Full members have undergone socialization and are already accepted within the group. They have more privilege than newcomers but more responsibility to help the group achieve its goals. Marginal members were once full members but lost membership because they failed

to live up to the group's expectations. They can re-join the group if they go through re-socialization. In a Bogart and Ryan study, the development of new members' stereotypes about in-groups and out-groups during socialization was surveyed. Results showed that the new members judged themselves as consistent with the stereotypes of their in-groups, even when they had recently committed to join those groups or existed as marginal members. They also tended to judge the group as a whole in an increasingly less positive manner after they became full members.

Depending on the self-esteem of individual members of the in-group may experience different private beliefs about the group's activities but will publicly express the opposite—that they actually share these beliefs. One member may not personally agree with something the group does, but to avoid the black sheep effect, they will publicly agree with the group and keep the private beliefs to themselves. If the person is privately self-aware, he or she is more likely to comply with the group even if they possibly have their own beliefs about the situation.

Group influence on individual behaviour:

Individual behaviour is influenced by the presence of others. For example, studies have found that individuals work harder and faster when others are present see social and that an individual's performance is reduced when others in the situation create distraction or conflict. Groups also influence individual's decision-making processes. These include decisions related to in-group bias, persuasion (see Asch conformity experiments), obedience (see Milgram Experiment), and group think. There are both positive and negative implications of group influence on individual behaviour. This type of influence is often useful in the context of work settings, team sports, and political activism.

Group structure:

A group's structure is the internal framework that defines members' relations to one another over time. Frequently studied elements of group structure include roles, norms, values, communication patterns, and status differentials. Group structure has also been defined as the underlying pattern of roles, norms, and networks of relations among members that define and organize the group.

Roles can be defined as a tendency to behave, contribute and interrelate with others in a particular way. Roles may be assigned formally, but more often are

defined through the process of role differentiation. Role differentiation is the degree to which different group members have specialized functions. A group with a high level of role differentiation would be categorized as having many different roles that are specialized and narrowly defined. A key role in a group is the leader, but there are other important roles as well, including task roles, relationship roles, and individual roles. Functional (task) roles are generally defined in relation to the tasks the team is expected to perform. Individuals engaged in task roles focus on the goals of the group and on enabling the work that members do; examples of task roles include coordinator, recorder, critic, or technician. A group member engaged in a relationship role (or socio-emotional role) is focused on maintaining the interpersonal and emotional needs of the groups' members; examples of relationship role include encourager, harmonizer, or compromiser.

Norms are the informal rules that groups adopt to regulate members' behaviour. Norms refer to what should be done and represent value judgments about appropriate behaviour in social situations. Although they are infrequently written down or even discussed, norms have powerful influence on group behaviour. They are a fundamental aspect of group structure as they provide direction and motivation, and organize the social interactions of members. Norms are said to be emergent, as they develop gradually throughout interactions between group members. While many norms are widespread throughout society, groups may develop their own norms that members must learn when they join the group. There are various types of norms, including: prescriptive, proscriptive, descriptive, and injunctive.

Prescriptive Norms: The socially appropriate way to respond in a social situation, or what group members are supposed to do (e.g. saying thank you after someone does a favour for you).

Proscriptive Norms: Actions that group members should not do; prohibitive (e.g. not belching in public).

Descriptive Norms: Describe what people usually do (e.g. clapping after a speech)

Injunctive Norms: Describe behaviours that people ought to do; more evaluative in nature than a descriptive norm.

Inter member relations are the connections among the members of a group, or the social network within a group. Group members are linked to one another at varying

levels. Examining the inter member relations of a group can highlight a group's density (how many members are linked to one another), or the degree centrality of members (number of ties between members). Analyzing the inter member relations aspect of a group can highlight the degree centrality of each member in the group, which can lead to a better understanding of the roles of certain group (e.g. an individual who is a 'go-between' in a group will have closer ties to numerous group members which can aid in communication, etc.).

Values are goals or ideas that serve as guiding principles for the group. Like norms, values may be communicated either explicitly or on an ad hoc basis. Values can serve as a rallying point for the team. However, some values (such as conformity) can also be dysfunction and lead to poor decisions by the team.

Communication

Communication patterns describe the flow of information within the group and they are typically described as either centralized or decentralized. With a centralized pattern, communications tend to flow from one source to all group members. Centralized communications allow consistent, standardization information but they may restrict the free flow of information. Decentralized communications make it easy to share information directly between group members. When decentralized, communications tend to flow more freely, but the delivery of information may not be as fast or accurate as with centralized communications. Another potential downside of decentralized communications is the sheer volume of information that can be generated, particularly with electronic media.

Status differentials are the relative differences in status among group members. When a group is first formed the members may all be on an equal level, but over time certain members may acquire status and authority within the group; this can create what is known as a pecking order within a group. Status can be determined by a variety of factors and characteristics, including specific status characteristics (e.g. task-specific behavioural and personal characteristics, such as experience) or diffuse status characteristics (e.g. age, race, ethnicity). It is important that other group members perceive an individual's status to be warranted and deserved, as otherwise they may not have authority within the group. Status differentials may affect the relative amount of pay among group members and they may also affect the group's

tolerance to violation of group norms (e.g. people with higher status may be given more freedom to violate group norms).

Group Performance: While many daily tasks undertaken by individuals could be performed in isolation, the preference is to perform with other people.

Social Facilitation and Performance Gains:

In a study of dynamo genic stimulation for the purpose of explaining pace making and competition in 1898, Norman Triplett theorized that “the bodily presence of another rider is a stimulus to the racer in arousing the competitive instinct...”. This dynamo genic factor is believed to have laid the groundwork for what is now known as social facilitation—an “improvement in task performance that occurs when people work in the presence of other people”.

Further to Triplett’s observation, in 1920, Floyd Allport found that although people in groups were more productive than individuals, the quality of their product/effort was inferior.

In 1965, Robert Zajonc expanded the study of arousal response (originated by Triplett) with further research in the area of social facilitation. In his study, Zajonc considered two experimental paradigms. In the first—audience effects—Zajonc observed behaviour in the presence of passive spectators, and the second—co-action effects—he examined behaviour in the presence of another individual engaged in the same activity. Zajonc observed two categories of behaviours—dominant responses to tasks that are easier to learn and which dominate other potential responses and non-dominant responses to tasks that are less likely to be performed. In his Theory of Social Facilitation, Zajonc concluded that in the presence of others, when action is required, depending on the task requirement, either social facilitation or social interference will impact the outcome of the task. If social facilitation occurs, the task will have required a dominant response from the individual resulting in better performance in the presence of others, whereas if social interference occurs the task will have elicited a non-dominant response from the individual resulting good performance of the task and it is a positive impact of group activities.

Several theories analyzing performance gains in groups via drive, motivational, cognitive and personality processes, explain why social facilitation occurs.

Nickolas Cottrell, 1972, proposed the evaluation apprehension model whereby he suggested people associate social situations with an evaluative process. Cottrell argued this situation is met with apprehension and it is this motivational response, not arousal/elevated drive, that is responsible for increased productivity on simple tasks and decreased productivity on complex tasks in the presence of others.

In *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life* (1959), Erving Goffman assumes that individuals can control how they are perceived by others. He suggests that people fear being perceived as having negative, undesirable qualities and characteristics by other people, and that it is this fear that compels individuals to portray a positive self-presentation/social image of themselves. In relation to performance gains, Goffman's "self-presentation theory" predicts, in situations where they may be evaluated, individuals will consequently increase for positive image.

Social orientation theory considers the way a person approaches social situations. It predicts that self-confident individuals with a positive outlook will show performance gains through social facilitation, whereas a self-conscious individual approaching social situations with apprehension is less likely to perform well due to social interference effects.

Intergroup dynamics:

Intergroup dynamics refers to the behavioural and psychological relationship between two or more groups. This includes perceptions, attitudes, opinions, and behaviours towards one's own group, as well as those towards another group. In some cases, intergroup dynamics is pro-social, positive, and beneficial. In other cases, intergroup dynamics can create conflict. For example, Fischer & Ferlie found initially positive dynamics between a clinical institution and its external authorities dramatically changed to a 'hot' and intractable conflict when authorities interfered.

Intergroup conflict

According to social identity theory, intergroup conflict starts with a process of comparison between individuals in one group (the in group) to those of another group (the out group). This comparison process is not unbiased and objective. Instead, it is a mechanism for enhancing one's self-esteem. In the process of such comparisons, an individual tends to favor the in-group over the out-group, exaggerate and over generalize the differences between the in group and the out group (to enhance group

distinctiveness), minimize the perception of differences between in-group members, remember more detailed and positive information about the in-group, and more negative information about the out-group, etc.

Even without any intergroup interaction (as in the minimal group paradigm), individuals begin to show favouritism towards their own group, and negative reactions towards the out group. This conflict can result in prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination. Intergroup conflict can be highly competitive, especially for social groups with a long history of conflict (for example, the 1994 Rwandan Genocide, rooted in group conflict between the ethnic Hutu and Tutsi). In contrast, intergroup competition can sometimes be relatively harmless, particularly in situations where there is little history of conflict (for example, between students of different universities) leading to relatively harmless generalizations and mild competitive behaviours. Intergroup conflict is commonly recognized amidst racial, ethnic, religious, and political groups.

Intergroup conflict reduction:

There have been several strategies developed for reducing the tension, bias, prejudice, and conflict between social groups. These include the contact hypothesis, the jigsaw classroom, and several categorization-based strategies.

Contact hypothesis (intergroup contact theory):

Gordon Allport (1954) suggested that by promoting contact between groups, prejudice can be reduced. Further, he suggested four optimal conditions for contact: equal status between the groups in the situation; common goals; intergroup cooperation; and the support of authorities, law, or customs. Since then, over 500 studies have been done on prejudice reduction under variations of the contact hypothesis, and a meta-analytic review suggests overall support for its efficacy. In some cases, even without the four optimal conditions outlined by Allport, prejudice between groups can be reduced.

Super ordinate identities:

Under the contact hypothesis, several models have been developed. A number of these models utilize a super ordinate identity to reduce prejudice. That is, a more broadly defined, 'umbrella' group/identity that includes the groups that are in conflict. By emphasizing this super ordinate identity, individuals in both subgroups can share

a common social identity. For example, if there is conflict between White, Black, and Latino students in a high school, one might try to emphasize the 'high school' group/identity that students share to reduce conflict between the groups. Models utilizing super ordinate identities include the common in-group identity model, the in-group projection model, the mutual intergroup differentiation model, and the in-group identity model.

Interdependence:

There are also techniques for reducing prejudice that utilize interdependence between two or more groups. That is, members across groups have to rely on one another to accomplish some goal or task. In the Robbers Cave Experiment, Sheriff used this strategy to reduce conflict between groups. Elliot Aronson's Jigsaw Classroom also uses this strategy of interdependence. In 1971, thick racial tensions were abounding in Austin, Texas. Aronson was brought in to examine the nature of this tension within schools, and to devise a strategy for reducing it (so to improve the process of school integration, mandated under Brown v. Board of Education in 1954). Despite strong evidence for the effectiveness of the jigsaw classroom, the strategy was not widely used (arguably because of strong attitudes existing outside of the schools, which still resisted the notion that racial and ethnic minority groups are equal to Whites and, similarly, should be integrated into schools).

7.4.3 Conclusion

Group dynamics are the processes that occur between group members. These dynamics are affected by each member's internal thoughts and feelings, their expressed thoughts and feelings, their nonverbal communication, and the relationship between group members. Group dynamics helps you understand how each person's actions make sense in the context of the group. On the other hand it also refers to a system of behaviours and psychological processes which are occurring within a social group (intergroup dynamics), or between social groups (intergroup dynamics). The study of group dynamics is very useful in understanding decision-making behaviour, tracking the spread of problems in groups, creating effective therapy techniques, and following the emergence and popularity of new ideas and technologies. However, one can understand this concept by analyzing Systems theory describes how individuals behave within a system. As groups are considered systems, systems theory helps us begin to

understand group dynamics. Systems theory involves understanding that group dynamics is a more complex process than just summing up the individual characteristics of each group member. Instead, group dynamics is best understood by combining the characteristics of each group member, how each group member's actions affect the group, and how these group interactions affect each group member. This creates a cyclical and reciprocal feedback loop which simultaneously impacts all group members and all group members' relationships.

7.4.4 Answers to check your progress

1. What is Group Dynamics?
2. Why understanding on group dynamics is essential for group work?
3. Write dynamics in a social group.

7.6 Exercise

1. Write down the importance of Communication in Group Process.
2. Explain "Group Cohesion".
3. Explain "Adjourning".
4. What is Black Sheep effect.

7.7 Reference

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Unit 8 □ Skills and Techniques in Social Groupwork Practice

Structure

- 8.1 Objectives**
- 8.2 Introduction**
- 8.3 Topic Name: Skills and Techniques**
 - 8.3.1 Skills in Group Work**
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8.1 Objectives

The basic objective of this section is to develop knowledge among social work professionals on various skills and techniques that are essential in the process of group work practice. Understanding of such skills and techniques is very much required before undertaking group work practice in any set up, whether community or agency set up.

8.2 Introduction

In a general sense skill means the capacity to perform activities. Virginia Robinson refers skills as “the capacity to set in motion and control a process of change in specific material in such a way that the change that takes place in the material is affected with the greatest degree of consideration for and utilization of the quality and capacity of the material”(Gaurav, 2013). Trecker defines methods and skill as “Methods means the purposeful use of insights and understanding based upon a body of knowledge and principles”, and “ Skill is the capacity to apply knowledge and understanding to a given situation”(Dhawa: 2014).

8.3.1 Skills in Social group work

It is needless to say that skills are essential for a social group worker to become more productive in-group situation. The skills are necessary to mainly exchange ideas among the members freely and clearly, using language understood by everyone and with no fears of starting arguments or hurting feelings, examining objectively how well the group and its members are working, sharing the leadership jobs among the group members and show sensitivity to the feelings of all, accepting new ideas and new members into the group without irreparable conflict, and to disciplining the group to work toward long range objectives and profit from failures, thinking clearly about group problems, findings, causes and working for solutions, adjusting group procedures and plans to meet the feelings and the desires of the members, creating new jobs or committees as needed and to terminate them or the group itself, when the needs are fulfilled. Phillips has enumerated the following skills for social group workers and its practice settings (Pathare, n.d.).

Skill in Using Agency Functions:

The group worker must be skilful enough to carry the functions of agency. He should always try to propagate what the agency in the community wants to do. He does the following activities for this.

The Intake Process:

The worker who meets the applicants while carrying out the agency's procedures for intake, will discuss with him as to what exactly the member wants from the agency and what is available in the agency for him/her (Gaurav, 2013).

Connecting the Group with the Agency:

The worker relates the group more firmly to the agency by helping it to understand what the agency stands for and what kind of responsible behaviour is expected of them as well as of other groups (Gaurav, 2013).

Serving the Individual through the Group work Process:

Since the function of the agency includes helping group units to develop in socially useful ways, as well as helping individuals the social worker's attention must be on the development of the group as a whole and on each individual's use of the group (Gaurav, 2013).

Working with the Individual outside the Group of Meetings:

Although the worker offers his services within the group process he also provides help to the individual if need be for the better use of group experience on the part of member.

The Referral Process: An important part of the group work agency's service is to work with members and their parents in a process of considering the use of other community services for help with problems that cannot be dealt within the group work agency.

Skill in Communication of Feelings:

The social group worker should have the following skills.

- The Worker's Feelings: High among the qualities essential to a social worker's skill is the capacity to feel with others (*Skills and Techniques of Group Work – Article1000.Com*, n.d.).
- The Group Member's Feelings: The worker must be skilful in helping the group members to know, accept, express and be responsible for their feelings (*Skills and Techniques of Group Work – Article1000.Com*, n.d.).
- Group Feelings: The interaction of each member with the others and the worker produces group feelings. The worker helps the group in understanding their feelings and its meanings.

Skill in Stimulating and Using Group Relations:

The social group worker should enable each group member to find and take his part in relationship with other members. He should be skilful in using programmes to strengthen group relations.

Trecker has listed the following skills of social group work (<http://www.ignou.ac.in/upload/bswe-02-block1-unit-9-small%20size.pdf>).

Skill in Establishing Purposeful Relationship:

The group worker must be skilful in gaining the acceptance of the group and in relating himself to the group on a positive professional basis. The group worker must be skilful in helping individuals in the group to accept one another and to join with the group in common pursuits (*Skills and Techniques of Group Work – Article1000.Com*, n.d.).

Skill in Analysing the Group Situation:

The worker must be skilful in judging the developmental level of the group to determine what the level is, what the group needs and how quickly the group can be expected to move. This calls for skill in direct observation of groups in a basis of analysis and judgement. The group worker must be skilful in helping the group to express ideas, work out objectives, clarify immediate goals and see both its potentialities and limitations as a group(*Skills and Techniques of Group Work – Article1000.Com*, n.d.).

Skill in Participation with the Group:

The group worker must be skilful in determining, interpreting, assuming and modifying his own roles with the group. The group worker must be skilful in helping, group members to participate, to locate leadership among them and to take responsibility for their own activities.

Skill in Dealing with Group Feeling:

The group worker must be skilful in controlling his own feelings about the group and must study each new situation with a high degree of objectivity. The group worker must be skilful in helping groups to release their own feelings, both positive and negative. He must be skilful in helping groups to analyze situations as part of the working through group or intergroup conflicts(*Skills and Techniques of Group Work – Article1000.Com*, n.d.).

Skill in Programme Development:

The group worker must be skilful in guiding group thinking so that interests and needs will be revealed and understood. The group worker must be skilful in helping groups to develop programmes, which they want as a means through which their needs may be met(*Skills and Techniques of Group Work – Article1000.Com*, n.d.).

Skill in Using Agency and Community Resources:

The group worker must be skilful in locating and then acquainting the group with various helpful resources which can be utilized by the members for programme purpose. The group worker must be skilful in helping certain individual members to make use of specialized services by means of referral that cannot be met within the group(*Skills and Techniques of Group Work – Article1000.Com*, n.d.).

Skill in Evaluation:

The group worker must have skill in recording the development processes that are going on as he works with the group. The group worker must be skilful in using his records and in helping the group to review its experiences as a means of improvement(*Skills and Techniques of Group Work – Article1000.Com*, n.d.).

On the basis of above discussions and opinions of different social workers on the different types of skills essential for group work practitioners, we may list them as follows.

Communication Skills: Communication is at the heart of group work practice. The social group worker makes use of two broad categories of communication skills, one those which are intended to facilitate interpersonal helping and other those intended to facilitate to achieve the groupwork objectives.

A number of specific skills may help the group worker to perform his jobs more effectively, which are listed below:

Skill of Programme Planning:

It is very essential that group worker must be skilful in planning the programmes for the group. It is also essential that the worker must be skilful in communicating the message around the answers of several questions. He/ She should be skilful in communicating his own feelings to the members of the group(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of Identify Self Role:

It is an important step in group work practice. The worker must convince the group for his interface in its affairs (Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of Explaining the Purpose of Group:

Everybody before joining the group wants to know about the benefits of joining the group. If he/she is satisfied, he comes forward and become a member of that group. Therefore, the group worker must be skilful in convincing the people to avail the facilities of the agency by joining the group. The worker, further, explains how communicate in group so that the group may advance in its goal(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill in Interpreting Verbal Communication:

It is the job of the group worker to keep watch on the verbal communication among the group members because if it is not on the right track, the group may loose

its basic purpose. He/she should always try to direct in proper direction(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of Answering Question:

During group process, certain questions, queries or doubts are raised by the group members. If they are not answered in right perspective, the members may disassociate themselves. Therefore, it is essential that the social group worker has the wide knowledge of social work as well as human behaviour(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill in Effective Helping Relationship:

It is heart of social group work practice. A group worker must genuinely care for the group members. The relationship will be more cohesive and fruitful if the social group worker possesses the following skills(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of Empathy:

It refers to the worker's capacity to perceive accurately member's feelings and subjective experiences. The group worker should show in his/her behaviour that he/she is taking genuine interest in their welfare. It will help in developing confidence between group worker and the group(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of Encouraging the Member's Feedback:

It refers to statement that encourages the member to respond to the worker's explanation. This gives the members an opportunity to ask questions and raise disagreement if any(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of Describing the Member's Role:

This is common tendency that everybody wants facilities, and rights but less inclined to fulfil their duties. It is the job of the social group worker to explain the member who is joining the group about his role in the group(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of Active Listening:

In active listening the worker tends to both the member verbal and non-verbal message. The listening become active listening when it is followed by clarification and explanations needed by the group members(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of Exploring the Member's Silence:

Sometimes it happens that one or the other members of the group keeps silence and takes the least interest in the group activities. It is the job of social group worker

to find out the reasons for his/her silence and encourage him/ her for active involvement(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill of recognizing every Member's Strengths:

It refers to expressions of confidence in the member's ability to accomplish some specific tasks in the group process. It will help the group worker in performing different types of activities in the group with the help of its members and thus the group will grow and enrich in achieving its objectives(Gaurav, 2013).

Skill in giving priority and gradation of the problem:

All the problems of the group and its members cannot be solved at once. Therefore, their gradation and priority is needed. Priority should be fixed by the group worker. It will facilitate the group process in right direction(Gaurav, 2013).

8.3.2 Techniques in Group Work

Techniques are interventions aiming at facilitating movement within a group (Corey and Corey 2006). They go on suggesting that almost anything that a worker or leader does in a group can be considered as techniques, including observing silence. Moreover, there are some techniques which are used quite often by the group worker to facilitate their work. Some of the more frequent techniques used by group workers are:

- Group Counselling
- Group Discussion
- Role Play
- Programme Media: Games, Story Telling, Drawing, Poster making, etc
- Individual sessions
- Supervision

Let us discuss on the various techniques and how these techniques are importance in group work.

Group Counselling:

Group counselling refers to activities that are used to enrich members' capacities through skill building or helping them to achieve changes in their behavioural pattern to achieve a better growth. This counselling of course will differ in different groups

and also worker to worker. Some of the areas in which intensive counselling is done is cognitive, behavioural domains and affective change by the group worker. The distinguishing feature of the group counselling is that the group environment is used to accomplish both development of life skills and accomplish and strengthen changes among members. Group counselling therefore is a group process to accomplish changes in the way members think, feel and act. The group participants change in the area of behaviour, attitude, and development are the main concern area for group worker and in this context sufficient counselling is done by the worker.

Group Discussion:

Group discussion is one of the important techniques for sharing and communicating ideas in a group. The group is a forum for making decisions, solving problems faced by its members both individually and collectively, promoting growth, and accomplishing a variety of objectives. The group discussion as a technique helps in developing appropriate attitude and skills of members since they learn to look at a problem from several perspectives, appreciate diversity in course of discussion and provide equal opportunity to all to express and give due attention to each members opinion . The participation in group discussion helps members to develop self respect and positive self concept. They have the ability to solve problems or take up developmental activities, therefore, each members view points are taken into consideration and consensus decision of the group in the process is taken. Members get good exposure and experience in participating group discussion. Group Worker of course keeps all members engage in a variety of purpose and keep the group moving towards its objectives.

Supervision:

It is another important technique of working with group. All discussions in the group should be presided over by a group member, leader of the worker depending on the nature of the group. Even in informal talk in the group, it is better to have a person coordinates the discussions. The supervisor should help the members to participate in the group session in a democratic manner. The worker should play the role of a supervisor in the group and he or she should makes arrangements for recording the main points. In informal discussion detailed minutes may not be possible or required but may need to keep major points for assessment of the activities and happenings. Some common problems generally encountered by the worker in the group are, sometime silence of the members, which indicates either

lack of interest or lack of adequate communication skills, fear of worker, other factors. This may be termed as hostile environment, which needs appropriate norms, capacity building of the members and networking among themselves. Secondly, lack of movements in participation, needs caring at least to help them to talk, chair, participate in the process of decision making. The worker should deal such situation as expert, otherwise, it can lead to stagnation in the session. Thirdly, supervision also should take care over domination of the members. Not only that, supervisor or worker himself or herself can dominate in the group session, therefore, it is necessary that he or she should be vigilant enough to open up discussion and help other members to participate instead of domination by himself or herself or checking the domination of other members.

Group Decision Making:

Group decision is one of the key components in group work and the decision may tell us the fact of the functioning of the group. Decision making pattern based on what manner the decision is taken. Group worker understanding on this part is necessary. He or she should be alert to discover that the group environment is conducive enough to take a democratic decision making. The worker should help the group to take decision quickly and rationally.

Role Play:

Role play is a good technique to help the members to look at their own behaviour and others view it. In role play a real life situation is simulated. But it is necessary to prepare the members for role play. It is also desirable to help members to overcome stress and coping a new learning situation. A good example is child's interaction with a teacher or a parent. A careful selection of an actors to carry out role play and to provide them feedback after seeing their performance will help to improve their quality. A congenial, safe and friendly environment is important to have success in the group. A sensitive training is necessary and useful for roleplay as well.

Developing Programme Media:

Programme media refers to all activities in the group, such as games, singing, story telling, street play, etc, which generally has been taken for group interaction and participation of the group members. The activities help the members to become active and identify themselves as their own activities of the group. The influence of the group on members lies in three areas: participation in activities, interaction with

other members and their interaction with the worker. Games and sports provide an opportunity to members to express their feelings and exhibit their behaviour which is frank and true expression of what is laying dormant inside. A special care should be given to select activities for weak members.

Individual Session:

Individual sessions are also used by worker while working with groups. It is necessary to assess each member about their liking and interest and to carry out fruitful participation in group. A careful planning is also necessary in the process. The worker should plan in advance for holding individual session for assessing individual capacity. It should be done in a participatory manner. Some members may be given special support for shorting out their difficulties.

Evaluation:

Evaluation of session/ activities of the group is necessary and members should take part in the evaluation process while working in a group. The feedback from members as such is necessary and accepted method of collecting information. The individual session may be also arranged to make the group members understanding clear about the purpose of the evaluation and why individual session is important for objective assessment of the group. The member however should be given sufficient time to express his or her problem and analysis of the problem should be made and shared with the persons

8.4 Conclusion

This unit is mainly concentrated on various skills and techniques in group work practice. In nut shell, the core skills could be summarized that are needed by social workers are the communication skill, listening, observation, analytical thinking, empathy, self control, leadership skills, while in technique part the major techniques generally used in group work are group discussion, group counselling, role play. Programme planning on games, story-telling, singing, poster making, conducting individual sessions, etc. Understanding thorough ideas on those skills and techniques definitely would enrich the group work process and especially helping the members as well as for group development more scientifically. Finally the students of social work of course would be benefitted on such understanding.

8.5 Exercise

1. Write different skills required in group work practice.
2. Discuss major techniques in social group work practice.

8.6 Reference

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Unit 9 □ Leadership in Group Work

Structure

- 9.0 Objectives**
- 9.1 Introduction**
- 9.2 Concept of leadership**
- 9.3 Definition of leadership**
- 9.4 Approaches to leadership**
- 9.5 Leadership roles**
- 9.6 Emotional Intelligence and leadership effectiveness**
- 9.7 Qualities of a successful leader**
- 9.8 Leadership and communication**
- 9.9 Leadership and power**
- 9.10 Leadership style**
- 9.11 Guidelines for forming and leading a group**
- 9.12 Group exercise**
- 9.13 Conclusion**
- 9.14 Exercise**
- 9.15 Reference**

9.0 Objectives

This unit portrays leadership in the context of group work. It explains the theories, styles, factors for successful group leadership and the Importance of group leadership. After reading this unit, learner must be able to:

Distinguish between various styles and theories of leadership;

- The factors influencing group leadership;
- Know about various leadership roles;
- Guidelines for forming and leading a group.

9.1 Introduction

Leadership occurs whenever one person in a group influences other members to help the group reach its goals. Because all group members influence each other at various times, each individual excerpts leadership. However, a difference exists between being a designated leader – a president or chairperson – and engaging in leadership behaviour. A designated leader has certain responsibilities, such as calling meetings and leading discussions, while leadership refers to influential behaviour in general (Zastrow, n.d.).

9.2 Concepts

One of the most striking and universal facts about groups is that they almost always have a leader. Even among birds and animals there are group leaders. When food is placed in a small pile before the hungry chicken, one bird will feed actively and prevent others from getting near the pile or even to peck at the scattered grain. The other birds show fear and go away. If the aggressive bird is removed by the experimenter, another bird takes her place and dominates. Thus the group is seen to be composed of individuals which form a hierarchy of precedence. The dominant bird assumes control of food, water, roosting places, choice of mates etc. Similar behaviour can be observed in mammals also. The dominant male monkey excludes the subordinates from breeding. There is also the group territorial system which needs the aggressive and powerful male to protect the territory. Thus, there is not only hierarchical organisation within the group but also definite recognition of in-group members and antagonism to out-group individuals.

Similarly it can be observed that one child becomes the leader in a group of six or eight-year old children. There is a leader in each teenage group. There are also leaders in work gang. Thus, despite the fact that the purposes, structure and membership of these groups vary considerably, each group has a leader. Leadership appears to be the ubiquitous feature of group life and is probably a necessary condition for an assemblage of individuals to function as a group.

When members of a small group are asked to role each other on leadership, they generally seem to take three factors into account: (a) dominance, (b) likeability and

(c) task success. They pick up a person who is moderately powerful in the group; he must be active physically and verbal, he must possess abilities and resources that enable him to influence others and to give or deny opportunities, rewards or punishments. But he must also be “likable”. The person chosen to be a leader must be one whom the members could like and admire. He must be one who gives them opportunities and rewards. But even a combination of dominance and likeability is not normally enough for leadership position. He must be capable of bringing success to their endeavours. Thus “task success” is necessary to make him acceptable as a leader so that he can make rewards available.

The central attributes of leadership is influence; the leader is generally the person in the group who has the greatest influence on the activities and beliefs of the members. He is the one who initiates action, makes decisions and gives orders to the members as to what they should do. He is also the person who settles disputes between the members. He serves as an inspiration to the members of the group and is in the forefront of any activity undertaken by the group.

9.3 Definition

Leadership is a specialised form of social interaction: a reciprocal, transactional, and sometimes transformational process in which cooperating individuals are permitted to influence and motivate others to promote the attainment of group and individual goals. This definition is cumbersome, but it emphasizes several features noted by many previous definitions.

1. Leadership is a reciprocal process involving the leader, the followers, and the group situation, members; rather, the leader-follower relationship is mutual.
2. Leadership is a transactional, social exchange process. Leader and members work together, exchanging their time, energies and skills to increase their joint rewards.
3. Leadership is often a transformational process. The transformational leader heightens group members and changing their beliefs, values and needs.
4. Leadership is a cooperative process of legitimate influence rather than sheer power.

5. Leadership is an adaptive, goal-seeking process, for it organizes and motivates group members' attempts to attain personal and group goals.

9.4 Approaches to Leadership

Four major approaches to leadership theory – trait, position, leadership style and distributed functions – are summarized in the following(Zastrow, n.d.):

The Trait Approach: Aristotle observed: “From the hour of their birth some are marked for subjugation, and others for command”. This trait approach to leadership, which has existed for centuries, assumes that leaders have inherent personal characteristics or traits that distinguish them from followers. This approach asserts that leaders are born, not made, and emerge naturally instead of being trained. It has also been called the “great man” or “great woman” theory of leadership.

Charisma: Charisma has been defined as “an extraordinary power, as of working miracles”. Johnson and Johnson give the following definition of a charismatic leader(Zastrow, n.d.):

The Charismatic leader must have a sense of mission, a belief in the social-change movement he or she leads and confidence in oneself as the chosen instrument to lead the movement to its destination. The leader must appear extremely self-confident in order to inspire others with the faith that the movement he or she leads will, without fail, prevail and ultimately reduce their distress.

Some charismatic leaders appear to inspire their followers to love and be fully committed to them. Other charismatic leaders offer their followers the hope and promise of deliverance from distress(Zastrow, n.d.).

Charisma has not been precisely defined and its components have not been fully identified. The qualities and characteristics that each charismatic leader has will differ somewhat from those of their charismatic leaders. The following leaders all have been referred to as charismatic, yet they differed substantially in personality characteristics: John F. Kennedy, Martin Luther King Jr., Julius Ceasar, General George Patton, Mahatma Gandhi and Winston Churchill(Zastrow, n.d.).

Exercise 1: The Charismatic Leader

1. While the names of three people you identify as being charismatic. There may be presidents, political leader, religious leaders, and teachers and so on. For each person you identify, list the characteristics that cause this person (in your view) to be charismatic.
2. For the three people you wrote about, identify the charismatic characteristics that all three individuals appear to have in common.
3. Do any of these people have unique charismatic characteristics (that is, characteristics that are not held by the other two)? If “yes”, identify the person and describe his or her unique characteristics.

The Position Approach: In most large organisations, there are several levels of leadership, such as president, vice-president, manager, supervisor and foreman. The position approach defines leadership in terms of the authority of a particular position. It focuses on studying the behaviour, training and personal background of leaders in high-level positions (Zastrow, n.d.).

Studies using the position approach, however, have revealed little consistency in how people assume leadership positions. Obviously, individuals may become leaders with little related training (for example- in family business) while others spend years developing their skills. Also, individuals in different leadership positions have been found to display a variety of appropriate behaviours.

The Leadership-Style Approach: While there are various leadership styles, it is generally agreed that leadership styles is in accordance with the circumstances – the ability of members, urgency of the situation and many such crucial factors. The following are a few important leadership styles:

1. **Authoritarian Leaders:** The authoritarian leader is characterised by dominance and aggressiveness. He believes in the value of discipline, forcefulness and deference to authority. He likes to display the external symbols of status and power. Since he does not have a high opinion of the intelligence and abilities of the masses he uses many techniques of propaganda to make them believe and do what he wants them to believe and do. He depends more on power and punishment than on persuasion. This leader alone is the purveyor of rewards and punishments and knows the succession of future steps in the group’s activities. One of the hazards, however, is that group members may

respond out of necessity and not because of commitment to group goals. The authoritarian leader who anticipates approval from subordinates may be surprised to find that backbiting and bickering are common in the group. Unsuccessful authoritarian leadership is apt to generate factionalism, behind the scenes jockeying for position among members and a decline in morale (Zastrow, n.d.).

2. **Democratic Leaders:** The democratic leader is one whose basic techniques are persuasion, conciliation and tolerance. He is not preoccupied with the problem of disciplining the members of the group. He trusts the good sense of people and believes that with proper guidance they can be made to work for their goals. He relies on facts and on logical arguments since he has faith in the intelligence of the people. He does not seek to influence them through propaganda.

The comparisons of which we shall speak are those between an authoritarian atmosphere and a democratic atmosphere as follows:

Authoritarian	Democratic
1. All determination of policy by the leader.	1. All policies a matter of group determination, encouraged and drawn by the leader.
2. Techniques and steps of attaining the goal dictated by the leader, one at a time, so that future direction was always uncertain to a large degree.	2. Activity perspective given by an explanation of the general steps of the process during discussion at first meeting. Where technical advice was needed, the leader tried to point out two or three alternative procedures from which choice could be made.
3. The leader usually dictated the particular work task and work companions of each member.	3. The members were free to work with whomever they chose, and the division of tasks was left up to the group.
4. The leader was "personal" in his praise and criticism of the work of each member without giving objective reasons. He remained aloof from active group participation except when demonstrating.	4. The leader was "objective" or "fact-minded" in his praise and criticism and tried to be a regular group member in spirit without doing too much of the actual work.

Differences in the behaviour of the groups were striking. Some of the most interesting differences were as follows:

1. The authoritarian groups tended to be more aggressive or more apathetic than the democratic groups. When aggression was expressed, it tended to be directed toward other group members rather than toward the authoritarian leader. In the authoritarian groups two scapegoats were the targets of such concentrated group hostility that they left the club. In the apathetic authoritarian groups it seemed that the lack of aggression was due merely to repressive influence of the leader, for when he temporarily left the group, aggressive outbursts occurred.
2. In the authoritarian groups there were more submissive approaches to the leader and also more attention-demanding approaches. The approaches to the democratic leader were more friendly and work-minded.
3. In the authoritarian groups the relations with other group members tended to be more aggressive and dominating than in the democratic groups.
4. There seemed to be more “we-feeling” in the democratic groups and more “I-feeling” in the authoritarian. Group unity appeared higher in the democratic groups and sub groups tended to be more stable than in the authoritarian atmosphere where they tended to disintegrate (*Informaèní systém*, n.d.).
5. Constructiveness of work decreased sharply when the authoritarian leader temporarily absented him, whereas it dropped only slightly when the democratic leader was absent.
6. Under experimentally induced frustrations in the work situation, the democratic group responded by organized attacks on the difficulty, whereas the authoritarian groups tended to become disrupted through recriminations and personal blame.

Laissez-Faire Leaders: These leaders participate very little, and group members are generally left to function (or flounder) with little input. Group members seldom function well under a laissez-faire style, which may be effective only when the members are committed to a course of action, have the resources to implement it and need minimal leadership to reach their goals.

Exercise 2: Authoritarian, Democratic and Laissez-Faire Leaders.

1. Identify someone who used an authoritarian style in leading a group. State what the leader did that led you to conclude his or her style was authoritarian. Also state what the reactions of the other group members were to this authoritarian style.
2. Identify someone who used democratic style in leading a group. State what the leader did that led you to conclude his or her style was democratic. Also state what the reactions of the other group members were to this democratic style.
3. Identify someone who used a laissez-faire style in leading a group. State what the leader did that led you to conclude his or her style was laissez-faire. Also state what the reactions of the other group members were to his laissez-faire style.

The Distributive – Functions Approach: The distributed functions approach disagrees with the “great man”, or trait, theory of leadership and asserts that every member of a group will be a leader at times by taking actions that serve group functions. Leadership is defined as the performance of acts that help the group maintain itself and reach its goals(Reborn, n.d.). Leadership functions include setting goals, selecting and implementing tasks and providing resources to accomplish group goals while maintaining the group’s cohesion and satisfying the needs of individual member. The functional approach involves determining what tasks, or functions are essential to achieve group goals and how different group members should participate(Reborn, n.d.).

With this approach, the demands of leadership are viewed as being specific to a particular group in a particular situation. For example, cracking a joke may be a useful leadership tactic in certain situations if it relieves tension. But when other members are revealing intense personal information in therapy, humour may be counterproductive and therefore inappropriate leadership behaviour.

Many individuals who fear taking a leadership role are uncertain about leadership functions and feel they lack the power qualities of a leader. Amazingly, even the most fearful and anxious students have already taken on many leadership roles and nearly everyone has assumed leadership responsibilities by adolescence. Functional leadership involves a learned set of skills that anyone with certain minimal capabilities can

acquire. Responsible membership is the same thing as responsible leadership because both maintain the group's cohesion and accomplish its goals. Since people can be taught leadership skills and behaviours the implication of this theory is that nearly everyone can be taught to be an effective leader.

Exercise 3: Distributed Functions Approach

The distributed-functions approach asserts that every member of a group will be a leader at times by taking actions that serve group functions. Identify a group that you are currently in or that you were a member of in the past. Describe the actions you took that were useful to the group.

9.5 Leadership Roles

Task and Maintenance Roles:

All groups, whether organized for therapeutic reasons, problem solving, or other purposes, rely on members performing task roles and group maintenance roles satisfactorily. Task roles are those needed to accomplish specific goals set by the group. They have been summarized by Johnson and Johnson as follows(Zastrow, n.d.):

Information and Opinion Given: Offer facts, opinions, ideas, suggestions and relevant information to help group discussion(Zastrow, n.d.).

Information and Opinion Seeker: Asks for facts, information, opinions, ideas and feeling from other members to help group discussion(Zastrow, n.d.).

Starter: Proposes goals and tasks to initiate action within the group(Zastrow, n.d.).

Direction Giver: Develops plans on how to proceed and focuses attention on the task to be done(Zastrow, n.d.).

Summarizer: Pulls together related ideas or suggestions and restates and summarizes major points discussed(Zastrow, n.d.).

Coordinator: Shows relationships among various ideas by pulling them together and harmonizes activities of various sub groups and members(Zastrow, n.d.).

Diagnoser: Figures out sources of difficulties the group has in working effectively and the blocks to progress in accomplishing the group's goals.

Energizer: Stimulates a higher quality of work from the group.

Reality Tester: Examines the practicality and workability of ideas, evaluates alternative solutions and applies them to real situations to see how they will work.

Evaluator: Compares group decisions and accomplishments with group standards and goals.

The Johnson has also identified group maintenance roles, which strengthen social/emotional bonds within the group:

Encourager of Participation: Warmly encourages everyone to participate, giving recognition for contributions, demonstrating acceptance and openness to ideas of others; is friendly and responsive to group members (Zastrow, n.d.).

Harmonizer and Compromiser: Persuades members to analyze constructively their differences in opinions, searches for common elements in conflicts and tries to reconcile disagreements (Zastrow, n.d.).

Tension Reliever: Eases tensions and increases the enjoyment of group members by joking, suggesting breaks and proposing for approaches to group work.

Communication Helper: Shows good communication skills and makes sure that each group member understands what other members are saying (Zastrow, n.d.).

Evaluator of Emotional Climate: Asks members how they feel about the way in which the group is working and about each other, and shares own feelings about both (Zastrow, n.d.).

Process Observer: Watches the process by which the group is working and uses the observations to help examine group effectiveness. (Zastrow, n.d.).

Standard Setter: Expresses group standards and goals to make members aware of the direction of the work and the progress being made toward the goal, and to get open acceptance of group norms and procedures.

Active Listener: Listens and serves as an interested audience for other members is receptive to others' ideas, and goes along with the group when not in disagreement.

Trust Builder: Accepts and supports openness of other group members, reinforcing risk taking and encouraging individuality.

Interpersonal Problem Solver: Promotes open discussion of conflicts between group members in order to resolve conflicts and increase group togetherness.

Each of the foregoing task and maintenance functions may be required periodically within a group; and effective group members (and leaders) are sensitive to these needs.

A task leader emerges in many groups because he or she has the best ideas and does the most to guide discussions. Since this person concentrates on a task, and generally plays an aggressive role in moving the group toward the goal, hostility is apt to arise and the task leader may be disliked. Concurrently, a second leader may emerge: a social / emotional specialist who concentrates on group harmony and resolves tensions and conflicts within the group. In groups without an official leader, the leader is expected to be both the task specialist and the social / emotional specialist. In groups without an official leader, these two functions are generally assumed by two different emergent leaders. When social / emotional group maintenance needs are met, a group will continually improve its task effectiveness. However, when maintenance needs are ignored, a group's task effectiveness deteriorates (Zastrow, n.d.).

Exercise 4: Task and Maintenance Contributions to a group.

1. Identify a group you are currently participating in or have participated in the past. Briefly describe this group, including its goals.
2. Review the list of task roles and then describe your task contributions to this group.
3. Review the list of maintenance roles and then describe your maintenance contributions to this group.

Other Roles: The designated group leader has a special obligation to assume or to assist others in assuming, timely and appropriate task and maintenance roles. Each leader is also responsible for a variety of functions, which range from setting initial policies to planning for termination. To meet the needs and particular developmental stage of a group, a leader may be required to assume any of the previously described roles as well as these (Zastrow, n.d.):

Executive: The most obvious role of a leader in any group is a coordinator of the activities of the group. The leader may not have any direct role in determining policies but it is his responsibility to observe the execution of these policies. In this executive capacity the leader does not himself carry out the necessary work, he assigns it to other group members.

Planner: Planning is the intermediate step between determination of policies and their execution. The leader as a planner decides the ways and means by which the group shall achieve its ends. This may not only involves the intermediate steps but the future steps to the goal.

Policy maker: One of the most important of all leader functions is the establishment of group goals, objectives and policies.

Expert: Besides from functions of policy making, distinguished as a source of readily available information and skills for the group membership. In this sense the leader is the one who is regarded as the best qualified for the technical requirements of the group activities.

Group Representative: It is impossible for all members of a group to deal directly with other groups or other people outside the group. The outgoing and incoming demand and contacts are channelled through him. Lewin has called a leader as 'Gate Keeper'.

Controller of internal relationship: The leader may functions as the controller of internal interpersonal relations among the group members themselves. More than any other members, the leader knows the specific details of the group structure and by so doing affects the nature of in-group relation. There are some groups where the in-group relations are channelled through the leader.

Purveyor of Rewards and Punishments: The leader assumes the power of reward and punishment which enables him to exercise strong disciplinary and motivational control over the group member. The leader may promote a member to higher rank, may give a member special honour and may also take disciplinary action against any group member.

Arbitrator and Mediator: The leader should not only act as an important judge to render decisions but also to act as conciliator in re-establish good group interrelations.

Exampler: The leader should be the model of behaviour for the group members. He, in his own person, must exemplify the percept inculcated upon them. A military officer boldly leads the troop in the battle field serve as the exemplar.

Symbol of the Group: The leader may enhance the group unity by rightly standing for the group. The king of England is a classic example of this function of symbol providing a kind of cognitive focus for group unity.

Surrogate for individual responsibility: The leader sometimes relieve the responsibilities of any other group members that he wishes to avoid. The individual member puts his trust in the leader and lets him make the decision. In this situation leader play an extremely important psychological role for the individual.

Ideologist: The leader furnishes the ideology of the group membership, he acts as a source for the very beliefs of the individual member. Gandhi served in this sense as a “Spiritual leader” in the living conscience and moral guide of million of Hindus.

Father figure: The leader serves as a perfect focus for the positive emotional feelings of the individuals; he is the ideal object for identification, for transference, for feelings of submissiveness. Hitler serves as compelling father figure of their followers.

Scapegoat: A leader previously loved by the group members may be repudiated and excoriated by the group. A leader sometime constitute an ideal object for positive emotional feelings but he may be a perfect target for the aggressions of the frustrated, disappointed disillusioned group. E.g. The Nazi leadership was rejected by many Germans who were previously loyal and devoted followers:

9.6 Emotional Intelligence And Leadership Effectiveness

Individuals, especially leaders, who engage in social interface are expected to emotionally intelligent. Leaders’ lows in emotional intelligence are found to be less capable of handling stress, problematic situations and people. There are five components of Emotional Intelligence which as follows:

Self-awareness: exhibited by self-confidence, realistic self-assessment and a self-depreciating sense of humour.

Self-management: exhibited by trust worthiness and integrity, comfort with ambiguity and openness to change.

Self-motivation: exhibited by a strong drive to achieve, optimism and high organizational commitment.

Empathy: exhibited by expertise in building and retaining talent, cross-cultural sensitivity and service to clients.

Social Skills: exhibited by the ability to lead change, persuasiveness and expertise in building and leading teams.

9.7 Qualities of a Successful Leader

Though there are several leadership styles, every leader has to develop a style appropriate to the needs of the group and the situation. It is a universal fact that every person's leadership skills are unique and cannot be borrowed from another. The leader has to grow on her own.

To be a good leader one needs to have a positive sense of humour that is not derogatory or distasteful, possess good listening skills, ability to truly enjoy being with people and genuinely accepts the other person's view points. The leader has to be optimistic, unruffled and capable of handling difficult situations deftly.

The leader has to be friendly-within the prescribed limits of the societal norms. This friendliness has to be done with appropriateness – not too close or too isolated. Essentially, the leader has to be broad minded, relaxed and open to criticisms.

While working with group members from diverse cultures, a broad cultural background is an advantage. This aids the process of the cultural 'melting pot' further enabling smooth interaction and accomplishment of group tasks.

The leader has to necessarily control her emotion, temper and has to be extra cautious of imposing her feelings on the group. The leader is a human being too, with all her problems and fears to handle. But a wise leader fully understand that it is essential to keep her problems, especially the personal ones to herself.

Finally, the leader has to be well groomed physically too. The leader has to stick to comfortable, clean outfits, well hair, no clattering trinkets, flashy coburs, heavy costumes or any disturbing accompaniments. The leader has to make sure that his appearance is appropriate to the group's culture and expectations. He has to avoid improper mannerism and gestures.

9.8 Leadership and Communication

In any small group observation reveals that only one or two persons speak a great deal and other say very little. This has been found to be so whether the group is structured or unstructured, whether the problem being discussed is general or specific, whether the members of the group are friends or strangers, whether the size of the

group is small or large. This happens in the house when friends and relatives meet, in the seminar class and in the parliament. This is why in a seminar class or in a group discussion restrictions are placed on those who speak frequently and too long while those who do not speak are persuaded to make their contribution. It has been found that the amount of communication by members of a group follows a logarithmic or exponential curve. Regardless of the size of the group, the most talkative member does about 40 percent of the communicating and the amount of communication by the other members drops off sharply. In an eight-member group two persons contribute 60 percent of the conversation, the third contributes 14 percent and the remaining five members the balance of 26 percent between them. Thus, the fact that one person does most of the talking seems virtually to be a universal characteristic of groups.

The most active member in terms of communication also tends to be the leader of the group because he has the most influence on the group. He determines the course of conversation; he initiates interactions by asking questions, he receives most of the replies. Further, he makes most of the suggestions and gives most of the orders. He tends to play the central role, whatever the group is doing. An outside observer would consider him the group's leader and this is confirmed by the members of the group also when they are questioned. Generally, the person who talks the most is perceived as the leader by the rest of the group. Thus, the amount of communication is a critical determinant of leadership. Bavelas et al (1965) demonstrated this effect. Students were divided into four-man groups and were given a problem to discuss for ten minutes. An observer recorded the amount of time each man spoke and the number of times he spoke. After the discussion session, the subjects were asked to fill out a questionnaire in which they were asked to rank the other subjects on general leadership ability and other characteristics. In the second session each subject had a small box with a red and a green light in front of him, which only he could see. Some subjects were told that they would receive feedback on their performance; if the red light went on, it would indicate that they had been hindering the discussion; if the green light went on, it would indicate that their contribution was helpful. Thus they were either negatively or positively reinforced. One subject who was at the bottom on both verbal output and in the ranking by others was selected from each group. He was positively reinforced whenever he spoke by the flash of green light while the rest

of the group were negatively reinforced for most of their interventions. In the third session there were no lights. It was found that the person who contributed only 16 percent of verbal output and who was rated low by other in the first session was able to contribute 37 percent when he was positively reinforced in the second session and was ranked high. In the third session when there was no reinforcement he continued to put in 27 percent of verbal output and was ranked high. Thus, positive reinforcement made him speak more and this made the other to give him a high rank as a leader. And this effect persisted even when he was not receiving any special encouragement. He was not only speaking more, he was perceived by the members as being quite active and dominant and they rated him higher on the leadership scale.

Thus, the amount of an individual's communication is one of the determinants of leadership. But the type of his communication is also important. Every interaction or communication can be placed in one of the twelve broad categories: showing disagreement or agreement, tension or tension release, solidarity or antagonism; all these six categories are emotional; the next six categories are cognitive: giving or asking for suggestions, opinions or information. The categories refer only to verbally expressed items. According to Bales, one set of talkative persons tend to make supportive, encouraging, conciliatory and friendly statements; that is, such a person initiates more interactions which fall into the categories of showing solidarity, tension release and agreement than others; he also asks more questions than others, seeking information, opinion or suggestions. The other set of talkative persons come to the forefronts when some task has to be carried out; the communications of such a person fall into the categories of giving suggestions, opinions and information regarding the task on hand. Bales has called the first type the "social" or "socio-emotional" leaders and the second type the "task" leaders. While the former person concentrates more on the social aspects of the situation and tries to keep the group running smoothly and happily, the latter concentrates on getting the work done.

Communication Networks: In order to study this aspect communication networks are artificially imposed to vary the direction of permissible communication and the openness of the various channels between group members. Experimentally four-person networks and five person networks have been designed. In the following diagram, the circles represent positions and lines represent communicating channels.

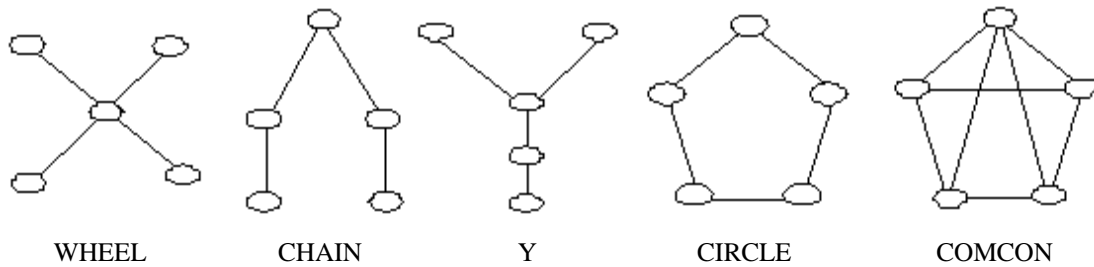


Figure 5: Five Persons Communication Networks

It will be observed that in some networks like the wheel, the chain and Y one person occupies a centralized position; he has access to more information than the persons in any other position. In the contrast, the positions in the circle and common are all equivalent, more being more central than the others. It would be expected that a person in the most central position of the wheel, the chain or Y would assume the functions of a leader in obtaining and in distributing information and will help crucially in solving problems confronted by the group. Bavelas (1948) Leavitt (1951) were the first to investigate systematically the social and psychological consequences of network variations. Leavitt presented the problem of discovering the single symbol that each member held in common on a card containing several symbols. The results showed that stable organizations developed by the fourth or fifth trial in the more centralized network but not in the circle network. The central subject transmitted more messages than any other subject in the centralized groups. It was found that he also enjoyed his job more than those who occupied the peripheral positions. Further, the person occupying the central position was typically designated the leader by the other members on a post experimental questionnaire.

The results also showed that the circle was typically the most inefficient network. The persons in the this network sent many more messages than in other kinds of networks. Also they made significantly more errors in attempting to identify the common symbols. However, the subjects in the circle network enjoyed their jobs more than the peripheral members in the centralized groups.

9.9 Leadership and Power

Power and leadership are largely interconnected. The effective leader understands that legitimate power and influence are needed to direct the group, especially at the

initial stages when the group looks up to the leader for guidance. The leader has to take up a mature use of power rather than being uncomfortable or too much in control. This power should be used to empower the group towards shouldering responsibilities willingly and also in successfully completing them. Groups need leaders to avoid disorganisation and chaos; leadership and power are inseparable. The leader needs to aid power sharing with the group by highlighting the importance of member-to-member communication rather than member-to-leader communication (Zastrow, n.d.).

French and Raven have developed a framework for understanding the extent to which one group member influences another by identifying five bases of power: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent and expert. This framework allows group members to analyze the source of their power and offers suggestions on when, and when not, to use their power to influence others (Zastrow, n.d.).

Reward Power: Rewards include such things as promotions, pay increases, days off, and praise. Reward power is based on B's (one member's) perception that A (another member or the entire group) has the capacity to dispense rewards or remove negative consequences in response to B's behaviour. This power will be greater if the group members value the reward and believe they cannot get it from anyone else. Group members will usually hard for someone who has high reward power and communicate effectively with her. Reward power can backfire, however, if group members feel they are being canned or bribed. If reward power is used by A in a conflict situation with B, B is apt to feel he is being bribed and controlled and may eventually refuse to cooperate (Zastrow, n.d.).

Coercive Power: The ability to fire a worker who fails below a given level of production is a common example of coercive power, which is based on B's perception that A can dispense punishments or remove positive consequences. Coercive power stems from the expectation on the part of B that he will be punished by A if he fails to conform to the required standards set by A. The distinction between reward and coercive power is important. French and Raven note that reward power will tend to increase the attraction of B toward A, while coercive power will decrease this attraction. If coercive power is used by A to attempt to settle a conflict, it often increases B's hostility, resentment and anger. Threats often lead to aggression and counter threats, for example, military threats often increase conflict between rival

countries. Coercive power may exacerbate conflict by leading both A and B to distrust each other and to retaliate against each other. Therefore, whenever possible coercive power should not be used to settle conflicts (Zastrow, n.d.).

Legitimate Power: Legitimate power is directly related to an internalized value or norm and is probably the most complex of the five power basis. Legitimate power is based on the perception by B that A has a legitimate right to prescribe what constitutes proper behaviour for him and that B has obligation to accept this influence. Cultural values constitute one common basis for legitimate power and include intelligence, age, caste and physical characteristics as factors determining power. For example, in some cultures the aged are highly respected and are granted the right prescribe behaviour for others. The legitimate power inherent in a formal organisation is generally determined by a relationship between positions rather than between people. A supervisor in a factory, for instance, has inherent right to assign work. A third basis for a legitimate power is a legitimizing agent; for example, an election. The election process legitimates a person's right to a position that already had a legitimate range of power associated with it (Zastrow, n.d.).

The limits of legitimate power are generally specified at the time that power is assigned (e.g., in a job description). The attempted use of power outside of this range will decrease the legitimate power of the authority figure and decrease her attractiveness and influence.

Referent Power: Referent power occurs when one individual, A, influences another, B, as a result of identification. Identification in this context means either a feeling of oneness with A or a desire for an identity such as A's. The stronger the identification of B with A, the greater attraction to A and the greater referent power of A. Verbalization of referent power is "I am like A, and therefore I will believe or behave as A does" or "I want to be like A, and will be more like A if i believe or behave as A does". In ambiguous situations (that is, situations where there are no objective right or wrong beliefs or opinions), B will seek to evaluate his thoughts, beliefs and values. In ambiguous situations B is apt to adopt the thoughts, beliefs and values of the individual or group with which B identifies. French and Raven note that B is often not consciously aware of the referents power that A exerts (Zastrow, n.d.).

Expert Power: Accepting a physician's advice in medical matters is a common example of expert influence, which is based on the perception that a person has

knowledge or expertise that is the source of power. Another example would be accepting a counsellor's suggestions. Expert can influence B (the responder) only if B thinks that A (the expert) has the right answer and B trusts A. The range of expert power is more limited than that of referent power because the expert is seen as having superior knowledge or ability only in specific areas. French and Raven note that the attempted exertion of expert power outside the perceived range will reduce that power because confidence in the expert seems to be undermined (Zastrow, n.d.).

French and Raven theorize that for all five types, the stronger the basis of power, the greater power. Referent power is thought to have the broadest range. Any attempt to use power outside the prescribed range is hypothesized to reduce the power.

Exercise 6: The power Bases in the class.

This class can be reviewed as being a group. For each of the listed power bases, answer the following: Who in this class has this power base? Have these people engaged in actions that demonstrated this power base? If "yes", write down these actions.

Reward Power:

Coercive Power:

Legitimate Power:

Referent Power:

Expert Power:

9.10 Leadership Styles

The following are a few important leader behaviours:

Directive: When the task to be accomplished is unclear or difficult to be achieved, the leader insures its successful accomplishment through clearly defining individual tasks and role expectations of members.

Supportive: The leader shows high concern towards group members and their needs. This style is suitable for groups working on well defined tasks. Members under the supportive leader are found to be happy and highly satisfied.

Participative: Here, the leader involves the group members in decision making and in all functions of the group. Discussion, consultations and group consensus are

stressed upon. However, this calls for members who are responsible and who understand the importance of their contribution to the groups success.

Charismatic: Medha Patkar pioneer of the Narmada Bachao Andolan (Save the Narmada Movement) is considered to be a charismatic leader for the following reasons:

- i. Ability to inspire followers towards goals that appears incredible to the common man
- ii. Vision about the future
- iii. Understanding followers' needs and limitations.

Transformational: "This highlight on leaders who inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests and who are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers. Seven characteristics were found: sincerity of the leader; bonding effort to develop the organisation as a family by personalized relationships; consultation and participation; collectivization and team work; empowerment and support; serving as a role model; bringing in changes continuously while maintaining continuity and being innovative". – Robbins and Sanghi: 2005.

9.11 Guidelines For Forming And Leading A Group (Reborn, n.d.)

The theory of leadership emphasized in this unit is the distributed – functions approach, which asserts that every group members takes on leadership responsibilities at various times and every effective action by a member is simultaneously an effective leadership action. Being a designated leader is not that different from taking on leadership roles. This unit will summarize a number of suggestions for how to form and lead a group effectively.

Home Work: The Key to successful group leadership is extensive preparation. Even experienced leaders carefully prepare for each group and for each group session.

In planning for a new group, the following questions must be answered: What are the purpose or general goals of the group? How can these goals be achieved? What are the characteristics of the members? Do some members have unique

individual goals or needs? What resources are needed to accomplish group goals? What is the agenda for the first meeting? What is the best way for members to suggest and decide on the specific goals of the group? Should an ice-breaker exercise be used? Which one? Should refreshments be provided? How should the chairs be arranged? What type of group atmosphere will best help the group accomplish its tasks? What is the best available meeting place? Why has the leader been selected? What do the members expect from the leader?

To plan the first meeting, a leader should view the group as a new member would view it. Here are a few questions a new member might have: what will be the goals of this group? Why am I joining? Will my personal goals be met? Will I feel comfortable? Will I accept? Will the other members be radically different in terms of backgrounds and interests? If I do not like this group, can I leave gracefully? Will other members respect what I have to say, or will they laugh and make fun of me? By considering such concerns, the leader can plan the first meeting to help other members feel comfortable and to clarify the goals and activities of the group.

Before the first meeting, it is absolutely essential that a leader identified the group's needs and expectations as precisely as possible. A group whose leader and members disagree on goals cannot succeed.

There is a variety of way to identify what the members want. The leader may have an opportunity to ask them before the first meeting. If that is not possible, the leader can at least talk to the organizer of the meeting, about the group's expectations. The first meeting is always a good time to clarify the group's goals. The leader also needs the answers to the following:

1. How many members are expected?
2. What are their characteristics: age, socio-economic status, racial and ethnic background, gender, educational / professional background?
3. How knowledgeable are the members about the topics the group will be dealing with?
4. What are the likely personal goals of the various members?
5. How motivated are the members to accomplish the purposes for which the group is being formed? Voluntary membership usually indicates greater motivation. Individuals who have been ordered by a court to participate in

an alcohol rehabilitation programme, for example, have little motivation and may even be hostile.

6. What values are members likely to have? While being careful to avoid stereotyping, a leader must understand, for example, that teenagers on juvenile probation will differ significantly from retired priest.

If a group has met more than one, the leader needs to review the following kinds of questions. Have the overall goals been decided upon and clarified? If not, what needs to be done in this clarification process? Is the group making adequate progress in accomplishing its goals? If not, what are obstacles that must be overcome? Is the group taking the most effective course of action to reach its goals? What is the agenda for the next meeting? What activities should be planned? Will successful completion of these activities move the group toward accomplishing its overall goals? If not, which other activities will? Is each member sufficiently motivated to help the group accomplish its goals? If not, why? What might be done to stimulate their interest?

Planning a session: In planning a session, the leader must keep the group's overall goals. To be effective, the leader must know exactly what should be accomplished in each session and make sure that all the items on the agenda contribute to the goals. Here is a checklist that may help leaders plan successful group sessions. An effective leader will do the following:

1. Select relevant content. The material should not only be relevant to the specific goals for the session but also to the backgrounds and interests of the participants. Time management advice for college students, for example, probably will be different from that for business executives. Time saving tips for students will likely focus on improving study habits; business executives will be more interested in how to manage time in an office setting. An excellent way to evaluate possible material is to define precisely how it will be valuable to members of the group. The leader should ask, "If a group member wants to know why he or she should know this, can I give a valid reason?" if that question cannot be answered precisely, the material should be discarded and replaced with more relevant material.
2. Use examples. Examples help to illustrate key concepts and stimulate the participants. People tend to remember examples more readily than statistics

or concepts. Vivid case histories that illustrate the drastic effects of spouse abuse, for instance, will be remembered much longer than statistics on the extent of spouse abuse.

3. Present materials in a logical order. It is generally desirable to begin by summarizing the agenda items for the session. Ideally, one topic should blend into the next. Group exercises should be used in conjunction with related theoretical material.
4. Plan the time. Once the content of a session is selected and organized, the time each segment requires should be estimated. Accurate estimates will help determine whether planned material and activities are appropriate for the allotted time. A good leader also knows what material can be deleted if time is running short and what can be added if the session progresses more rapidly than planned. Substitute activities must also be available to replace speakers who fail to appear or films that fail to arrive.
5. Be flexible. A variety of unexpected events may make it desirable to change the agenda during a session. Interpersonal conflict between members may take considerable time or it may become clear that subjects related to the group's overall purpose are more valuable for the group to focus on than the prepared agenda.
6. Change the pace. People may attention longer if there is an occasional change of pace. Long lectures or discussions can become boring. Group exercise, films, guest speakers, breaks, debates and other activities will help vary the tempo of a meeting or session. In group therapy, one way to change the pace is to move from one member's problem to those of another. Lectures can be more stimulating if the instructor:
 - Speaks extemporaneously instead of reading material.
 - Walks around the room occasionally, rather than standing or sitting in one place
 - Draws out participants by asking questions.

Relaxing before Start a Meeting: Before beginning a meeting, the leader is likely to be nervous about how the session may go. Some anxiety, in fact, is helpful because it increases alertness and that will make the leader more attentive, producing a better

meeting. Too much anxiety, however, reduces effectiveness. Relaxation techniques that can alleviate excessive anxiety. They are highly recommended and include walking, jogging, listening to music, meditating and being alone to clear the mind. Effective group leaders generally learn they can reduce their level of anxiety through using one or more relaxation techniques. Practice in leading groups also builds confidence and reduce anxiety.

Cues upon Entering the Meeting Room: It is essential that a leader be on time, but arriving early is better because it allows the leader to see that materials, seating arrangements, refreshments and any other needs are in place as planned. The leader will also have an opportunity to observe the members before the group begins. He or she can gain information about the interests of the participants from their age, gender, clothes and personal appearance, conversation and interaction with one another. An effective leader observes such cues and uses them to create an initial bond with the participants. For example, this was asked to give a workshop on suicide prevention to a high school class. Upon arriving, I was informed by the teacher that one of the students in the class had recently committed suicide. Instead of beginning with planned presentation, I asked each student to write down, anonymously, one or two concerns or questions that they had about suicide. We then had a lively discussion based on their questions and concerns. Such a discussion was probably more valuable than the formal presentation because it focused on their specific question and concerns.

Seating Arrangements: Seating is important for several reasons. It can affect who talks to whom, influence leadership roles, and as a result, affect group cohesion and morale. In most groups members should have eye contact with one another. The group leader must be able to make eye contact with everyone to obtain nonverbal feedback on what the members are thinking and feeling.

A circle is ideal for generating discussion, encouraging a sense of equal status for each member and promoting group openness and cohesion. The traditional classroom arrangement, on the other hand has the effect of placing the leader in a position of authority. It also tends to inhibit communication because members can easily make eye contact only with other members seated nearby.

Tables have advantages and disadvantages. They provide a place to be writing and to put work materials and some members feel more comfortable at a table

because they can lean on it. But tables restrict movement and may serve as barriers between people.

The leader should thus carefully consider the use of tables. In business meetings or other “working” sessions, for example, tables are necessary. In therapy groups, however, tables are seldom used. When work surfaces written communication are required, small tables in a circle can be an effective arrangement.

The shape of the tables can also influence the way group members interact. If the table is rectangular, the leader traditionally sits at one end becomes the head of the table and the “authority”, tends to do more talking, and has a greater influence on the discussion than other group members. A round or square table, however, establishes a more equalitarian atmosphere. The “head of the table” effect can also be reduced by placing two triangular tables together to make a square.

In new groups or even established ones, members are likely to sit next to friends. If it is important for everyone in the group to interact, the leader may want to ask people to sit next to individuals they do not know. People are most apt to talk to others sitting at right angles to them and them to those next to them. Those sitting directly across receive less communication, and those sitting anywhere else are even less likely to be addressed.

Introductions: The leader’s credentials should be summarized at the first meeting to give the group a sense of confidence that the leader can fulfil the expectations of the members. If the leader is being introduced, a concise summary of the leader’s credentials for the expected role is desirable. If the leader is introducing herself, the important credentials should be summarized in an informative but modest way. The summary should be made in a way that helps create the desired atmosphere – whether it be formal or informal, fun or serious or whatever. An excellent way to handle the introductions in many groups is to use an ice-breaker exercise.

It is highly desirable for the leader to learn the names of all group members as quickly as possible. This requires extra attention and name tags can help everyone be more comfortable sooner. Members appreciate being called by name because it affirms their importance.

If the group is small, the members can introduce themselves individually, perhaps using an ice breaker. In addition to the usual personal information, it is helpful for

members to state their expectations for the group as they introduce themselves. This helps uncover hidden agendas that are incompatible with the goals of the group. If a stated expectation is beyond the scope of the group, the leader should tactfully point this out to avoid later frustration or dissatisfaction.

Clarification Roles: The leader of a group should be clear as to his or her roles and responsibilities. If they are unclear, the leader may want to discuss them with the group. One way of doing this is for the group to select goals and then make decisions about the tasks and responsibilities that each member will have in working toward the goals of the group. In most situations it is clearly a mistake for the leader to do the bulk of the work. Generally, the group will be most productive if all members make substantial contributions. The more members contribute to a group, the more lightly they are to feel a part of the group. Such positive feelings will benefit everyone(Reborn, n.d.).

If there is any doubt, the leader should explain the roles clearly. If group members indicate different expectations, the group should then make decisions about who will do what.

In explaining his or her role the leader should be modest about personal skills and resources, attempting to come across as a knowledgeable person rather than an authority figure who has all the answers. The leader must also be prepared to explain the reasoning behind exercises and other actions or activities. The leader's role will vary from group to group and from situation to situation(Reborn, n.d.).

Agenda: Most meetings are more effective if the leader provides an agenda several days before hand. Ideally, all members of the group should have an opportunity to suggest items for the agenda. The agenda should be briefly reviewed at the start of the meeting to give each member a chance to suggest additions, deletions or other changes. In some meetings it may be appropriate for the group to discuss and perhaps vote on, the suggested changes in the agenda.

Additional Guidelines for Leading a Group(Reborn, n.d.):

The unit briefly summarizes additional suggestions(*Social Work with Groups Chapter 3 & 4 Flashcards / Quizlet*, n.d.) for effectively leading a group.

1. Understand that leadership is a shared responsibility. Every member will take on leadership roles at times. Designated leaders should not seek to dominate a group or believe they are responsible for directing the group in all of its tasks

and maintenance functions. In fact, productivity and group cohesion are substantially increased when everyone contributes.

2. Use decision-making procedures best suited for the issues facing a particular group.
3. Use a problem-solving approach to handle the issues and problems facing the group.
4. Create a cooperative atmosphere rather than a competitive one.
5. View controversy and conflict as natural and desirable for resolving issues and arriving at good decisions. In resolving conflicts, seek to use no-lose, problems solving approach rather than a win-lose approach.
6. Generally, seek to confront members who are hostile or disruptive.
7. Use appropriate self-disclosure.
8. Seek to create an atmosphere of open and honest communication.
9. Provide stimulating, relevant content and exercises that illustrate the concepts and help members try out suggested new behaviours. In an assertiveness group, for example, theoretical material on how to be more assertive should be followed by practice in being more assertive.
10. Give attention to how to end a session. A few minutes before the session is scheduled to conclude, or when the group has exhausted the subject, a brief summary emphasizing the major points to be remembered leaves the group with a sense of achievement and signals the end of the session.

Leaders are not born. They are made through training, practice and experience. By learning how to lead groups effectively individuals become more aware of themselves, grow as people, become more self-confident, feel good about themselves, develop highly marketable skills, learn to improve interpersonal relationship and help themselves and others accomplish important tasks.

9.12 Group Exercises

Exercise A: Desensitizing Fears of Leading a Group (Zastrow, n.d.):

Goal: To identify the specific fears about being a designated leader of a group and to provide information to reduce those fears.

Sept 1: The group leader should state the purpose of this exercise. Each student should then be handed a sheet of paper and instructed to complete, anonymously, the sentence “My specific fears about being a designated leader of a group are”. The leader should emphasize that the completed statements will be collected and discussed.

Step 2: The responses should be collected in a way that ensures, anonymity and then read aloud. After a concern is read, the students should suggest ways of reducing the concern. If a concern involves handling hostile members, for example, the class, with help from the instructor, may suggest strategies for coping with them. If a member fears that he or she does not have the traits needed to lead a group, it may be pointed out that research has found that no specific traits distinguish leaders from followers and that the distributed-functions theory of leadership asserts that practically anyone can be trained to be a leader.

Step 3: After Step 2 is completed, the group leader or the instructor may want to summarize key points on how to lead a group and explain that future sessions will explore these points in greater depth.

Exercise B: Task Functions and Group Maintenance Functions:

Goal: To show that at times nearly everyone takes a leadership role in groups that involves performing task and group maintenance functions.

Step 1: The group leader should indicate that this exercise will elicit the class’s thoughts on what criteria should be used for admitting students into the social work programme at this campus. The leader should then explain that the council on Social Work Education (the national organization that accredits social work programmes) requires every programme to have criteria for admitting students. There is considerable variation in criteria among the programmes in the country. Common criteria include a minimum grade-point average and a vaguely defined “aptitude for social work”.

Step 2: The class then forms subgroups of five or six students and each selects an observer. The observers then form a group in another room or hallway. The subgroups should not begin discussing their primary task until the observers return.

Step 3: The observers are told that their task is to record significant task and group maintenance functions performed by each member of their subgroup. The leader may need to explain that task functions are statements designed to help the

subgroup accomplish its task and that group maintenance functions are statements made to strengthen the social / emotional aspects of group life, observers should be given a handout that summarizes the task roles and group maintenance roles developed by Johnson and Johnson, which appear in this unit. The observers will be asked after the exercise is over to summarize to their subgroup how each member contributed through certain task and group maintenance functions.

Step 4: The leader and observers return to the sub-groups. The subgroups are informed that their task is to develop criteria for admitting students to the social work programme at this campus. The subgroup is free to suggest various criteria but should probably begin by discussing: 1) whether a grade-point average should be used for admission and what it should be, and 2) how “aptitude for social work” should be defined and measured.

Step 5: The subgroups should work for 20 to 30 minutes, and each should then state and explain its proposed criteria. Time should then be called and each subgroup should be asked to indicate to the class what criteria were arrived at.

Step 6: The group leader should indicate that one of the purposes of this exercise is to demonstrate that most members in a group assume leadership roles by carrying out task and group maintenance functions. The leader should then define task and group maintenance functions.

Step 7: Each observer summarizes to his or her subgroup, but not to the whole class, the significant task and group maintenance functions performed by each member.

Step 8: End the exercise by asking members if they have any thoughts or comments.

Exercise C: Power Bases:

Goal: To practice analyzing influence attempts in terms of power bases.

Step 1: The group leader explains the purpose of the exercise, describes the five bases of power developed by French and Raven, and briefly discusses the effects of using each base.

Step 2: The class divides into subgroups of three members each and answers the following questions:

1. What bases of power does the instructor of this course have?
2. What bases of power does a student in this class have?
3. What is the primary power base the instructor has?
4. What is the primary power base a student has?

Step 3: The subgroups share their answers to these questions by having one member from each subgroup write the answers on the blackboard. The class then discusses the reason for the similarities and differences between the answers arrived at by the subgroups.

Step 4: In all likelihood the instructor will be seen as having much more power than the students. The group leader should summarize the effects of unequal power on communication and on relationships within a group. Students then discuss how they feel when an instructor attempts to present herself on a level equal or superior to students.

Exercise D: Types of Influence:

Goal: To increase awareness of feelings toward the following three types of influence: personal challenge, coercive power and manipulation.

Step 1: The instructor explains the purpose of the exercise and asks students to visualize each of the following situations. The instructor should pause after each situation and allow students time to write their responses.

Narrative 1: Visualize an academic situation in which you worked hard on something because it presented a personal challenge and because you expected to grow as a person through meeting this challenge. Briefly describe this situation on a sheet of paper and summarize your feelings about the challenge motivating you to work hard.

Narrative 2: Visualize a situation in which someone sought to manipulate you into doing something. Briefly describe this situation on a sheet of paper and summarize your feelings when you discovered this.

Step 2: The students then form subgroups of three members each to share what they wrote and discuss how they felt about each situation. If any student does not wish to share these personal thoughts, that is acceptable.

Step 3: The students think of situations in which using coercive power and manipulation would be desirable and then discuss the situations.

9.13 Conclusion

Our experience in working with groups indicates that there is no 'one size fits all' approach to leadership. Different styles of leadership are relevant to different situations.

Thus, effective leaders are highly respected individuals who have a vision. They promote safe, welcoming environments that avoid the extreme of aggressive confrontation of members or passive addiction of leadership to members who attempt to dominate groups. Next, leaders have to understand the abilities, values and personalities of members. Effective leaders must also skilfully deploy the resources they have at their disposal. This includes empowering members and reinforcing feeling of confidence and individual and group efficacy. In a very real sense the right to leadership must be earned again and again.

9.14 Exercise

1. What do you mean by leadership?
2. Write in brief the different approaches to leadership.
3. Elucidate the roles and functions of a leader.
4. What are the qualities of success for leader?
5. Write short notes on:
 - a) Leadership and communication;
 - b) Leadership and power.

9.15 Reference

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Unit 10 □ Programme Planning in Social Group Work

Structure

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- 10.2 Concept**
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10.0 Objectives

This unit describes programme planning in the social group work process. After reading through this unit you must be able to:

- Understand the concept and principles of programme planning
- Know the role of group worker in programme planning
- Picture the dimensions of programme planning process.

10.1 Introduction

Careful planning is necessary for any successful group and it is very important, ongoing group process. A well planned programme gives direction to the group and enables each member to know and prepare his / her responsibility. The group worker should possess abilities and skills to guide members through an effective programme planning process. The programme planning process includes (i) setting goals, (ii) brain storming with members, (iii) planning the programme in line with the goals, (iv) obtaining the approval of the group, (v) assigning individual and sub-group responsibilities, (vi) implementation of the programme, (vi) periodic evaluation and feedback and (vii) follow up (Nalini, n.d.).

10.2 Concept

Planned activities play an important role in social group work practice. These planned activities are the programmes which are organised for many processes. These includes attaining improvement in members' own environmental conditions, promoting a sense of achievement, sublimating and canalizing certain impulses, actualizing problems in an on-going social situation and working through or articulating symbolically problems and feelings which members are unable to express verbally. Programme is a concept which, when broadly conceived, includes the entire range of activities, relationship, interaction and experiences – individuals and group which have been deliberately planned and carried out with the help of the worker to meet the needs of the individuals and the group (Rengasamy, n.d.). Social group worker translates his knowledge into practice with group through the use of programme as a tool in group relationships.

The group worker is not there to “put on a programme” or to “put over a programme” but rather to help the group members develop their own program. There may be many situations in which “putting on” or putting over programme in entirely legitimate but such situation should not be considered as social group work. Because of our belief that persons are much more important than programme and because of our further belief that the process of programme development is of the utmost importance.

10.3 The nature and purpose of programme

Simply stated, programme in social group work has come to mean anything and everything that the group does to satisfy its interests. At one time there was a tendency to think of programme as being synonymous with activities or events. The programme is a concept which, when broadly conceived, includes the entire range of activities, relationships, interactions experiences individual and group which have been deliberately planned and carried out with the help of the worker to meet the needs of the individuals and the group. Programme is thus a process rather than the periodic culmination of a process. The festival that the group members have been working on for many weeks is a part of programme but everything that they have done is getting ready for it should be considered as the programme of that group for that period of time.

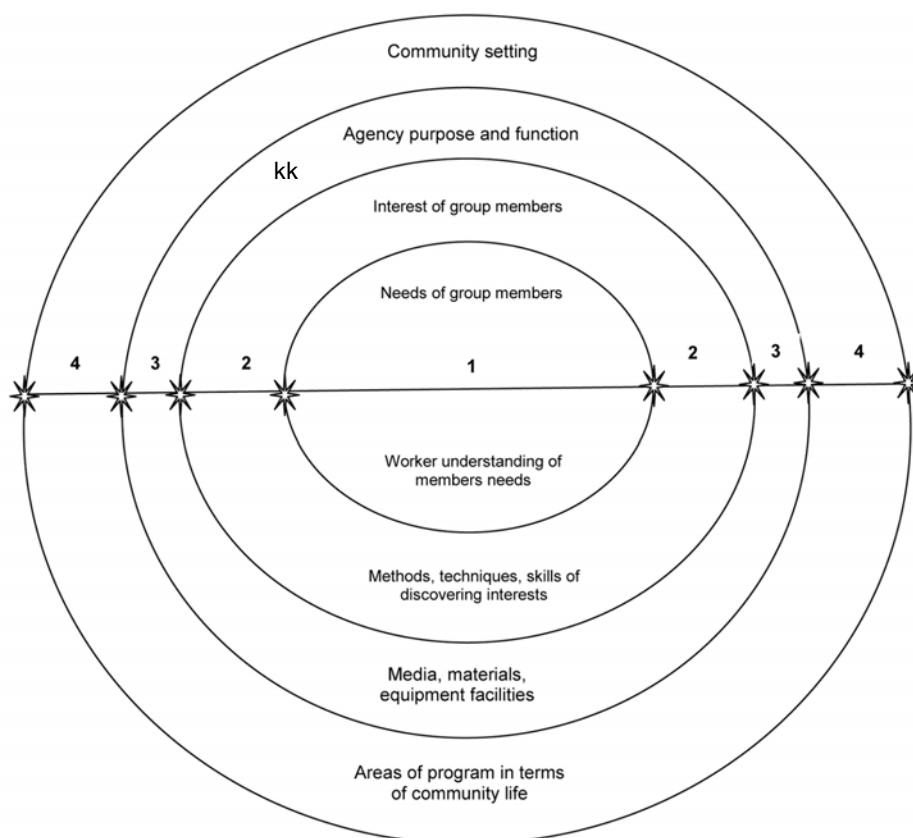


Figure 2.1: Programme as a process in Group Work

As illustrated in Figure 2.1, any discussion of programme in social group work must take into account such items as content and area, media of expression and methods of conducting it. Programme area or programme content refers to a segment of life experience that has general meaning for the individuals at their specific point of development. For example, a great deal of programme content in social group work centres around the area of recreation and wise use of leisure time. This is an important area for everyone because the way in which we use our leisure is of great social significance today.

Media of expression in programme refer to the specific means used by group members to plan and experience programme in the area chosen. Parties, social events, dances are means providing leisure time experiences which are recreational.

Informal but planned group discussion is a prominent means of helping groups to think through both social and economic problems. The arts and crafts have tremendous significance in this modern era of machine technology. The drama may be not only a means of having a creative experience but also a way of deepening out knowledge of community health problem. Music too becomes an excellent means of helping a group to experience harmonious relationships with other groups when all the members join in choral or orchestral union. Group workers have long realized the great value of “seeing” and have used outings, trips or excursions to help place their groups in firsthand contact with a new and different situation.

The worker helps the group to select the areas of content and the media of expression. Even prior to this he may help the group to develop a functional organisation of their members so that they can make responsible decisions. The discovery of interest and needs is, of course, an early step. Helping the group to modify interest by enlarging them or by deepening the interest is also involved. Much of programme planning is discussion; therefore, the worker frequently has to help the group learn how to talk over the many aspects of a single idea. Groups must be helped to discover and use their own resources and those of the agency and the community. There is a great deal involved in stimulating people to action and in timing the work so that it unfolds at a suitable pace. It is no doubt for easier to “put on” a programme for a group that it is to help that group develop its own programme. The group worker who consciously relates the “what” of programme

(content) and the “how” of programme (media) with the “why” of programme (purpose) is obviously involved in a highly skilled job. He must have been appreciation of the backgrounds, points of view and aspirations of the group members and must avoid all tendencies to superimpose his ideas and patterns of programme. The programme development process should be a blossoming of the groups own potentialities.

10.4 Understanding Interests and Needs for Programme

Arbitrary division of the following material into discovery of interests and needs, group organisation, and guidance of interaction does not imply that the programme process is itself segmental. In actual work all these are interrelated and almost indistinguishable.

There is a great deal of difference between interests of group members and needs of group members. An interest is a tendency to concentrate attention on an object, an idea, an activity or a situation. This concentration of attention may be fleeting or it may be of sustained duration. We know that the interests of persons are likely to be broad or narrow according to their social backgrounds. Interests are expressed verbally or overtly and frequently near the surface of our consciousness.

Needs, however, are less easy to ascertain. Need in a psychological sense refers to something we desire in the way of a personality characteristic, human experience or relationship with our fellows. All of us have common human needs which must be satisfied in a measure if we are to be happy and effective in our social relationships. The relationship between interests and needs may be very close and thus easy to translate. When a youth group develops to the point at which members express strong interests in activities with members of the opposite sex, this expression of interest actually represents a development need associated with their maturation. Thus, the interests of group members and the needs they represent are constantly being sought by the group worker who utilizes such material as a basis for helping the group to develop a programme.

When programme interests begin to emerge from within the group, the worker needs to ask himself certain questions before deciding whether or not he has made

a substantial discovery. Does this interest seem to represent in so far as possible the common interests of the group members? Does it seem to be a good starting point when considered against the background of this group? Is it in keeping with the resources and function of this agency? Does it have some possibility of both individual participation and cooperative group activity? Can the group take some responsibility for implementing it?

Another way in which interests may be discovered in early meetings with the group is the liberal use of questions. Through friendly inquiry the worker is often able to locate beginning points for programme. Questions may be of an “exploratory” nature, such as “what are some of the fun things that groups like ours do around here? Or questions may be of the “challenge or stimulation” type, such as “How about all of us trying to think up the most exciting thing we could do next week”. Then, too, there are “opinion” questions, such as “what would you think of this as an idea?” Workers also ask “data” questions, such as “How many of you have ever played this game?” “Choice or decision” questions on the order of “Now let’s see if we can choose among all these possibilities?” Should be used after the group has had time for careful discussion.

The job of interest discovery and the relating of interests to needs does not cease with the worker’s early contacts with the group. In a sense, programme development is continuous and finding the beginning level is only one part of it. The worker has a function at the point of helping the group to enjoy a progressive series of programme experiences which tend to parallel the group’s development. The expansion of interests and the deepening of individual awareness is largely a matter of continuous interpretation and evaluation of programme as they are carried on.

In all this the group worker is an active participant who accepts his responsibility to help the group toward self-discovery. His role shifts as the group changes and his duties depend upon the kind of response he is able to foster among the members of the group. A maximum of flexibility and a keen alertness to moment at which the group is ready to act, play a prominent part in the successful discovery of interests and their transaction into needs.

10.5 Role of group worker in programme planning

Wilson and Ryland have narrated the following role of the group worker in programme planning:

1. Helping the members plan the programme: The social group worker helps the group members to plan their own programme. He enables them to engage constructively in the programme planning process. He does this by the following ways.
 - a. Observation, Listening and Action: The social group worker observes the actions and words of the members as they make use of programme media, reveal their needs and interests. He is sensitive not only to the actual words but to the way in which they are spoken. The worker picks up conversations in the midst of activities and helps the members to verbalize their troubled thoughts.
 - b. Analysing and Recording: The worker makes on the spot analyse which changes his procedure with the group. Through the records, he remembers and sees the events of the meeting and the members' reactions in a little different light and finds new leads for the programme related to the needs of the members and the group as a whole.
 - c. Visiting and Counselling: By another way, the worker discovers needs and interests through his contacts with the family, the school and the community resources. He counsels them to plan the activities according to their needs.
 - d. Teaching and Leading: Sometimes the worker leads the activities when it is urgently needed in such a way that members enjoy participating in them. The worker keeps his focus both on the group experience and on the members. He is a catalytic agent between people, programme, ideas, materials and the facilities.
2. Discovering and Arousing Interests:
 - a. Assumed Interests: Because of his general knowledge of the growth and developmental needs of individuals at various age levels, the worker can

assume that a group composed of members having the ordinary development for a certain age will have certain interests.

- b. Expressed interests: Various devices are used to express their interests. It is worker's responsibility to see what needs lie behind the expressed interests.
 - c. Implied interests: Many interests are implied rather than expressed directly in words. Group worker analyse these interests and brings them on conscious level of the group.
3. Using the Environment: The worker makes extensive use of the environment to stimulate new programme activities. He uses agency's facilities such as gymnasium, swimming pool, game room, record player, library, kitchen, craft, shop etc., to enrich the activities.
 4. Using Limitations: Social group worker imposes limitations on the activities on basis of available materials, rules and procedures, resources and facilities. He also limits the activities within the realm of the possibility of successful accomplishment.

10.6 Principles of programme planning

In order to achieve the objectives of the group, a number of important principles of programme planning have been identified(*Program Planning in Social Group Work*, n.d.). Let us take a look at some of these principles:

1. Participation in Activities Depends on Rewards: For the members to remain involved and interested over long period of time, they must received satisfactory rewards.
2. Group Work and Employing Energy of Felt Needs: The only matters on which group members will expend energy are these which they feel are problems, things about which they have feeling which they must deal with. Therefore, the survey of problems suggested by members is the starting point of the group activities.
3. Leadership is by Team: Leadership is an important factor in group activities. This should be within the group. This kind of leadership encourages free expression of feeling and opinions and guides the group into action.

4. Membership should be based on willingness to work and not Ideology: The basis of participation in group activities should be on willingness to work in group. As long as there is willingness to work on problems, ideological differences can be settled or avoided.
5. Activities should be Problem Centred: Members of the group must know that what they are organizing and doing that is for their welfare and for the solution of the problem.
6. Group members should plan their programme.
7. All decisions are subject to revision as a result of taking action: If the decisions are not suited for action, the process of changing decisions plays an important and cohesive role in group work programming.
8. There should be definite rules and regulations of group activities.
9. Group should be formed on the basis of socio-metric measures on mutuality of interests and needs of the individual.

10.7 Group organisation as a part of programme planning

Every group that aspires to independence and self-determination must arrange its constituent members in such a way that they can be said to be “organized”. The form of organization is in itself of minor importance. The function of organisation in, however, of major importance. If a group is to develop and carry out its own programme, it must have way of making and accepting decisions, ways of assigning or delegating responsibility, ways of getting the whole group to participate in the planning, carrying out and evaluation of the activities that make up the programme and ways of handling routine relationships with the agency and other groups. It is a part of the group worker’s job to help groups create the type of functional organization that will make possible the sort of programme the group wishes to conduct (Sehgal, n.d.). The important thing about organization is its meaning and vitality rather than its form. The group worker does not “organize” the group. Rather, he works with the group at the point of creating a form of organization that will best serve its purpose.

In general the details of functional organization of the group should take shape as a natural process, as needs arise, rather than be superimposed by workers or agencies. It is very easy to over organize a group on the theory that “everybody should have a job to do”. Unfortunately it is very unfair and even harmful to pretend that people have a job to do when in reality no such job exists. Often workers and groups get satisfaction out of creating complex organizational super structures, only to find that all their time goes into “keeping up the organization” and that there is no time or energy left for the real purpose of the group. A basic dictum would seem to be: keep the form of the organization as simple as possible.

The worker has a great deal to do in pointing up what is involved in programme decisions. When he asks, who is going to do the work? Or what jobs are involved here? He is helping the group to accept the fact that programme do not “just happen” but always require people who will take responsibility. In this connection there should be a clear understanding of duties and responsibilities and decision of the time when the job is to be done. It is better to devote time and energy to careful planning than to endless checking up later because of initial misunderstanding. Furthermore, there is a great deal of skill required from the workers in helping officers, committee chairmen and others learn how to do their jobs and to do them in concert with the others. The group worker must learn how to point out things without taking over and must know how to coordinate the separate efforts of a great number of different people, all of whom bear some of the load for the group deal easier for the worker to do it himself, but in so doing he defeats the purpose of group work, which is to get people opportunities to do for themselves and their group.

10.8 Guided Interaction—the heart of the programme planning

The social group workers’ primary job in programme development is to guide the processes of interaction among group members. Social group work utilizes the interaction of members around programme in an agency setting with worker guidance (Verma, n.d.). It is believed that this group work process results in the

movement of individuals and groups toward objectives that are mutually compatible with the function of the agency. Interaction is illustrated in figure 2.2

Interaction refers to participating behaviour of a reciprocal kind. It is the give-and-take of individuals who act and react. This “giving to and taking from” is really a single process which takes place within the group. The worker is responsible both for stimulating the “to and from” and for helping participation become channelled or focused on the goal to be attained. Interaction itself is not an end but rather a mean to the goal of the group. It tends to take two forms: acts of initiation and response to the initiatory acts. When they seek knowledge, when they volunteers to take responsibility, they are interacting with their group members. Consequently, workers should be alert to the origin of ideas and then make certain that the group has a chance to respond fully. Responses may be positive, negative or neutral. The response of one member may be to accept it with slight modifications: this act then results in a new cycle of consideration. It has been well stated that interaction is not a matter of arithmetic or addition of responses but rather an interweaving or interpretation of responses.

Interaction is a matter of degree rather than of type. In some situations, especially in cases in which the group is secure and morale is high, group members work together with surprising speed and thoroughness. Almost everyone participates and has a chance to express himself, and the product of the interaction is substantially a group product. With other groups the reverse is true and the worker has to back up and begin almost at the beginning again. Clearly, the kinds of relationships that exist among the members and between the members and the worker determine the degree of interaction that will obtain. Until the individuals actually become a group and can communicate with each other, the degree and duration of purposeful interaction will be less than at a later time. Beginning level programme with newly formed groups should concentrate on things that will help such groups to develop a consciousness of one another, a consciousness of being group.

Understanding the Dimensions of Interaction:

After working with groups for a period of time, the group worker becomes aware that the process of interaction has many dimensions. He begins to watch for certain things to happen and in so doing he understands more fully the meaning of the

behaviour being displayed. Some of the important dimensions of interaction that the worker should have in mind are:

1. Distribution – is participating – should be studied. After a few meetings the worker can recall who is participating and who is not and will become aware of the demanding member and of the members who does not participate at all.
2. Frequency – how often and how many time the member participates – can be observed. Some members soon to be involved in everything that is going on, and others participate less frequently.
3. Duration – how long participation lasts – is considered. Here the workers will not that some members seem to be actively involved throughout most of the meeting while others enter in only now and then and briefly.
4. Order of participation is important to understand. Some members always speak first and others wait a while. Member A may not participate until member B has had his say. Member C may always enter in after the worker has made a comment. Member D may watch for opportunities to insert his specific feelings.
5. Direction of the interaction should be noted. Usually there are two broad categories of direction: toward persons and toward objects. Sometimes the worker will observe that a member always responds to the worker. Sometimes the interaction is directed toward the task at hand and other times it is off the track and seemingly out of focus.
6. Content of the interaction is usually both programme – and personality – centered. Group members may be talking about a forthcoming programme event and simultaneously reveal their preferences for certain persons to be in charge of certain parts of it.
7. Meaning of the interaction is evaluated by the worker, who endeavours to assess the positive and the negative aspects of member responses.

Five factors, taken together, influence the interactional capacity of the group: the relationships between group members, the relationship between the worker and the group, the conscious bond of need and interest which holds the group together, the goals for which they work, and the social situation in which they find themselves. As

he gives guidance to group interaction in relation to the programme development process, the group worker is demonstrating the group work process. The group work process is in operation when the group worker consciously guides and utilizes the interaction among group members for individual and group development. It is important to emphasize the fact that in the group work process the worker participates actively in directing the interaction of members so that the experience will meet their needs as individuals and at the same time assist the group to move toward some satisfying group achievement which is mutually determined.

10.9 Programme planning with Large Group

The worker can also help the large group divide its members into a number of subgroups of either short-term or long-term duration. The process of planning group programme can be participated in by a large number of members on different occasions. The use of a steering committee or planning or executive committee will enable certain members of the group to take responsibility for the whole group. If there is sufficient rotation of responsibility in jobs of this kind over a period of time, a large number of persons can have experience in doing something for the group.

The planned subdivision of a large group engaged in programme activity can amount to the creation of a number of small groups and can help individuals become a part of the small group during the specific event or session. In addition, the group worker has an opportunity to refer individuals from large groups to small groups, and often the large group provides a way for an individual to get started in an agency programme. Alertness on the part of the group worker will frequently result in his locating of individuals who need special help. This may require a specialized interest and a specialized focus, so that the individual can be helped to relate to another resource.

Let us bear in mind that group workers should endeavour to use as much of their group work knowledge and skill as possible in all group situations small or large. Programme development is a continuous process that calls for the involvement of as many group members as possible.

Guidance of interaction—the Focus of the Programme Process

Group work	Utilizes the interaction of members	Around programme in an agency and community setting	With worker guidance	Resulting in movement toward objectives	
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	
The group itself is a major too of personality development	Interaction is participating behaviour of a reciprocal kind, give and take of personalities that act and react	Programme is a process consisting of	The worker plays an active role influencing interaction by	Objectives are	
	↓	↓	↓	<u>Individual</u>	<u>Groups</u>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expression of interaction - Verbal communication - Body movements 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determining purpose • Deciding on • Assigning responsibilities • Working together • Carrying out activities • Evaluating • By group • By group with other groups in agency • By group with other groups in community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helping group to form • Helping group develop • Helping individuals to participate • Helping group make decision • Interpreting the agency • Enriching group environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationships • Acceptance • Status • Responsibility • Identification with group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feeling • Cooperation • Achievement • Growth and soon
	↓				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Takes form of - Initial acts - Responses to acts 				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has dimensions of - Distribution – who? - Frequency – how often? - Duration – how long? - Order – sequence? - Direction – toward? - Content – what? - Meaning – why? 				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resulting in dynamics - Acceptance - Status - Integration of group - Independence - And so on. 				

Figure 2.2

10.10 Factors influencing programme planning

All initiatives and efforts of the group in pursuit of fulfilling its goal is considered to be a programme in the social group work context. Though one tends to equate programme with activities, let us be clear that programme is a concept that comprises of not only activities but also emotional aspects such as group bonding, communications and experiences etc. One important aspect is that all these should result out of conscious planning by the group under the guidance of the worker. Programme is thus a process rather than the periodic culmination of a process. In the light of the above, let us discuss the factors influencing programme planning (“SOCIAL WORK INTERVENTION IN CORRECTIONAL SETTINGS,” n.d.):

The primary responsibility for programmes in groups’ lives with its group members – the group worker is only a facilitator in the entire process. The programmes have to be person-centered, catering to the requirements of its members. The group members, therefore, have to engage themselves to their best possible extent in programme planning, fully understanding that its successful implementation calls for their cooperation and contribution (“SOCIAL WORK INTERVENTION IN CORRECTIONAL SETTINGS,” n.d.).

If a programme has to be person-centered, it has to respond to the wants and welfare of the group members. The group worker has to make the group understand that (i) there is a vast distinction between the wants of the group members and their welfare; (ii) this can be gathered when group members put across their views during programme sessions. However, when group starts spelling out ideas for the programme, the worker needs to carefully evaluate them on the basis of collective interests, fine foundation, feasibility in terms of resources and agency’s objectives, feasibility of personal partaking of members and also of group’s cooperation.

It is of equal importance that the worker consistently taps the wants and welfare of the group from its members. Gathering this vital information is not a onetime affair to be done in the initial stages of the programme, but has to flow at periodic intervals to ensure that the programme is on the right path. The worker has to understand and also convey to the group members that programme planning is an

ongoing process – that as the programme evolves in sequence, one could comprehend the group’s progress as well.

Any discussion of programme in social group work must take into account such times as content and area, media of expression, and methods of conducting it. Programme area or content refers to a segment of life experience that has general meaning for the individuals at their specific point of development. The programme process is not segmental; in actual work all these are interrelated and almost indistinguishable.

The group worker enables the group to understand their role in programme planning and implementation – that programmes are successful largely due to the members’ willingness to share responsibilities. During the planning stages, the group members should clearly assign and accept duties and responsibilities – individually, in pairs or through forming smaller committees within the group. The group worker assists the members in functioning in unity towards executing the programme.

Healthy, purposeful and friendly communication among group members is the essence of programme planning and development. The group worker’s role here is imperative. He steers the group members to meaningful communication which in turn leads to the group working towards aims that reciprocate with the agency’s functioning. Thus communication is a fundamental mode on the road to the group’s goals.

Thus, the programme planning process is influenced by various factors such as: (i) consistent unearthing of the wants and welfare of members, (ii) identification of the point where in the programme shall commence, (iii) studying and scrutinizing work responsibilities involved in programme execution, (iv) delegating duties and responsibilities to various members, (v) synchronization of individual efforts and striving for harmony among the group members and programme evaluation.

10.11 Criteria of effective process and programme

The group work process is operating at its best when the agency, the worker, and the group provide an environmental setting in which the full interplay of

personalities upon one another is not only permitted but definitely encouraged; help individuals to participate in the discussion of goals, the formulation of plans and the carrying out of programme activities; emphasize cooperative, joint activity, in which working together serves to integrate individual, group and agency in a mutually satisfying effort; work for a system of group organization and social control that makes it possible for the individual to function as an individual but at the same time allows him to choose to act collectively with others in socially valid ways.

The programme in social group work must meet the following criteria of effectiveness (Jose & Nair, n.d.):

- Programme should grow out of the needs and interests of the individuals who compose the group.
- Programme should take into account such factors as age of group members, cultural background and economic difference.
- Programme should provide individuals with experiences and opportunities which they voluntarily choose to pursue because of their inherent values.
- Programme should be flexible and varied to satisfy a variety of needs interests and to afford a maximum number of opportunities for participation.
- Programme should evolve from the simple to more complexes with movement coming as a result of group growth in ability and readiness. Movement from initially “personal” to “social” or “community” concerns should be an ultimate objective if our programmes are to have a greater social significance.

10.12 Dimensions of programme planning process

The programme planning process has three dimensions namely:

- Programme Formulation
- Programme Implementation
- Programme Evaluation

Programme Formulation: Programme formulation becomes a large and complex task after a positive decision has been taken on a programme idea. The nine steps are required for programme formulation (see chart).

In step 1: 'Preparation of Programme Formulation', the group formulate the programme. A term of reference including time dimension, expected results, resource and problems is decided. The group obtain the necessary data required for the concerned programme.

In step 2: 'Analysis of Group Situation' a clear picture of the group's environment is carried out, i.e., description of the group, their decision making process, past experiences relating to the success or failure of the programme, need to current or future levels of the resources for the programme etc.

In step 3: 'Analysing the socio-economic and Demographic Situation' the present and future analysis is done of the socio-economic situation, and the demographic situation.

In step 4: 'Analysis and Projection of the Problems' groups define the problems and projection of the future situation which is worked out on the assumption that existing trends continue without change in the relevant system and their policies.

In step 5: 'Getting the objectives and targets' entails a statement of the problem – reduction to be achieved through the programme and translating them into the kind and magnitude of services.

In step 6: 'Identification of Potential Obstacles' an attempt is made to predict the potential obstacles that might stand in the way of reaching the operational targets.

In step 7: 'Design of Strategies' the key sub-steps involved are the establishment of explicit criteria for strategy design, the selection of flexible strategies, the assessment of their implications in costs and requirements, and their revision of the targets and strategies under consideration in the light of the assessment.

In step 8: 'Planning the Programme' the group decides design for efficient performance. The thinking of the group shifts here from 'what is to be developed' to 'how is it to be developed'.

In step 9: In the final step a 'Writing Programme Proposal' the products of earlier steps are re-examined, synthesized and documented in the form of a programme proposal.

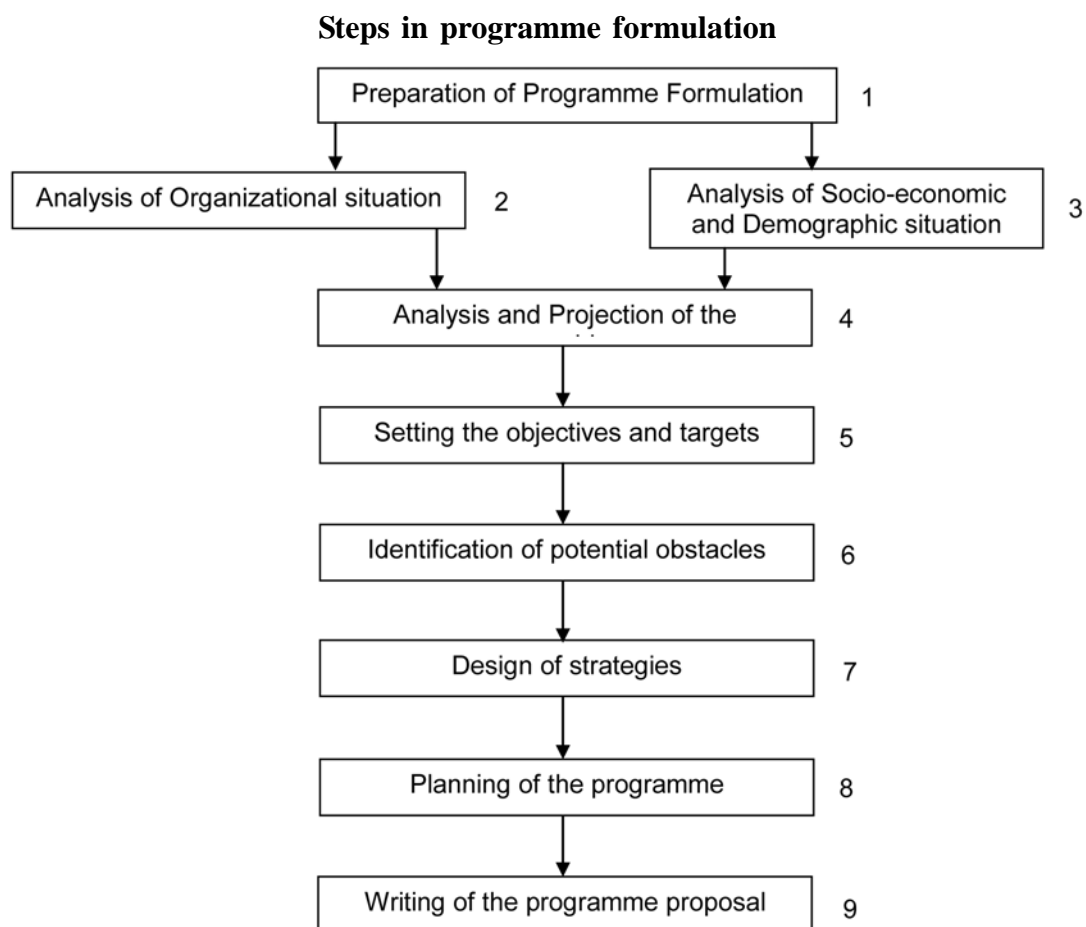


Figure 2.3

Programme Implementation: Proper implementation of the programme is vital and a great attention and energy are required to ensure this. This purpose of implementation is to ensure that the programme activities have been completed on schedule and within budget, and that there are favourable conditions to maintain the desired changes generated by the programme after the programme as such in terminated. The stages of implementation have been discussed below:

Initiating the programme : Obtaining approval for the programme proposal, preparing the interim budget.

Specifying and scheduling the work : Projecting the details of work and deciding what tasks are to be done by whom and when.

- Clarifying Authority, Responsibility and Relationships : Obtaining agreement as to who is responsible for ensuring that the work gets done, distributing decision-making authority among the group members and establishing formal lines of communication.
- Establishing the control system : Determining what information is necessary for programme control, identifying sources of such information and setting up reporting system for the programme.
- Directing and controlling : Motivating group members, executing programme activities, obtaining information for control and take corrective action as necessary.
- Terminating the programme : Preparing the final report, handing over responsibilities to the group members.

Programme Evaluation: All development programmes undertaken need to be evaluated for the results they have achieved or failed to achieve. Careful evaluation is the backbone of all programmes. On evaluating the services provided by a group, there are two dimensions of evaluation – process evaluation and outcome evaluation.

- I. Process Evaluation: Process evaluation is an assessment, generally by group members, as to the aspects of the group that were useful or detrimental. Feedback about techniques and incidents that blocked or enhanced process is of immense value to the group leader. With this information, the leader can hone certain skills, eliminate some materials and give direction for approaches and materials to add. Such feedback can aid confidence.

Process evaluation can be conducted orally by asking the group members to discuss the aspects, techniques, materials and incidents that were constructive and those that were counterproductive. An advantage of such an oral evaluation is that most members enjoy a verbal discussion.

Process evaluation can also be accomplished by a brief questionnaire. There key questions follow:

1. Summarize the strengths of this group.
2. Summarize the shortcomings of this group.
3. Briefly outline your specific suggestions for change.

Another way of evaluating process is by peer review, a form of quality control. Peer review is conducted by having one or more “peers” periodically sit in on a group. A peer review is a review of a small portion of the total functioning of the group.

- II. Outcome Evaluation: Outcome evaluation involves assessing the extent to which the goals have been accomplished that was formulated when the group began. Specific approaches to measure goal attainment are single-subject design, task achievement scaling and satisfaction questionnaire. Single-Subject Design: The first step in single-subject design is to specify the outcome of interest. The selected outcome should reflect the needs of the member and what is realistic to achieve. It also must be an outcome that can be defined specifically and measured.

The second step in the design process is to select a suitable measure. There are a variety of ways for measuring client outcomes, including direct observation, self-reports from the client and standardized measures. Standardized measures include tests, questionnaires, rating scales, inventories and checklists. A variety of standardized measures have been developed to measure variables such as self-esteem, level of assertiveness, level of depression, anxiety level, degree of marital satisfaction, burnout, amount of stress, potential for suicide and generalized contentment.

The third step is to record baseline data. Base lining involves collecting data for a period of time before implementing the intervention. The objective of base-lining is to establish the base rate of the outcome measure before intervention occurs. This base-lining rate can then be used to provide a basis of comparison for the occurrence of the target behaviour (behaviour to be changed) before, during and after intervention.

The fourth step is to implement intervention and monitor the outcomes.

The fifth step is to assess change. This step involves a comparison of the occurrence of the target behaviour before, during and after treatment.

The sixth step in the process is to infer effectiveness. This step involves demonstrating logically and empirically that the intervention is the only reasonable explanation for the observed change in client outcome.

Task Achievement Scaling: The objective of this approach is to gauge the degree to which group members and / or the leader have completed agreed upon intervention tasks. In this approach, the work toward the goals of the members and of the group is broken down into many separate actions or tasks. The tasks are selected by mutual agreement for the members, and each member is assigned or selects specific tasks to reach his or her goal and the overall goal of the group. Usually, a deadline is set for the completion of each task. Task Achievement Scaling refers to a procedure for rating the degree to which each agreed-upon task has, in fact, been achieved.

Satisfaction Questionnaire: Still another way to assess the outcome of a group is to have group members fill out a questionnaire that measures level of satisfaction.

Such a questionnaire is a relatively simple and inexpensive way to measure the members' satisfaction level with the group. The questionnaire can be filled out at the last meeting of the group or can be mailed to members sometime after the last meeting.

Exercise I: Your Process Evaluation of a Group.

Goal: This exercise is designed to familiarize you with process evaluation.

1. Describe a group that you participated in, which has now ended.
2. Summarize the following:
 - a. Strengths of this group.
 - b. Shortcomings of this group.
 - c. Suggestions for how this group could have been improved.

Exercise II: Applying Single-Subject Design to Alleviating one of your Bad Habits

Goal: This exercise is designed to assist you in understanding and applying Single-subject design.

1. Identify a bad habit that you have and that you want to reduce in frequency or eliminate entirely. It might be for example, drinking fewer alcoholic beverages or quitting smoking.
2. For alleviating this habit, specify the following:
 - a. Your outcome;
 - b. A suitable measure to determine progress;

- c. Your baseline date;
 - d. Implementing intervention and monitoring the outcome;
 - e. Assessing change;
 - f. Inferring effectiveness.
3. Being realistic, after completing this evaluation, do you have a commitment to alleviating your undesired habit?

Exercise III: Applying a Satisfaction Questionnaire to a group you participated in.

Goal: This exercise is designed to assist you in applying a satisfaction questionnaire.

- 4. Describe a group that you participated in that has now ended.
- 5. Answer the questions from the Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Group member satisfaction questionnaire:

Thank you for taking a few minutes to evaluate your experiences in our group. Your answer to this brief questionnaire will help us to improve future groups. Feel free to offer your comments. To assure anonymity, please do not sign your name.

- 1. Did you accomplish what you expected when you joined the group?
 - Yes, completely
 - Mostly
 - No real progress
 - Worse off now than before
 - Comments _____
- 2. Do you feel the group accomplished its goals?
 - Yes, completely
 - Mostly
 - No real progress
 - The group was an utter failure
 - Comments _____
- 3. How do you feel about the group leader?
 - Very satisfied
 - Satisfied

- No feelings one way or another
 - Dissatisfied
 - Comments _____
4. How do you feel about the other members in the group?
- Satisfied with everyone
 - Satisfied with some, and dissatisfied with other
 - No feelings one way or another
 - Dissatisfied with most of the other members
 - Dissatisfied with all of the other members
 - Very dissatisfied with all of the other members
 - Comments _____

Group Exercise:

Exercise A: Evaluating and Ending the Programme.

Goal: To bring closure a group.

Note: The group worker of the group should lead this exercise.

Step 1: The group worker begins by expressing a number of positive thoughts and feelings that she or he has about the group. The group worker may also mention a few memorable experiences.

Step 2: The group worker sits in a circle and the worker asks: “Is there anything that anyone wants to express before the programme ends? “Is there any unfinished work that we should deal with?”

Step 3: The worker leads a discussion in which the group reflects upon the programme through questions such as: “Do you believe this programme has helped prepare you to lead groups in social work?” “What else might have been done to better prepare you to lead groups?” “What exercises or materials have helped you grow as a person?” “What do you see as the shortcoming of this programme?” “How might this programme be improved?”

Step 4: The members express what they will most remember about this course and / or what they feel they have learned. Each member should be given an opportunity to express this.

Sept 5: Each member expresses nonverbally how she or he felt about being in this class at the first session and how she or he now feels about having been in the group.

Step 6: The worker asks each member to give an imaginary gift to the person on his or her right. Each person should take a turn so everyone can hear what the gifts are. When giving or receiving the gift the member extend their hands to symbolize the giving or receiving of the gift. Example of such gifts are the time-management key to ending procrastination, a warm sun for a smiling personally, a heart for happier relationships, positive and rational thinking for handling unwanted emotions, and the gift of meditation for reducing stress.

Step 7: The worker may end the programme / meeting, by administering a member programme evaluation, by saying some final words, or in some other appropriate way.

10.13 Importance of programme planning

The main advantages of programme planning are as follows:

1. Planning increases the efficiency of a group.
2. It reduces the risks involved in activities.
3. It facilitates proper coordination within the group.
4. It aids in organizing all available resources.
5. It gives right direction to the programme.
6. It is important to maintain good control.
7. It helps to achieve the objectives of the group.
8. It motivates the group member of a group.
9. It encourages workers' creativity and innovation.
10. It also helps in decision making.

Why programme planning is important?

Now let's understand why planning is important for the programme:

1. Increase efficiency: Programme planning makes optimum utilization of all available resources. It helps to reduce the wastage of valuable resources and

avoids their duplication. It aims to give the highest returns at the lowest possible cost. It thus increases the overall efficiency.

2. **Reduces program related risks:** There are many risks involved in any modern activities. Planning helps to forecast these programme-related risks. It also helps to take the necessary precautions to avoid these risks and prepare for future uncertainties in advance. Thus, it reduces programme-related risks.
3. **Facilitates proper coordination:** Often, the plans of all of the groups of an organisation are well coordinated with each other. Similarly, the short-term, medium-term and long-term plans of an group are also coordinated with other groups. Such proper coordination is possible only because of efficient planning.
4. **Aids in organizing:** Organizing means to bring together all available resources. Without planning organizing is not possible. It is so, since, planning tells us the number of resources required and when are they needed. It means that planning aids in organizing in an efficient way.
5. **Gives right direction:** Direction means to give proper information, accurate instructions and useful guidance to the group members. It is impossible without planning.
6. **Keeps good control:** With control, the actual performance of a group member is compared with the plans, and deviations (if any) are found out and corrected. It is impossible to achieve such control without the right planning (programme). Therefore, programme planning becomes necessary to keep and control.
7. **Helps to achieve objectives:** Every group has certain objectives or targets. It keeps working hard to fulfil these goals. Planning helps a group to achieve these aims, but with some ease and promptness. Planning also helps an organization to avoid doing some random (done by chance) activities.
8. **Motivates group members:** A good plan provides various financial and non-financial incentives to both worker and group members. These incentives motivate them to work hard and achieve the objectives of the group. Thus, planning through various incentives helps to motivate the group members of a group.

9. Encourages creativity and innovation: Planning helps to express the creativity and innovation of the group members. It brings satisfaction to the worker and eventually a success to the group.
10. Helps in decision-making: A worker makes many different plans. Then the worker selects or chooses the best of all available strategies. Making a selection or choosing something means to take a decision. So, decision-making is facilitated by planning.

Therefore, programme planning is necessary for effective and efficient functioning of every group irrespective of its size, type and objectives.

10.14 Conclusion

Planning can be defined as “thinking in advance what is to be done, when it is to be done, how it is to be done and by whom it should be done”. In simple words we can say, planning bridges the gap between where we are standing today and where we want to reach.

By “programme” we generally think of the activities to be performed by agency to satisfy its needs and interests. But modern concept of programme in social group work has come to mean everything that the group does to satisfy its interest. It includes the entire range of activities, relationships, interactions and experiences of individuals and group. The group’s programme is the framework within which group experiences occur. It is deliberately planned and carried out with the help of the worker to meet the needs of the individuals and the group. Programme is thus a process rather than periodic culmination of a process.

10.15 Exercise

1. What do you mean by programme? What are the importance’s of programme planning?
2. Elucidate the role of group worker in programme planning.
3. Write in brief the dimensions of programme planning process.
4. “Programme is not an end, its means to an end” explain briefly.
5. Explain briefly the principles of programme planning.

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Unit 11 □ Group Work in Different Settings

Structure

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- 11.7 Conclusion**
- 11.8 Exercise**
- 11.9 Reference**

11.0 Objectives

After reading the unit you should be able to :

- Know the role of group work in different institutional setting;
- To understand the uses of group work in educational settings;
- To know the role of groups in community settings.

11.1 Introduction

Group work is used in numerous institutions – hospitals, childwelfare institutions, alcoholic and drug rehabilitation agencies, old age agencies etc. Group work, if effectively used can alleviate the problems and reduce its psychosocial effects. Educational institutions offer diverse opportunities to practice group work. A variety of activities can be done with the group. Present day educators see to provide holistic education to the student, not just improve his memory and his retention powers. Group Work seen in this context is an apt method to bring about this transformation in the student.

11.2 Group work in Institutional Settings

11.2.1 Group Work with Families

A family is one category out of a number of categories of small groups. The focus of group work services is often the family, an interacting, interdependent system. The problems faced by people are usually influenced by the dynamics within the family and dynamics within the family are in turn, influenced by the wider social and cultural environment. Because a family is an interacting system, change in any member will affect all others. Tensions between a husband and wife, for example, will be felt by their children who may then respond with disturbed behaviour. Treating the children's behaviour alone will not get to the root of the family problem.

Another reason for the focus on the family rather than the individual is that other family members are often needed in the treatment process. They can help identify family patterns. In addition, the whole family, once members perceive the relationships among their various behaviours can form a powerful team in re-establishing healthier patterns. For example, family members can pressure their alcoholic mother to acknowledge her problem. They may provide important emotional support for her efforts to stop drinking. They may also need counselling themselves to assist in coping with them when she is drinking.

Family problems and the nature of social work:

An infinite number of problems occur in families. When problems arise in a family, social services are often needed. The types and forms of services that group workers provide to trouble families are extremely varied. We can group them into two major categories: in-home services and out-of-home services.

In-home services are preventive. Although not all are offered literally within the home itself, they are specifically designed to help families stay together. They include financial aid; protective services (services to safeguard children or frail older adults from abuse and neglect); family preservation services (intensive crises intervention within the home setting where children are so seriously at risk that removal to foster care would otherwise be required); family therapy (intensive counselling to improve family relationships); day care (Caretaking services for children or older adults to provide respite for caregivers who might otherwise be overwhelmed or to permit them to work outside the home); home-maker services; and family life education (classes, often offered at traditional family service agencies, that cover such topics as child development, parenting skills, communication issues etc.). Obviously, not all of these services can be provided by group workers, but workers must know where to find them and how to help the family obtain them when needed.

Out-of-home services, on the other hand, are those services that must be operationalized when the family can no longer remain intact. They are a manifestation that sometimes has gone seriously wrong, since the breakup of any family amounts to a tragedy that will have ramifications beyond family boundaries. While family members usually received the blame, the larger system (social environment and the level of support it provides to troubled families) may be called into question. Out-of-home services include foster care, adoption, group homes, institutional care (for example, residential treatment centres), and the judicial system (which provides a different kind of institutional care, prison or jail for family members who have run into difficulty with the law). To perform these services, group workers engage in a variety of roles (for example, broker, educator, advocate, supporter, and mediator).

Family Assessment:

The two areas in family social work practice that have received the most attention are family assessment and family therapy.

There are a variety of ways to assess to assess families conducting a social history of a family and its members is a widely need approach. With regard to family assessment, however, two techniques have received considerable discussion in record years: eco-maps and genograms.

The Eco-Map:

The eco-map is a paper-and-pencil assessment tool used to assess specific troubles and plan interventions for clients. The eco-maps, a drawing of the client family in its social environment, is usually drawn jointly by the worker and the client. It helps both parties achieve a holistic or ecological view of the client's family life and the nature of the family's relationships with groups, associations, organisations and other families and individuals. The eco-map has been used in a variety of situations including marriage and family counselling and adoption and foster-care home studies. It has also been used to supplement traditional social histories and case records. The eco-map is a shorthand method of recording basic special information. The technique helps clients and workers gain insight into the client's problems by providing a "snapshot view" of important interactions at a particular point in time. Ann Hartman is the primary developer of the tool.

The Genogram: The genogram is a graphic way of investigating the origin of a client's or client family's presenting problem by diagramming the family over at least three generations. The client and worker usually jointly construct the family genogram, which is essentially a family tree. Bowen is the primary developer of this technique. The genogram helps the worker and family members examine problematic emotional and behavioural patterns in an intergenerational context. Patterns tend to repeat themselves, what happens in one generation often occurs in the next. Genograms help family members identify and understand family relationship patterns.

Family Therapy:

One of the many social services provided to families is family therapy (also called family counselling). Strictly speaking, family therapy is a subset of the broader classification of group therapy that is aimed at helping families with whatever interactional, behavioural and emotional problems arise in the course of everyday living. Problems include marital conflicts, parent-child interactional problems and

conflicts with grand-parents or other relatives. A wide variety of problems are dealt within family therapy: domestic violence, communication problems, disagreements between family members on drug use and abuse, school performance, money management, sexual values and behaviour, performance of domestic tasks and methods of disciplining the children.

11.2.2 Group Work and Child Welfare

The social environment of children like the family, school, peer groups and neighbourhood environment, play a vital part in their overall development. The impact of these social units on children can be both positive and negative. Poor and broken families and deprived neighbourhoods are known for their inability to ensure adequate development inputs for children. The deprived neighbourhoods expose children to a number of stressful situations, which could be very harmful for them. Extreme poverty, broken families leading to poor parenting, family violence, alcoholism and tobacco use at early age leading to health problems, lack of education, and physical and sexual abuse are fairly common problems in such neighbourhoods. The lack of proper guidance and caring are indentified as causes of their coming in conflict with law such children constitute a sizeable number in developing countries including India. Even in affluent families children may need capacity building in many life skill area such as accepting diversity, excercising self control and handing conflicts. Group Work can be used for providing timely help to such children in India and other developing countries. Group Work objectives in child welfare agencies are (Varghese, n.d.):

1. Training them in alternate behaviour patterns. Many children are from dysfunctional families and lack appropriate role models in the family.
2. Training in survival skills-maintaining relationships, seeking assistance, keeping jobs etc (Varghese, n.d.).
3. Treatment for symptoms related to anxiety, depression, post traumatic stress disorder, substance abuse and poor interpersonal relations.
4. Training in personality development especially building self-confidence and self-esteem, public speaking and ability to face personal interviews.
5. Recreational activities in their free time-play groups etc (Varghese, n.d.).

11.2.3 Group Work in Residential Homes

Residential homes are another setting where group work can prove helpful in providing development inputs for children. The children coming in conflict with law or the children in need of care and protection are placed here for providing them development inputs to mainstream them into the society.

The purpose of doing group work in Residential homes are(Varghese, n.d.):

1. It seeks to facilitate adjustment in the homes.
2. It seeks to further diagnostic understanding.
3. It sought to contribute to the beginning of the treatment process.
4. It sought to meet normal growth needs.
5. It seeks to influence the institutional milieu.

Group work with children in Residential Homes(Varghese, n.d.) –

- To provide recreational activities
- To develop like skills to strengthen their capacities to manage life in an home.
- To provide help in dealing with personal problems.
- To provide informal education.
- To provide emotional support.

Group work with Street Children –

Various NGOs conduct a weekend camp to street children. Street children many of whom come to their open shelter – shelter for street children are without any compulsions or rules and regulations. Children are free to come and leave the shelter whenever they please. The shelter provides them facilitates to sleep, to take both and watch television.

The objectives of group work with street children are:

- To provide recreational activities
- To meet emotional needs of children
- To develop life skills to strengthen capacities to avoid exploitation and abuse
- To provide livelihood and shelter
- To provide informal education.

11.2.4 Group Work with parents of mentally challenged children

NGOs work with spastics children organizes support group for the parents of the children of mentally challenged. The parents of these children need treatment as much as the children do. Newly enrolled parents are encouraged to join existing groups. These groups are meant for sharing and learning session. Parents are often denial about the condition of their children. They cannot see why this should happen to them and their children. Parents are depressed and anxious about the future of the children. They do not know how to react when their children are unable perform the actions that other children are able to do. Answers to most of the problems are found in the group – shared knowledge and from the experiences of other parents. The group facilitates the process of universalization of experience and the installation of hope (Varghese, n.d.).

Exercise-I

- (1) What are the group work objectives in Child Welfare agencies?

11.2.5 Group Work and Geriatric Care

Elderly persons suffer from a number of mental and physical ailments. More importantly, their social situation and their somatic condition affect their physical condition. They need special care and attention. The major characteristics of elderly people are(Varghese, n.d.) –

1. Intense loneliness and social isolation, poverty, feeling of rejection, struggle to find meaning in life, dependency, feeling of uselessness, hopelessness and despair, fear of death and dying, grief over other people's death.
2. Short attention span(Varghese, n.d.)
3. Poor reality orientation
4. Need for support
5. Greater need for being listened to and understood.

Group work activities with elderly are being undertaken by many organisations working with them.

Support Group: Support groups for elderly persons are helpful in dealing with depression which is normal in old age. Loss of active life, and reduction in income,

power and physical health, induces a sense of loneliness and depression. Support groups help in overcoming these feelings and sharing in groups help, to reduce tension as well.

Recreational Groups: In day care centres of elderly people, recreation groups can be organized for recreational activities. These groups can act as a support groups.

Health Groups: These groups can be used to provide information and bring attitudinal changes relating to health among the elderly in India. The old age day care centres that are being run by NGOs in some cities are places where group for the elderly can be formed for the above objectives. Forming a group of elderly is comparatively easier, as they are keen to participate in any activity where they can spend some time in a meaningful way. The participation in group activity gives them a sense of purpose to use their energies creatively. They feel welcome and if the group environment is healthy and creative they can do a lot of things that will meet their own needs and are helpful to others in the community.

11.2.6 Group Work in Psychiatric Setting

Group Work is an important component in the treatment and care of mentally ill people. It is being increasingly used in mental health setting in India. The incidence of mental illness is high in India. A trend in the care of mentally ill which is influencing the practice of group work in de-institutionalization increasing numbers of mentally ill people were being taken care in the families and in their homes rather than being confined to the hospital(Varghese, n.d.).

The goals of group work in psychiatric settings are(Varghese, n.d.):

1. to socialize including forming satisfying social relations, establishing an awareness of others, learning and re-learning social skills.
2. to offer ego supports and develop ego strengths as well as broadening interest and scope of activities, building self confidence, self-esteem, self-worth, achieving tangible things, acceptance.
3. to test and see cause-and-effect relationship.
4. to increase responsibility, develop good judgements and self control and handle group living problems.
5. to influence one another in a positive way, develop better morale and challenge group hostility.

6. to adjust to a new mode of living and interrupt the deterioration process and counteract the regression of institutional living.
7. to promote insights, develop the proper perspective on problems and feelings, release tensions.
8. to accept one's illness and prepare for the use the individual and other therapies more positively.

Practice principles, which have been found useful in the process, are (Varghese, n.d.):

1. Group sessions with the mentally ill should be highly structured, meaning that the group worker should take control of sessions by planning the activity well.
2. Each group session should be a rewarding one in the sense that the members should derive some pleasure and enjoyment from it.
3. The group workers should also be careful that anxiety producing events and actions should be avoided and be prepared to deal with them.

11.2.7 Group Work in Hospitals

Hospitals are important settings for social work practice. Psychological factors and physical health are related. Adverse negative factors can worsen the health conditions of the patients.

Another important factor is the growing importance of multidisciplinary teams which will address the various dimensions of the illness and its effect of the patient. Team work, therefore is an important method of work in health care settings. Thirdly, group work is seen as humanizing the bureaucratic system and giving holistic care for the clients. Lastly, group work is effective in disseminating information to the clients.

Following groups are used in the hospitals(Varghese, n.d.):

1. Educational Groups: Educational groups disseminate information about the disease and its effects on the patients. They educate the person about the causes of diseases, its effects on the body, its pattern of progression and its debilitating effects.
2. Support Groups: These groups provide the necessary social and emotional support to the patient. Group work can enable the patients to have appropriate coping

mechanisms keeping in mind the individual's needs and her environment. It will result in better quality of life and better adherence to treatment programme

3. Training groups: Training groups focus on teaching new social skills to the patients which would help them after they are discharged from the hospitals.

Practice principles in health settings (Varghese, n.d.):

Firstly, Group work in health setting needs to understand that patients suffer from pain and fatigue due to illness and often due to their treatment. She should therefore encourage patients to attend the meetings but not use excessive pressure.

Secondly, the group workers should be flexible in her approach to group. The treatment cycle may vary with person to person and therefore the time period of attending the group sessions cannot be specified.

Thirdly, individualization of client's is another important aspect, as clients characteristics will differ in terms of stages of disease, social support available in family, community and work place and the psychological condition. Fear of death, fear of disease recurrence, problems related to treatment (pain, changes in appearance, fatigue), changes in relationship and economic issues (income, future job prospects, costs of treatment) are important concerns that group workers must address.

Exercise-II

(1) What are the goals of group work in psychiatric settings?

11.2.8 Social Group Work in Correctional Settings

Today Group workers are playing prominent role in the field of correctionalist services as it is emphasised by all correction list that punitive philosophy should be replaced by reformative philosophy, because goodness is said to be the condition of mind as health is the condition of the body and neither the defects of character nor body can be cured by punishment.

Crime today is considered as a product of certain forces within the individual and ungenial environmental factors. So to protect the society from crime, criminals must be treated and rehabilitated. Thus correction is the total process of helping persons who have violated the law to be rehabilitated.

Correction in one sense plays a very important role in the administration of criminal justice. It is one of the four social processes utilized in the administration of criminal justice. They include -

1. Law enforcement, which is concerned with the collection of evidence about reported offences and with the detection and arrest of suspected offenders.
2. Prosecution and defence or the preparation and presentation of criminal cases before the court.
3. Judicial process, which is concerned with the legal determination of guilt and the assignment of penalties.
4. Correction, which is responsible for administering the assigned penalties. The Group workers plays a very important role in this total process and the tasks in corrections includes four (4) in particular :
 - (a) Investigation for the purpose of securing information about the client's failure or successes in meeting the obligations of his/her legal status.
 - (b) The use of controls to modify client's behaviour.
 - (c) Acting as a legal authority in the client's life with responsibility for value change.
 - (d) Correct decision making in life: These are all important in working with persons in trouble and in particulars in attempting to help them adjust better to society.

Functions of group workers:

1. Helping to strengthen motivations: The group worker through talking sympathetically and understandingly, can usually make a person to know that someone is interested and will accept him as his is, is a tremendous motivating factor.
2. Allowing for ventilation of feelings is a second service of the group worker. Most youths and adults who come to a probation officer need to share with someone in confidence. Their inner feelings, their fears and frustrations, as well as their hopes and aspirations.
3. The giving of information is another important function of the group worker in the field of corrections. Many youths and adults need help in understanding who they are, where they are going and where they should go. Many times they do not comprehend the society to which they belong and the social workers can help them to develop and understanding and to acquire insights into their proper roles.

4. Social workers help offenders to make decisions. They do not make the decision for them but help to consider rationally their problems and the alternatives that help them.
5. The group worker helps the client in modification of the environment with knowledge of community resources. The group worker will be able to help persons and families to tap various financial and social resources to meet their individual needs.
6. Another major function is in facilitating referral services, often it is difficult for a person to take personal problems to another and he needs support in doing so. Referral may be made to a psychiatrist or any other resource person who may help to a particular situation. The group worker's comprehensive knowledge of community resources is used and makes advantage in making referrals.

11.3 Group Work in Educational Settings

Schools and colleges provide significant inputs in developing human capital in the society. The level at which a child drops out from the school will determine whether she or he will work with his or her hands or mind, and what social roles and status she or he will be accorded. Many a time neither parents nor the teachers are aware of the fact that child is facing stresses in school. Even if they do, they are not proficient in dealing with the problem. The sources of stresses may vary from scholastic difficulties to the problem of maintaining relationship. The organisational dynamics of schools also makes and impact on the social and academic adjustment of children. School policies such as rules for conduct and manner of the rule enforcement, number of teachers, their training and educational status, etc., all of these can be potential sources of stresses. Presence of parents and teachers for achieving high standard of academic performance and social behaviour, are the most common sources of stresses. The stresses, faced by children if left unattended may lead to mental health problems and drop out. Guidance and support is an effective idea medium to provide both. Ensuring educational inputs to children outside the formal school setting also poses a serious challenge in all developing society. The group work offers a useful opportunity in addressing many of these issues.

The types of group that can be used in the schools are –

- 1) Educational Groups: In educational groups the main focus of the group activities is to pursue some educational objectives. Educational groups will enable the students in learning about subjects that are not part of the curriculum. The areas of education can be life skill education, HIV/AIDS, public speaking etc. Value education can be taught through stories and parables. Songs that motivate the members can be sung. Competitions like essay writing, handwriting and spelling can be organised.
- 2) Recreational Groups: Recreational groups are fairly common where the idea is to engage children in their leisure time to organize outdoor games. Though the major objective is providing recreational activities but the worker helps the group to evolve norms for decision-making, developing a sense of fair play, respecting minority opinions and inculcating an understanding of diversity. Group experiences if carefully chosen will help growth in their personality.
- 3) Personality Developed Groups: Personality development groups seek to develop self-confidence and self-esteem. Skills to face interviews, public speaking and grooming habits can be improved in groups.
- 4) Support Groups: A major focus in support groups, is to provide a forum where these children can come together, either alone or with relevant experts, to discuss the common problems being faced by them and look for ways to cope with these in more personally satisfying and socially acceptable ways. Working with girls facing violence or abuse through support group has been found to be quite effective.

There are another five kinds of groups can be formed in the schools such as –

1. Cluster Groups: These groups were used when one or two isolate or scapegoat were referred to the group worker. The group sessions are so designed that the dysfunctional students' needs are addressed his / her problem is described, the student's view point is brought to the open and perceptions of the other members are discussed. Support from the other members for the dysfunctional student is encouraged. The interaction between the members and the dysfunctional student is expected to bring about change in the behaviour of the student.

2. **Classroom Groups:** Classroom groups are used when it is found that it is not individuals or group of students that are dysfunctional but the entire class is dysfunctional. Therefore the whole class should be taken as a group and needs to be treated. The causes for these problems can be uneasiness with teachers, over scapegoating, over identification with the students who are victimized, conflicts between groups within class and inability to perform as per expectations. The cause of the problem may lie in a few students or the whole class. The group worker uses the whole class as group and address the problem by using group discussions and role plays.
3. **Splinter Groups:** These groups consist of problematic children who cannot be separated and treated. In this group the dysfunctional members are identified and his identity revealed. He chooses from the class a smaller group consisting of a few members. The group worker then describes the problem to the group and its effect on the affected student. Certain activities are chosen which will attract the larger student body to the smaller group and interact with it. If successful the smaller group status improves and so does the status of the dysfunctional student.
4. **Telescopic Groups:** Telescopic groups are groups which meet five or six times in a short period of time. A current problem is taken up as a major issue. For example absenteeism and group formed by members who are found to be excessively absent. The members are made aware of the reason for being part of the group. A plan is made for a group which includes activities which are gratifying and ego supportive.
5. **Socio educational groups:** These groups involve the other stakeholders like the parents and staff members to improve the school functioning. For example – suitable parents are depending on their need, aptitude and interest are taken as members of the group. They are informed that the purpose of the groups is to improve their performance as the parents. Sessions are planned which will provide them with new skills and knowledge. Films, lectures, role plays and members presentations are the best means.

Principles to be followed while working with children in the school –

1. Confidentiality is very important as children are not often able to keep personal information to themselves.

2. Avoid using sides. Students may blame teacher or parent for some of the difficulties they face. It is important that the group worker describes the problems rather than point fingers at others.
3. Explain the purpose of the group and its goal to the members.
4. Listen to the opinion of the members even though group worker may disagree with it.
5. Choose those activities and games which will be useful and enjoyable for the members.
6. Prepare for termination as students may become attached with the worker.
7. Homogeneity in terms of age, sex and class is a prerequisite for successful group work in children.

11.4 Group Work with Youths

The group work offers a lot of possibilities for working with young persons in the age group of 15 to 25 years of age group. This is very formative age when individuals experience changes physically, psychologically and socially. The group work with young persons in rural areas and urban slums offer a very challenging task to social workers.

The broad objectives of working with youth can be described as:

- The personal development,
- Providing support and guidance;
- Developing educational and vocational skills;
- Community and social action; and
- Problem solving.

The possible places where social workers can locate the group work interventions will depend on the kind of client group they want to work with. A large numbers of urban young persons are located in schools and colleges. The worker can easily contact them through the college authorities. The workers can design the intervention giving details of objectives, programme activities, expected outcomes, evaluation process, time frame and cost, and make a presentation for the students and

the college authorities. A two week camp for youngsters can be very helpful in starting a process of rediscovering the self and designing better strategies for meeting career goals, modifying self images, developing life skills, sensitizing youngsters about HIV/AIDS, drug abuse or violence and any other need area.

There are a large number of out of school young persons in India. These young person's can be located in the deprived communities and in rural areas. They can be contacted by informal visits to the communities and through the non-governmental organisations working in these communities, or by spreading information through posters, organizing sports and cultural activities and addressing community groups informally.

A large number of young persons are placed in reform institutions for varying durations. Group work with these persons can help in achieving the desired objectives of mainstreaming them in society. Developing better skills and attitude, meeting recreation needs, fighting depression and aggression are some of the objectives that can be the focus of group work in the setting.

Most groups aimed at personal development of youth, use recreational activities as programme inputs. The idea is to engage youth during their leisure time, to organize all kinds of recreational programmes. Sports and physical activity programmes can have a positive impact on young people's behaviour, and may provide an important vehicle for their personal development. Through the major group objective is projected as providing recreational activities but the group work objective is taken as growth and development of individual members. The worker helps the group to evolve norms for decision-making, encouraging wider participation of members in decision-making, developing a sense of fair play and respecting minority opinions. The activity based counselling model can be effectively used to focus upon the values and behavioural outcomes for modifying these.

Theatre including skits, street plays, group songs, poster making are some of the other activities with a lot of potential for improving communication, helping young persons to unburden themselves and learn to act as a team.

1. Educational Groups: In educational groups the main focus of the group activities is to pursue some educational objectives. Informal education through groups, helping young persons who are slow learners, out of school youth

being helped to continue their education or skills training, are some popular uses of groups for educational purposes. Helping young persons to acquire vocational skills to become self-employed through the process of group formation is a popular activity.

2. **Support Groups:** Support groups for young persons are generally formed to discuss problems being faced by them and to look for solutions. Young persons having drug-related problems, adolescents having emotional problems, unemployed young persons, all can be helped through support group activities. The major focus of support groups is to provide a forum where persons with similar problems can come together, either as a self-help group or with relevant experts, to discuss the common problems being faced by them and to look for ways to cope with these in a more personally satisfying and socially acceptable way.
3. **Remedial Groups:** Remedial groups are meant to use group interaction and programme activities to modify behavioural responses of members. School social workers, probation officers and social workers working in observation homes and other organisations dealing with young persons coming in conflict with law, are places where remedial group activities are commonly found.

11.5 Group Work with Women

Women have been making use of groups since a very long time for a variety of reasons in India. It is common to see groups of women coming together both in rural and urban neighbourhoods to use their leisure time in sharing information about life in general. These groups have acted as forum for recreation, social education regarding ceremonies and rituals to be observed on different occasions for example birth, marriages or deaths and religious festivals, for health education including sex education and so on. The groups have also performed therapeutic functions by acting as support systems to women, who unburden themselves by sharing their problems of all kinds in such groups. These groups have also at times acted as mechanisms of social control as they had power to impose sanctions if people deviated from social norms. The groups acted as sources of spreading information or disinformation in the larger community as well, at times unleashing wider social action unwillingly.

In rural areas in particular women found security in numbers as they had to face extremely difficult circumstances with no other mechanism available to provide them security. It is common knowledge that many women have to travel long distances in search of water, fodder, fuel or even toilet facilities, not available at home. They instinctively resort to go for meeting these needs in groups as they find security in numbers. It is commonly known that, women in India have very low self-esteem and as such lack self-confidence for facing any stressful situation alone. Not many women are comfortable in discussing their problems even with other women individually. They respond better as a group. Talking to an unknown person of the other sex is still a very stressful situation for many young women. As a part of the socialisation process itself women learn to rely on groups rather than facing a situation individually. The Indian cultural values, cutting across religions, caste and class boundaries, are unanimous in keeping women more group oriented. A woman's psyche is specifically constructed to regard herself as secondary in comparison to the family's needs and in particular protecting its honour. Women are trained to be others oriented in all aspects of their lives, a trait which makes the group norms more important for them. A woman is therefore far more suited to becoming a stable member of group than a male. However, her commitment to her family is far more important for her and her participation in other groups is considered secondary and at times forbidden if it conflicts with her family interests.

Besides these, the general group work objectives in working with women are:

Educational: Providing education to women on different aspects concerning their life beginning from literacy skills to legal, social and political issues through the use of group work activities is emerging as a major area of work in many organisations. Women of all ages and of all kinds belonging to both rural and urban areas and different socio-economic groups, castes and religions are participating in such groups. However, the main focus is deprived groups, both in rural or urban areas. The main objectives are providing information and awareness leading to better handling of their present day situations at work and at home. These groups may or may not consider advocating or mobilizing women for social change. Education and awareness building is the major goal irrespective of what it is delivers.

Support: Support groups are meant to develop a network of women facing domestic violence and abuse both at home and at work place or any other emotional problem, with the expressed purpose of empowering these women to comfort the

situation rather than remaining silent. Such groups, besides providing a forum for women to share their experiences and receive emotional support, have also been active in advocacy and social action. Support groups of women sex workers and women suffering from HIV/AIDS, are also being formed to help such women.

Livelihood: One of the most common objectives of forming groups of women is to provide them economic help. A number of self-help groups are being organized for helping them to learn to save and to create a fund as a source for getting financial help from a more friendly and non-exploitative source for their day to day need. Women are also being helped to acquire economic skills of different kinds to augment their incomes by starting, either individually or collectively, small business enterprises. The group is used as a mechanism to link them with financial institutions and government agencies in order to encourage them to participate in developmental activities. It is expected to enhance their access to resources and to develop cooperative attitudes in their struggle against poverty and exploitation.

Legal Aid: Some organisations are using groups to work with women to provide them legal aid concerning marital problems, inheritance matters, sexual harassment and any other aspect concerning their life. The nature of such group interventions may involve group counselling and acting as support network during legal battles to secure justice for members, besides undertaking educational and information sharing activities.

Health Groups: Use of groups for providing health related information to expecting mother, mothers with newly born babies or women suffering from various ailments including HIV/AIDS, is also being used by a variety of professionals in India. Besides providing information, the groups are also being used for including behavioural changes or attitudinal changes among women.

11.6 Group Work in Community Settings

3.6.1 Social Action Groups

Group work is very useful in the community. Any number of natural groups is found in the community. Most of them are spontaneous efforts by the people themselves to control their lives by helping others and getting help from others.

Community based groups are based on neighbourhood, caste and extended kinship ties. One important type of group that is increasingly being important are the social action groups.

We know group work groups are divided into two types – (1) Treatment group that consists of personality development groups, educational groups, recreational groups, support groups and therapeutic group. (2) Task groups includes committees and councils social action groups belong to category of task groups. It usually consists of a small number of members who may belong to the community or are outsiders to the community or both. They take up an issue that they identify as having an adverse effect on the well being of the members of the community. They identify the causative factors that lead to the problem. Institutions, practices and values that cause the problems are identified. The agent can be the government itself or a government department, police, industries, social groups, organisations whose actions or inactions has lead to the problem. The action group believes that the problem can be alleviated if people unite and challenge the powerful and force them to act in public interests.

Some of the areas, where action groups have contributed, are as follows:

1. Protection of human rights issues including protection of the under trials; police atrocities including custodial deaths of the arrested; encounter deaths, etc. The People's Union for Civil Liberties and Human Rights Law network is just two examples of action groups.
2. Rights of people are displaced due to Development Project. Examples – the Narmada BachaoAndolan and Protest Movement against Tehri Dam in Uttarakhand.
3. Women rights issues like domestic violence, dowry, and sexual harassment. Many of legislation have been passed and existing law modified due to the pressure from action groups.
4. Tribal issues like land alienation, displacement and exploitation.
5. Environment issues like pollution of rivers, lowering of water label because of over exploitation by corporate, damage to monuments have been taken up by the action groups.
6. Protest against forcible land acquisition.

7. Protection of the rights of informal labour like domestic workers, brick kilns, glass-manufacturing units.
8. Child labour.
9. Animal rights.
10. Rights of people living in slums.

Steps for social action group: According to Carr (2008) the following steps can be implemented to create and sustain a social action group:

1. Engaging: The process in which the group worker engages the target group – a community (a village where the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme is not implemented properly). The engagement phase will include familiarizing herself with the various dimensions of the problem. Another step in the process is build rapport with the existing leadership in the community and knowing their limitation and strengths. Initial reflections – the group worker must understand the situation and identify the principles that will guide her action and her relationship with the target group.

Assessing system barriers – the group assess the various barriers that stand in between the target group and its objectives.

Finding allies and making contacts – Networking with like-minded groups, developing contacts with the media and academic world and obtaining the support of other communities are important function of the group leader. In India, personal contacts with the police, bureaucracy and professionals (Lawyers, doctors) are also very useful.

These allies and contacts can be useful in many ways - increasing the knowledge base, for providing professional guidance, recruiting new members, contributing resources, arranging publicity and giving encouragement.

2. Initiating the Group: Identifying members are seeking ways to motivate them to join the group, finding resources and venue meetings and the important tasks that have to be done. The group worker must be able to withstand the problems of forming the group before she moves ahead.

Recruiting participants: Individuals may initially agree and then refuse or refuse many times before agreeing to join.

Finding a venue and obtaining needed materials: An accessible place for meeting and materials needed have to be organised. It is better if available resources are used.

Building trust: Any group has to have a certain level of trust and goodwill among its members. The level of trust can be increased if opportunities and a climate exist in the group to express one's opinions and views.

Establishing collegiality: Perfect equality may not be possible in the group as the group worker often is a person with more knowledge and skills. However he should take care that he works with the group rather than for the group. His example will help set norms for the group regarding the rules of participating and engaging.

3. Facilitating the Group:

Establishing ground rules: Rules and regulations agreed upon by every members help in maintaining the group. Group discussions and interaction, decision making and other process of the group should be subject to rules.

Facilitating consciousness raising: The discussions that take in the group has to raise the level of consciousness in the group member. The process of raising consciousness will include challenging and removing many of the existing perceptions of the members on their situation.

Supporting action: Action requires the utilization of all available resources – personal and community based. The support network built by the group including personal contacts and community members, concerned students, activists is used. Action should identify the target – the institution or person against whom the action is taken. This target should be carefully chosen as the success of the action depends on the how much change is achieved in the institution.

Encourage praxis: A certain amount of learning takes place in every action even if it fails in achieving its objectives. The learning can be about the group itself, or the community as a whole or about the power structures. These learning can be analysed by getting the members to talk about it. The sharing of the views will increase the level of consciousness. Based on these learning, future action is planned and taken and process goes on.

4. Transferring power: The ultimate aim of the empowering process is to make the members independent. After a period the group worker should transfer his skills and information to the group members. Some of the methods used to build the

capacity of the members are training; handholding (members perform under close supervision) and delegation of authority.

5. Wrapping up: The group worker must be able to leave the group at the right time. The group members should be prepared for this. Leadership should be created and trained and resources identified for future use.

11.6.2 Group work with Disaster Victims

Disasters are sudden events that cause large-scale damage to human being and their property. The victims of a disaster are not only those who die and are injured but also those who survive. Both the category of survivors, injured and the unharmed need psychological support. Another important category of people who are in need of support is the care givers. Caregivers are those who give the survivors emotion and social support.

Victims of the disaster care classified into six categories by Taylor and Frazer –

1. The primary victims are those who are directly affected by the disaster,
2. Secondary victim includes the friends and relatives of the primary victims,
3. The tertiary victims are those involved in the rescue and recovery,
4. The fourth category are those in the community that are involved in the disaster work,
5. The fifth categories are those who have not experienced by the disaster but experience grief and pain.
6. The sixth categories of victims are those who could have been victims, but by chance escaped.

The cares that the victims need are the following:

1. Shelter temporary and later on permanent if house destroyed.
2. Food and medicines.
3. Medical facility if injured.
4. Livelihood.
5. Legal aid filling for compensation.
6. Compensation.
7. Psycho social care and
8. Self-help leading to self reliance.

The social worker is involved in every action. But the most important aspect of his work is psycho-social care. The aim of psycho-social care is to treat the victims who have undergone a traumatic experience.

All the activities can be effective if it is done in group. The advantages of group-based treatment of victims are as follows:

1. Sharing the victim's painful experiences in a group where other victims are present. Universalization of experiences and identification with every other problem take place in the group sessions. Knowing that others also have gone through the experiences and knowing how they are coping with the situation is helpful for the victims.
2. Recreational and relaxation activities are more enjoyable if they are done in groups.
3. Engaging in productive work (for example – gardening, basket making, building houses) in team motivates the members to engage in these activities on regular basis.
4. Efforts like starting SHGs for women can be stood for rehabilitation of the victims.

A large number of victims can be treated using group work. Secondly, special groups for the vulnerable groups for women and children can take care of their special needs as these sections are more vulnerable than others and need special care. Thirdly, these groups survive even after the social workers and the administrator go and is a source for support for disaster victims after a long time.

11.6.3 Group Work With the Substance Abusers

Group work among the substance abusers can be done in institution as well as in the community. Usually the group members meet in a common place – religions places, school or community centres. There are a number of approaches available to solve the problem of substance abuse alcohol.

According to Fisher (in Gravin 2004), group work is an appropriate method to deal with the problem of addiction –

1. Group reduce the sense of isolation often experienced by persons with the substance use disorders, who may experience a sense of relief to discover that other people are struggling with similar problems.

2. Groups can in still hope in the persons that they can recover when they observe other deal successfully with similar problems.
3. Groups provide opportunity for the members to learn to cope with problems of substance abuse when they observe others coping with similar problems.
4. Groups can give new information to the members given by the group worker, guest lecturer, instructors and other members.
5. Positive feedback about their worth, skills and abilities from other members will improve their self concept (self worth and self image).
6. Groups provide reparative (alternate) family experiences as the group members give the support and assurance that they sometimes do not receive from their own families. They may try out new behaviours which can be used in their own families.
7. Groups provide emotional support to the members when they experience stressful and difficult situations outside the group. Encouragement, reinforcement and coaching can happen in the group.
8. Groups help the members acquire social skills that are needed to cope with anxiety situations instead of depending on substances for dealing with difficult situations in life.
9. Group members can confront each other in very powerful ways regarding the substance abuse. Confrontation in substance abuse is important as most of the abusers are in the state of denial. Confrontation by other who had similar problems is particularly powerful.
10. Groups are cost effective as many members can be treated simultaneously.
11. The benefits of group work may exceed beyond the group and benefit others who are in some way related to the members – family members, employers.

11.6.4 Group Work with Self-Help Groups

Concept: Self-help groups (SHGs) have become the most popular form of group work that is being used by both governmental and non-governmental organisations in India to accomplish a variety of development goals in recent times. However, the idea of self-help was an inherent part of group work practice right from the very beginning. As Kanopka (1963) noted , “whereas philanthropy was generally of

middle class origin, mutual self-help, as the name implies, developed from the need for mutual aid and support”. Similarly, as Mayadas et al. (2004), noted, settlement movement which lead to the birth of group work – was a social (collective) response to difficult social conditions, and relied on group (mutual help) to solve problems. The beginning of collective bargaining to improve wages, as an effort to preserve cultural traditions, to promote adult education and to provide growth opportunities to their children through camping, were all initial attempts at using groups to tackle common problems through mutual help. The groups that emerged later on to acquire an international presence, such as Alcoholics Anonymous, were also based on the idea of self-help. The assumptions in these kinds of group were to bring together people facing similar problems, to provide support to each other, along with generating ideas to manage the problems. The experience sharing and the mutual support over seen as major helping factors in these groups.

As a document promoting a self-help group claimed, the objective of the group is to provide knowledge about how to receive help, give help and help yourself. Underlying self-help is the basic theme: “you are not alone”. Benefits to members are seen as:

- They feel less isolated knowing others share similar problems;
- Exchange ideas and discuss effective ways to cope with problems;
- Actively work on their attitudes and behaviour to make positive changes in their lives; and
- Gain a new sense of control over their lives.

The knowledge base of self-help mutual support groups is experiential, indigenous, and rooted in the wisdom that comes from struggling with problems in concrete shared ways. Self-help groups build on the strengths of their members.

Uses of Self-Help Groups: The use of self-help groups in India has been more popular to help women and to a lesser extent small farmers or agricultural workers and other deprived populations. The objectives of these self-help groups have been to meet economics needs of the members. In case of some women’s groups objectives such as awareness generation to improve self-help concept, knowledge of laws and sources from where help can be obtained, are some additional ones. Some women’s groups provide protection to their members and also other women in the community against domestic violence.

The other notable feature in India has been of conceiving all types of social work interventions in a social welfare perspective, focusing on deprived populations only. Other segments of the populations like the economically well off but facing problems of social functioning, have generally been neglected as a target population needing professional help by social workers. This segment often experience stress, are unsure of their relationships, lack social skills and as such need a variety of services. Group work with working mother facing role overload, sexual harassment, and depression, and children needing help in becoming focused in their studies or facing relationship problems at home or at school, has not been tried in India. Abuse of alcohol and drugs is affecting a sizable section of an upwardly growing population. Children from well-off families are showing symptoms of Attention Deficit Hyper Activity Disorder, resulting in problems at home and at school. Forming self-help groups of many such clients is a distinct possibility. Lesser et al. (2004) give the example of a group of professional middle aged women who have supported members in balancing career and family roles through transition and stressors in their work and family life.

The main objectives for forming self-help groups can therefore be summarized as follows:

- For meeting economic needs of the deprived populations.
- For providing psycho-social support to members.
- For dealing with community related problems.

Planning Self-Help Groups: Once the worker or the leader initiating the group decides the general purpose for the formation of the group, the planning for formation of a self-help group shall begin. Meeting the economic needs of the poor is a major priority area. We shall therefore begin with such groups. The general nature of such groups in India is to help them develop a fund through savings and then provide loans to their members. Some groups help their members to start an income generating activity as well. The purpose is to enable groups to help the members to become self-sufficient in managing their economic needs, without relying on any exploitative sources such as money lenders. Many government programmes are providing economic inputs by way of subsidies, land and technical inputs to help these groups to take up small business activities.

Despite the fact that the economic condition of the target population is well known, the other characteristics of the population such as education, economic skills,

family size and household responsibilities, time schedule of daily routine, self-perceptions, cultural practices etc., should be carefully studied. Initial pre group discussions with family's rather than individuals should be held using participatory methods to assess their mental preparation for the new experience.

The worker should work out the details of capacity building programme for the members such as:

- Organizing literacy programmes,
- Sensitizing males about women's role and status in the society,
- Skill development
- Leadership development.

The preliminary details of the group functioning such as rules for the joining the group, the size of the group, expected roles and responsibilities of members, and likely benefits, can also be discussed at the pre group discussion stage. The worker will have to work out these details in advance in conjunction with the group members.

Many schemes providing assistance to self-help groups provide details of the requirements that the groups should comply with [see for example the guidelines provided by the SwarnjayantiGraminSwarozgarYojana Guidelines (Government of India, 1999)]. The guidelines suggest that:

1. A self-help group may consist of 10 to 20 persons. In the case of minor irrigation, and in the case of disabled persons, this number may be a minimum of five (5).
2. All members of the group should belong to families living below the poverty line. The group shall not consist of more than one member from the same family. A person should not be a member of more than one group.
3. The group should devise a code of conduct (Group Management Norms) to bind itself. This should be in the form of regular meetings (weekly or fortnightly), functioning in a democratic manner, allowing free exchange of views, and participation of the members in the decision-making process.
4. The group should be able to draw up an agenda for each meeting and take up discussions as per the agenda.

5. The members should build their corpus fund through regular saving. The members themselves should decide the quantum of savings. The group should be able to collect the minimum voluntary savings. The group should be able to collect the minimum voluntary saving amount from all the members regularly. The savings to collect will be the group corpus fund.
6. The group corpus fund should be used to advance loans to the members. The group should develop financial management norms covering the loans sanction procedure, repayment schedule and interest rates.
7. The members in the group meetings should take all the loaning decisions through a participatory decision-making process.
8. The group should be able to scrutinize the loan applications, fix repayment schedules, fix appropriate rate of interest for loans advanced and closely monitor the repayment of the loan instalment from the members getting loan.
9. The group should operate a group account, so as to deposit the balance amounts left with the groups after disbursing loan to its members.
10. The group should maintain simple basic records such as Minutes Book, Attendance Register, Loan Ledger, General Ledger, Cashbook, Bank Passbook and individual Passbooks.

The National Bank of Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) has developed a project of linking SHGs with the banks for their credit needs. The check list prepared by the organisation to assess the loan worthiness of the SHG, provides a good guideline for the worker to ensure certain standards of SHGs formed for the purpose of meeting economic needs.

- SHGs with 12 – 16 very good factors can get loan from the bank immediately.
- SHGs with 10 – 12 very good factors need 3 – 6 month to improve before being considered for loan.
- SHGs with rating of less than 10 very good factors will not be considered for loan.

The banks can sanction a loan of upto four times the saving amount of the group. The loan is sanctioned to the group. The SHG can take a loan from the bank for any purpose such as emergency needs, illness in the family, marriage or purchasing assets for income generating etc.

The worker can prepare a set of model rules for the group to discuss and finalize. Model rules for a self-help group are:

- Members will agree to abide by the rules.
- Only one member from a family will be enrolled as a member.
- The group will have a total of XX members.
- New members may be admitted if there is a vacancy.
- Members will elect a president to preside over the meeting for a year.
- Members will contribute a monthly amount as decided by the group.
- The amount collected will be kept in a bank.
- Member who fails to pay the consecutive installments will lose his / her membership.
- Member will maintain his / her contribution book regularly.
- Members will attend meetings of the group regularly.
- Member will return the loan in 10 equal instalments.
- Member will pay an interest rate of two percent (2%) on the loan.
- Group will decide the action to be taken against a member who fails to return the loan.

The worker can invite relevant experts from financial, training or other institutions to address from group meetings for the purpose of providing clarity to potential members about the functioning of the groups.

Self-help Groups for Providing Psycho-Social Support to Members: Self-help groups for providing psycho-social support to persons facing such problems are not very common in India currently, but can be a useful strategy to provide help. The strategy is very cost effective and can be easily used. Forming a self-help group, for example, for women facing domestic violence can be easily started in a community. Any woman in the community can take the initiative to start such a group. Alternatively, an organisation can initiate the process to raise awareness about the issue of domestic violence. The idea of starting a self-help group can be introduced in these meetings:

Pre-group meetings: In these meetings is called pre-group meetings, the concept of self-help group is explained to the women. The worker should explain the purpose

of the group in some detail. Give concrete examples for what the group can do. The worker should encourage the women to discuss whatever doubts they may have and assure them that the decision to do whatever they want is entirely up to them. A beginning can be made by simply finding a place to meet and deciding a convenient time for holding the meetings. The issue of how frequently the group may meet should be left flexible. Even if in the beginning only a few women decide to join, this should not discourage the worker. The same pattern ne be followed for women facing other problems, particularly in a poor community.

Parents having children disabilities or having problems in school, can be contacted through institutions and hospitals and introduced to the idea of self-help groups. Similarly wives of prisoners can also be helped to form self-help groups, getting the information from the prison authorities.

Once the groups get started, the worker will have to facilitate the members in conducting their meetings. The worker can give them some general guidelines such as:

- The number of members should not generally exceed ten (10).
- Give each member an opportunity to speak.
- Do not criticise a member in a negative manner.
- Do not interrupt while a person is speaking.
- Give your full attention to the person while she/ he is speaking.
- Learn to trust each other.
- Share the strategies that helped the member in coping with the problem.
- Try to be precise in narration.
- Avoid talking all the time.
- Think about how each member can be of help to the group.

Identifying some members who can take over the leadership role and undertaking a programme of training them to conduct group meetings will help in sustaining the groups. The groups can also be provided with some helpline numbers to contact in case they run into any problems or if they have any issues, which they are wish to discuss with the worker.

Self-Help Groups for Meeting Community Needs:

Self-help groups can manage many social issues. When properly formed and linked to one another, they are able to provide a broad range of social benefits to members and even to entire villages. With limited external inputs, groups take on community-wide social problems such as dowry and alcohol abuse. Further, they can also attract resources to build roads, bring in electricity and supply credit from government and private institutions. These groups make ideal platforms for launching an emergency prevention programme. Women are confident, organised and have funds saved to invest in protective measures for the households.

Starting a self-help group for tackling community problems alone will pose for more difficulties in India. A self-help group to deal with community problems is difficult to stabilize unless persons in the community are really committed, which is rarely the case. People in the community are generally struggling with very difficult life situations and find it difficult to spare time and resources. It is therefore easier to widen the scope of the groups already formed for savings and credits or other purposes and link them together to provide a forum for tackling community problems. Some training inputs can help the groups to identify their problems and by using a particular approach, create a priority to deal with problems like water, electricity and roads etc., as these are generally the felt community needs. The worker can facilitate groups which have already taken the first step of holding some informal meetings to discuss the common problems. The worker can help them to :

- Set goals or to identify problems and decide about their priority.
- Clarify the importance of community participation.
- Explain the process of discussing both the problems and the strategies to solve the problems will all concerned people in the community.
- Provide information about possible government departments which could be of help.
- Encourage them to be self-reliant and to generate indigenous resources to meet their problems.
- Develop trust among different sections in the community.
- Develop a system of relating leadership and provide leadership training.
- Help them to review the work of the group.

- Help them to distribute responsibilities.
- Help them to maintain proper records of all financial transactions and all decisions taken by the group.
- Help them to learn to share all the information with the community.

11.7 Conclusion

The practice of group work in different settings has been described briefly and important practice principles have been highlighted. The list is not comprehensive and as group work in its generic form can be practiced almost anywhere. Also institutions differ in many ways even when they are dealing with the similar problems. Group Work practice has to adapt to the institutional requirement and clients need.

We also learn the different settings in the community where group work can be practiced. We have seen the role of the social action group, which fights for justice. The contribution of these groups in securing justice for the disadvantaged is significant. When formal organisations are increasingly seen as ineffective groups are seen as better options.

Group work in educational setting can play an important role in moulding individual personalities beyond the curriculum. Equally important the maladjusted student can be better addressed by combining the group work with counselling. It also helps other students to understand the problems of the students who take part in the treatment process.

11.8 Exercise

1. What are some of the important principles and techniques to increase the effectiveness of groups?
2. What are the principles to be followed while working with children?
3. Describe the social group worker's role in clinical settings.
4. Discuss in brief how the group work programme can be fruitfully used by the different organisations.

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Unit 12 □ Supervision and Record Writing in Social Group Work

Structure

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12.0 Objectives

In this unit, we review the definition and purpose of supervision in group work and how it is conducted within varying cultural contexts. We also examine the different modes, models, roles and functions of supervision in group work. The unit also journeys to recording, types of recording. After reading through this unit you must be able to:

- have a general understanding of the definition and functions of supervision within a professional human service setting;
- Identify a mode of supervision;
- understand the models of supervision
- perceive recording and types of recording in group work.

12.1 Introduction

The supervision process consists of the face-to-face contact between the supervisor and the supervisee. Supervision defined as the relationship between a supervisee and supervisor who oversees the development of the supervisee throughout the group work process.

Writing and maintaining group work records is an essential element of professional social work. Recording in social group work aims to make better the quality of service to the members. The agency could assess the quality of its service, thereby understanding its efficiency. Group records are imperative in study, research and experimentation.

12.2 Supervision in Social Group Work

12.2.1 Concept

Supervision is an enabling process in which the supervisor through the medium of his relationships with the supervisee contributes to the supervisee's growth on the job, so that he can perform his functions effectively and efficiently to achieve the purpose of the programme.

Supervision is a process by which members are helped by a professional group worker to learn according to their needs to make the best use of their knowledge and skills, and to improve their abilities so that they do their jobs more effectively and with increasing satisfaction to themselves and the agencies.

John D. Millet Rightly observes: "Supervision is more than a process, it is a spirit which animates the relationship between levels of organisation and which includes maximum administrative accomplishment, or when unsuccessful, generates administrative paralyses. Effective management is concerned to realize the first and to avoid the second". It may be added here that many words like 'advice', 'inspection', 'counselling', 'guidance', 'help', 'performance audit', and 'investigation', etc., are also used in the context of supervision but in the final analyses, these are the part of the process of supervision. Their meaning though may vary in degree yet all lead to improvement of efficiency and building up a positive relationship between cliental and the end attainment of objectives according to plans. Supervision includes modifying the behaviour of the supervisee and is measured by the qualitative growth of those being supervised.

Supervision is different from inspection – one is more positive and other rather negative. Supervision reports contain constructive suggestions where as inspection reports are an enumeration of faults. The supervision is concerned with staff development and effective implementation of project / programmes. The inspector often behaves more like a prosecutor and treats his subordinates as culprits.

12.2.2 Ingredients of Supervision

Supervision has many ingredients. According to Halsey, the supervision, has the following ingredients:

1. Selecting the right person for each job;
2. Arousing in each person an interest in his work and teaching him how to do it;
3. Measuring and rating performance to be sure that teaching has been fully effective;
4. Administering correction where this is found necessary and transferring to more suitable work or distributing those for whom this proves ineffective;
5. Commending wherever praise is merited and rewarding for good work, and finally;
6. Fitting each person harmoniously into the working group – all done fairly, patiently and tactfully so that each person is caused to do his work skilfully, accurately, intelligently, enthusiastically and completely.

12.2.3 Models of Supervision

There are two primary models of supervision that are generally used by the supervisor in preparing the supervisee to work in various human service professions – the developmental and task models of supervision (Lager, n.d.).

The developmental model of supervision is more of a process- oriented model that follows the various stages of learning that a new member generally experiences during his or her development of professional knowledge and skills for work. The primary focus of a developmental model of supervision is on how supervisee change as they gain more training and experience in the field of practice, based on a shift in identity (from learner to worker) and the skills that develop with the experiences gained. In the developmental model of supervision, supervisors primarily attempt to match their behaviour and teaching techniques to the developmental needs of the supervisees (Lager, n.d.).

The developmental model generally consists of four stages of development that supervisees follow as they gain experience in the field of social work. At each stage the supervisee's development is strongly influenced by three general themes, all of which have an enormous effect on the other themes. Those theses are(Lager, n.d.):

- The development of the supervisee's professional self and identity.
- The relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee.

- The relationship between the supervisor and the administrative structure within which he or she works.

The stages of development are as follows(Lager, n.d.):

Stage One: During this stage the supervisee is very dependent on the supervisor and lacks the competence needed for independent work. Supervisees also generally lack self-awareness and have little experience in working with clients. Learning takes place by shadowing the supervisor and observing his or her style of practice.

Stage Two: This stage is generally characterised by a dependency – autonomy conflict. As the supervisee’s awareness increases, he or she strives for independence but is not ready for complete autonomy. At this stage the supervisee needs more independence and less restrictiveness than the first stage.

Stage Three: This is the stage of conditional dependency in which the supervisee is generally more differentiated, motivated, insightful and empathetic. He or she is more comfortable with a perception of professional self and is able to function with a great deal of autonomy. The supervisee at this stage is also able to formulate assessments well and develop appropriate interventions for clients with minimal input from the supervisor.

Stage Four: At this stage the supervisee has developed a high level of competence and is able to independently formulate accurate assessments with appropriate interventions. Supervisees at this stage are able to take responsibility for their own learning.

The Task model of supervision is very similar to the developmental model, however it relies heavily on the assignment of tasks that help supervisees develop to a more advanced level of practice. This model includes a focus on both functions and tasks within supervision which are, respectively, the how and what of supervision. For example, some of the tasks that are included in the model are: monitoring-evaluating; instructing-advising; modelling; consulting; supporting-sharing. Likewise, some of the functions are: counselling skill; case conceptualization; professional role; emotional awareness; self-evaluation. The consequence is a 5 (task) by 5 (function) matrix, with 25 resulting task-function combination (see figure 4.1)

A supervisor might, for example, engage in monitoring-evaluating (the how) of the supervisee’s counselling skill (the what), or might engage in consulting concerning

the supervisee's emotional awareness, and so on. Hypothetically, a supervisor might engage in any task with any function, but realistically there are probably some task and function matches that are more likely to occur in supervision.

Functions (How)						
		Counselling skill	Case conceptualization	Professional role	Emotional awareness	Self evaluation
Tasks (What)	Monitoring- Evaluating					
	Instructing Advising					
	Consulting					
	Supporting- sharing					

Figure 4.1: Functions and Tasks in Supervision

Exercise I:

1. What is the primary underlying principle of developmental model of supervision?
2. State how the task model of supervision differs from the developmental model, and provide an illustration of how it might focus on the intersection of the how and what of supervision.

12.2.4 Modes of Supervision

Direct observation of the supervisee: Regardless of the particular model of supervision used, there is no substitute for directly observing a supervisee's work with a client. Several arrangements can be used for conducting these observations. One way is for the supervisor to be physically present in the place with the supervisee, or accompanying him or her on home visits (Lager, n.d.). Another possibility involves the use of special observation rooms equipped with one way mirror.

By observing sessions as they occur, supervisors get a better sense of the social work process of assessing and counselling client. They can listen to what is said, watch the non-verbal behaviours of the supervisee and client, note key moments of the session, and get a deeper awareness of the overall "feel" of the interventions. In

some arrangements, supervisors can also instruct the supervisee during the interaction. Using a technique known as a “bug in the ear”, supervisors observe the sessions from behind a mirror and can speak to the supervisee through a microphone connected to tiny earplug-type speakers(Lager, n.d.).

Although direct observation can be one of the best ways for supervisees to learn counselling techniques, a drawback is the fact that they can be intimidated by the supervisor’s presence-even if he or she is behind a mirror- and therefore their already existing anxiety can be elevated.

In such situation, it is helpful for supervisors and supervisees to establish an agreement about how directly observed sessions will proceed, what the goals and objectives of the session are, and perhaps engage in a role play before the actual client session begins.

Didactic supervision: Didactic or teaching supervision is best chosen when an supervisee wants to learn, or a supervisor wants to teach, specific information about a theory, technique, or some topic relevant to the supervisee’s activities. The goal of a didactic approach is to get information across as efficiently as possible so the supervisee can learn and apply the information directly to his or her work(Lager, n.d.).

Didactic approaches tend to be particularly appealing to beginning learners because they feel a need for concrete, practical information to help the cope with the anxiety and ambiguity of starting something new.

Case discussion: Case discussion means the supervisee describes a case to the supervisor and the two discuss what is going on. Case discussions can take a variety of formats depending on the goals and preferences of the supervisee and supervisor. Perhaps the most common approach involves supervisees describing what is happening in a case, explaining their actions and offering interpretations for what is happening. The supervisor typically listens, asks questions, and may offer alternative interpretations or suggestions(Lager, n.d.).

Types and Role Plays: Video or audio recordings of sessions with clients enable the supervisor and supervisee to observe the actual interview process with a client. This is an extremely valuable method for clinical training, although some time limitations prohibit reviews of the entire session. This mode of supervision presents an interesting paradox.

An alternative to working with recorded sessions is to enact a client session with the supervisor. Role plays involve supervisees taking the roles clients, trainees or other staff members and acting these roles as they portray a situation or interaction of interest. They can be particularly helpful in developing basic helping skills and in learning to deal with difficult clients.

Role plays can also help supervisees to become aware of their counselling style and, in some instances, about significant issues in their own lives. Supervisors can also use role plays to learn about issues and techniques in supervision.

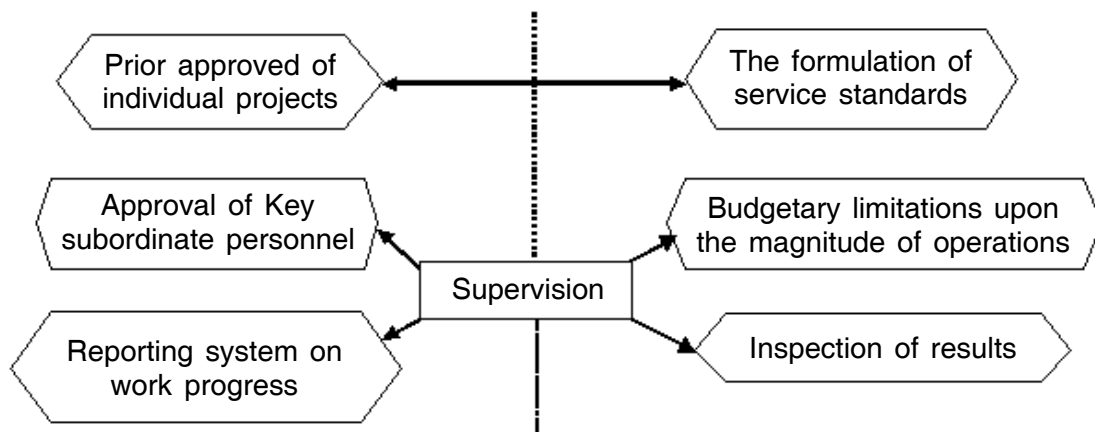
Direct observation of the supervisor: The majority of supervisees prefer this mode of supervision above most others. While they recognise that discussion about their own work can only take them so far, they also feel they can learn a great deal when they can watch their supervisor in group or individual sessions, read reports written by the supervisor, and observe him or her in other actions such as meetings, conferences etc. One way to accomplish this is for the supervisor and supervisee to work jointly in counselling clients. This is most commonly practiced in group or couples counselling, but it can also be used with individual client.

Exercise II:

1. What mode of supervision is preferred by supervisees? What activities generally fall under this mode?
2. What are role plays, and how are they helpful in the supervisory process?

12.2.5 Techniques of Supervision

According to John D. Millet there are, broadly considered six techniques of supervision. The techniques are presented through a diagram given below:



Techniques of supervision

The above diagram shows that supervision needs specialised knowledge and skills in utilizing it to achieve the intended results. This diagram also indicates that the supervisor has to possess certain qualities, while at supervision. Following are the techniques of supervision:

Prior approval: Prior approval means that prior approval of the competent authority has to be obtained before the work on a particular programme is started. In this manner, the supervisor will be in a position to gather detailed information about the intentions of the operating organisations. Moreover, the supervisor will come to know about the details of work which his organisation, where he performs his work, is going to execute. Deviations, if any would be corrected and controlled without any misunderstanding, wastage of time, energy in terms of money, manpower and material resources.

Service Standards: Service standards means setting up norms of administrative output. Setting up norms is not an easy process. Difficulties lie in striking a balance between quantity and quality, the achievement of targets and the way it has to be done. The supervisor has to work with thoughtfulness, fairness, tact, emotion etc for effectiveness and efficiency of service standards so laid down.

Budgetary Limitation: Budgetary limitation means that the operating units work within the budgetary allocations and have to carry out the work within the limited budget provisions. The technique is being followed in day-to-day financial administration of the organization.

Approval of Personnel: This means to reserve the right of approval of personnel of the key personnel in the organization by the Chief Executive while leaving the initiative of selection in the hands of the operating head. This technique helps in exercising control over the personnel in a manner stipulated for achieving the objectives of an organisation.

Reporting System: Reporting holds a key position for assessing day-to-day performance of an organization. It helps in identifying shortcomings and bottlenecks in execution of the programmes and projects and in turn, ways and means for

corrective action. Reporting system works as one of the means for effective monitoring of the progress of an organization.

Inspection of Results: Inspection of result is very effective instrument of supervision. The supervisor has to ensure that the inspection is timely, result-oriented, humanistic and problem solving. It helps in building the role conflicts and establishing harmonious contacts between the supervisor and the supervisees in the performance of their work.

Inspection has to see that the existing rules and regulations are observed. It is a sort of performance audit. The inspection is related to instructing and guiding the persons working in the organisation as well as improvement of efficiency.

12.2.6 Qualities of Supervisor

The supervisor –

1. He is more a leader among the group members than a boss over the subordinates. He substitutes leadership for authority.
2. He should be impartial, objective, fair minded, humane, capable and willing to guide and help the supervisee.
3. He should have HUMAN TOUCH

H – Hear him out

U - Understand his feelings

M – Motivate him

A - Acknowledge his efforts

N - News-keep him informed

T - Train him

O – Open his eyes

U - Uniqueness – treat him as individual

C - Contact him regularly

H – Honour him as a person.

12.2.7 Principles of Supervision

1. It should be person-oriented rather than production-oriented.
2. How a job is done is more important than how much done.
3. It is being good and not doing good that counts.
4. It is being on tap rather than on top.
5. For dynamic programmes increased possibility of error must be recognized and allowed for.
6. It should be based on understanding and not fear.
7. Too much of supervision begets mediocrity.
8. Responsibility would always be coupled with authority.
9. No supervisee should receive orders from more than one source.

12.2.8 Functions of the supervisor: Educational, Administrative, Helping

Supervisors perform three-pronged functions, namely administrative i.e., operational and discipline related functions; educational i.e. related to professional learning constituted of knowledge, skills and values; and the helping functions that deal with supervisee as a person and are concerned with his personal growth(Lager, n.d.).

a) Educational Function(Lager, n.d.): Educational functions include the following:

1. Designing and planning of learning activities and/or programmes of study.
2. Identifying professional skills in daily work.
3. Professional socialization – teaching supervisees to apply values and principles while using social work method.
4. Giving knowledge of micro-macro linkage, legal provisions, government schemes, information about community resources.
5. Teaching the use of tools and techniques of social work practice.
6. Demonstrating use of methods and skills – through lab work.
7. Teaching record-writing, documentation work.

8. Provide frequent and accurate feed-back.
9. Facilitate reflection and critical thinking through well planned and structured supervisory sessions.
10. Dealing with ethical dilemmas in day to day work.
11. Working with co-workers and utilizing supervision, accepting and utilizing feed-back.
12. Teaching NGO/GO management including maintaining records, working on committees, budgeting, project proposal formulation, inter-agency coordination etc.
13. Guidance on research exercise – catching supervisees to take up any research based assignment – teaching supervisee about research methodology, i.e., data collection, data analysis and reporting.
14. Innovative projects to help individuals / group / families / communities – introducing by direct instruction or encouraging supervisees to take initiatives themselves.

b) Administrative Functions(Lager, n.d.):

Operational and discipline related duties are categorized as administrative functions. Following are some of the administrative tasks of supervisors:

1. Preparing supervisee for their professional roles is no small task. It requires giving detailed attention to innumerable contingencies.
2. Keeping attendance of supervisee, ensuring submission of records and maintaining log of supervisees' work.
3. Maintaining supervisees' discipline in work place.
4. Planning and holding of supervisory conferences, giving prior intimation to the supervisees so that they can make necessary arrangements for attending the same.
5. As different an on-going educational assessment, supervisors have to formally evaluate supervisees' performance and level of learning in terms of professional skills, knowledge and attitudes.
6. Resolution of work related problems.

7. Serving on Governing Boards of relevant organisation.
8. Supervisors have to be vicariously responsible for what their supervisees are doing the work place irrespective of the educative value of allowing supervisees to learn 'by doing', often by trial and error, supervisors have to ensure that this manner of learning does not aggravate the problems of the client groups. Supervisors have, therefore, to be cautious and to critically assess supervisees' work.

C. Helping Functions: Supervisees struggle with confusion and self-doubt as they attempt to develop self-efficacy as a professional. The learning process in social work involves a reappraisal of own attitudes and values. In this process, the supervisee needs the support of a supervisor. It is not enough to verse supervisees' work and teach them the use of social work methods. The supervisees are expected to develop the 'professional self' which means that their 'self' is the main tool for offering professional interventions. Social work education aims at bridging the gap between the 'personal self' and the 'professional self' of the supervisees. Reassurance of worth and social integration support from supervisors go a long way towards providing supervisees an anchor which they can hold on to in times of emotional turmoil, anxiety, stress and self-doubt. Supervisory activities with this focus as designated as 'helping' functions which are as follows(Lager, n.d.):

1. Creating an open supervisory environment.
2. Providing encouragement.
3. Attending to supervisees' personal growth.
4. Building confidence.
5. Helping supervisees develop self-awareness, understanding of personal vs professional self.
6. Dealing with personal / family problem having impact on day-to-day work.
7. Referral to counsellors for in-depth personal counselling and to other agencies for addressing family and personal problems.
8. Career counselling.
9. Helping supervisees with their struggle with confusion and self-doubt as they attempt to develop self-efficacy as a professional.

10. Supervision should certainly become more relaxed and more supportive as time goes on.
11. Creating a bond and communicating before applying supervisory controls is very essential.
12. Professional learning is carried out within the context of the supervisee – Supervisor relationship. The supervisor-supervisee relationship is the primary mechanism through which supervisees develop a professionally reflective and self-evaluative practice stance. Helping dimension of supervisor's function helps nurture and strengthens this relationship.
13. A non-threatening environment of the relationship will help supervisees accept constructive criticism and encourage them to change.
14. We know that mentoring is one of the most highly recommended supervisory strategies. The word mentor infers caring, setting wise example, coaching and identifying mistakes without causing resentment.

Supervisors perform all the three kinds of responsibilities but the emphases and supervisory inputs may vary according to the level and stage of professional development of the supervisees, and demands of a particular work situation.

12.2.9 Supportive Functions In Supervision

The supportive functions of supervision will be highlighted here as they relate to the process of developing essential skills that will be helpful in dealing with a variety of stressors often associated with social work practice (Lager, n.d.).

Prolonged job related stress can ultimately lead to professional burnout and / or compassion fatigue in many helping professions. It is important for supervisors to recognize the symptoms of extreme stress and develop strategies for dealing with them immediately.

It is essential that supervisors, supervisees, and other helping professionals learn to manage stress in themselves and to help their clients manage stress.

Stress is a contributing factor in a wide variety of emotional and behavioural problems, including anxiety, child abuse, spouse abuse, temper tantrums, feelings of inadequacy, physical assaults, explosive expressions of anger, feelings of hostility, impatience, stuttering, suicide attempts and depression.

Stress is also a contributing factor in most physical illness. These illness include hypertension, heart attacks, migraine and tension headaches, colitis, ulcers, diarrhoea, constipation, diabetes, backaches, arthritis, cancer, colds, flu, insomnia, alcoholism, bronchitis, infections, allergies and enuresis.

Exposure to cumulative stress, crisis and even traumatic events in our professionals or personal lives can cause physical and / or emotional exhaustion that leads to professional burn out or compassion fatigue.

Occupational stressors, when unchecked, can result in worker burnout. Role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload play a large role in the onset of burnout within the work place.

Stress related problems often result from a combination of (1) individual perceptions of the problems, (2) environmental demands placed on the individual that have a direct effect on his or her ability to deal with the problems and (3) one's physiological responses when confronted with stress. When stressors are social or psychological rather than physical, the stress response builds up tension that is not released(Lager, n.d.).

As a result, it utilizes energy that is not restored and can ultimately lead to exhaustion. Over a period of time, prolonged exposure to the stress and the resulting exhaustion can cause significant problems to one's physical and psychological well being.

Signs and Symptoms of Burn out and Compassion Fatigue:

- Change in behaviour and / or job performance.
- Increased physical complaints of fatigue, irritability, muscle tension, stomach upset and susceptibility to illness.
- Social withdrawal, pulling away from co-workers, press, family members.
- Emotional exhaustion, loss of self-esteem, depression, frustration, loss of commitment and moral purpose in one's work.
- Loss of curiosity and desire to learn, often accompanied by a negative attitude.
- Spiritual change, decline in spiritual beliefs, questioning of the meaning of life.

The following chart indicates the effect of prolonged stress on job performance, interpersonal relationships, morale and behavioural functioning (Greenberg, 1999)

Effects on job performance	Effect on Interpersonal Relationship	Effect on morale	Effect on Behavioural Functioning
Decrease in quality work	Withdrawal from colleagues	Decreased confidence	Absenteeism
Decrease in quality of work	Impatience	Loss of interest	Exhaustion
Decline in motivation	Decrease in quality of relationships	General dissatisfaction	Faulty judgement
Avoidance of job tasks	Poor communication	Negative attitude	Irritability
Increase in mistakes	Subsumed by own needs	Apathy	Frequent tardiness
Establishment of perfectionist standards	Staff conflicts	Demoralization and feelings of incompleteness	Irresponsibility
Avoidance of job tasks		Lack of appreciation	Overworked; frequent job changes
Obsession with details		Detachment; reduced self-esteem	Substance abuse

Managing Stress and Preventing Burnout:

The following approaches have been useful for helping supervisee reduce stress and prevent burn-out. It is upto each individual to select the ones that will be most helpful. Managing stress is similar to dieting. It will work for those who put forth the effort.

Goal Setting and Time Management:

Stress and burnout can come from the feeling of “too much to do and too little time in which to do it”. Often, this feeling is due to not having clear short-term and lifetime goals and not knowing how to manage time effectively to achieve them. Realistic goals and a plan for achieving them lead to increased self-confidence, improved decision making, a greater sense of purpose, and an improved sense of security.

Relaxation:

Deep-breathing relaxation, imagery relaxation, progressive muscle relaxation, meditation, and bio feed-back are effective techniques for reducing stress and inducing the “relaxation response” (becoming relaxed). Each of these techniques is facilitated by sitting in a comfortable position in a quiet place and closing one’s eyes.

Exercise:

Stress prepares our body to move or become involved in large-muscle activity refers to the kinds of exercise involving many muscle groups at the same time, such as jumping rope. Through exercise, a supervisee can use up fuel in the blood, reduce his or her blood pressure and heat role, and reverse the other physiological changes set off during the alarm stage of the General Adaptation Syndrome. Exercising helps a person Keep Physically fit and has more physical strength to handle crises. It also reduces stress and relieves tension. For these reasons supervisee should be encouraged by the supervisor to have a daily exercise programme. Many activities are available: walking, stretching, jogging, isometric exercises, jumping rope, swimming, playing tennis, dancing, housework, sex, gardening or golf.

Taking Care of Physical self:

In addition to exercising, it is important to have nourishing diet, to take appropriate care of one, and to get enough sleeps. Not only does a nourishing diet help keep people fit to resist stress but research shows there are direct links between what individuals eat and how they feel emotionally. Some foods (such as coffee) produce tension, while overeating causes individuals to feel drowsy and even ill. Staying slim and trim helps a person feel good about himself or herself.

Social Support Groups:

Everyone needs to feel close to others. Support groups allow people to share their lives, have fun with others, let their hair down. These groups are also a resource for help when emergencies and crises arise. These are variety of possible support groups that centre on co-workers, a hobby or sports, a service (such as Rotary), a family, a social club and so on.

Talking to others:

Every human needs someone with whom to share good times as well as personal difficulties. Sharing concerns with someone helps to vent emotions, and talking a

concern through often generates constructive strategies for resolving it. A good listener is someone who convey caring and understanding. Keep the information confidential, is empathetic, helps explore the difficulty, and encourages the person to select and try out a resolution strategy.

Positive Thinking:

When anticipated and unanticipated events occur, people can choose to take either a positive or negative view of the situation. If they take a negative view, they are apt to experience more stress and alienate friends and acquaintances. If they take a positive view, they are likely to maintain their composure; stay relaxed, and cope with the situation quickly and easily, minimizing negative consequences.

Changing Stress-Producing Thoughts:

It is often erroneously believed that emotions, including feelings of tenseness and anxiety, are primarily determined by experiences – that is, by events that occur. However, cognitive therapies have shown the primary source of a person’s emotions to be what she tells herself about her experiences.

Changing or Adapting to Distressing Events:

There are an infinite number of distressing events: the death of someone, close, the breakup of a romantic relationship, being friend, having an unfulfilling job, failing some courses, getting into an argument, or having unresolved religious questions. When distressing events occur, supervisee should be encouraged by the supervisor to confront them directly to try to improve the situation.

Personal Pleasures:

Personal pleasures relieve stress, provide a change of pace, are enjoyable, make us feel good, and are (in reality) personal “therapies”. What is pleasurable to one person may not be to another. Common pleasures are being hugged, listening to music, going shopping, and taking a hot bath, going to a movie, having a glass of wine, family and religious get-together, taking a vacation, singing, and so on. Such “treats” remind individuals that they have worth; they also add spice of life.

Exercise: Stress Management Techniques for Me

Goal: This exercise is designed to familiarize you with available stress management techniques

1. Review the material in this unit on stress management techniques. List those techniques that you have used. Also briefly describe whether each technique was beneficial to you in helping to reduce the level of stress you were experiences.
2. Specify the stress management techniques that you are planning to use in the future.

12.2.10 Roles of the Supervisor

Roles are set of behaviours that the supervisors engage in fulfil their various obligations. Some of the supervisory roles conceptualized by the experts are as follows:

- **Enabler:** In this role, the supervisor is present with the supervisee as a “helper” or “enabler”, there to do things with the supervisee rather than for or to the supervisee. His influence is indirect rather than direct. He helps supervisees to articulate their needs, to clarify and identify their problems, to explore resolution strategies, to select and a apply a strategy, and to develop their capacities to deal with their own problems more effectively. As an enabler, the supervisor helps supervisees revitalize and mobilize their own strengths and resources to cope with difficult problems.
- **Broker:** In the broker role, the supervisor identifies community resources, government schemes and programmes that may help supervisee to carry out their plans. As a broker, the supervisor helps supervisees become aware of resources, eligibility criteria, and other conditions for using a particular service.
- **Advocate:** It is an active, directive role in which the supervisee advocates for a supervisee. In such a role, the supervisor provides leadership for collecting information, for arguing the correctness of the supervisee’s need and request, and for challenging the institution’s decision not to provide services.
- **Mediator:** As a mediator, the supervisor helps resolve disputes, conflicts, or opposing points of view within the group or between a member and some other person or organization. The mediator role involves intervention in finding compromises, reconcile differences, or reach mutually satisfactory agreements. He works through the supervisees of the group and occupies a

position of liaison between the group and the agency. The supervisors use their value orientations and unique skills in identifying miscommunication and clarifying position.

- **Negotiator:** A negotiator brings together those who are in conflict over one or more issues and seeks to achieve bargaining and compromise to arrive at mutually acceptable agreements, somewhat like mediation, negotiation involves finding a middle ground that all sides can live with. However, unlike a mediator, which is a neutral role, a negotiator usually is allied with one of the sides involved. The supervisors play this role especially while negotiating about time, venue, resources etc., with supervisees, agency or community.
- **Educator:** One of the most important roles assumed by supervisors in helping supervisees achieve their goals is that of the educator. The educator role involves giving information to supervisees and teaching them new skills. To be an effective educator, the supervisor must first be knowledgeable. Additionally, she or he must be a good communicator so that information is clearly conveyed and readily understood by the receiver.
- **Initiator:** An initiator calls attention to a problem or even to a potential problem. It is important to realise that some problems can be recognized in advance. The supervisor with his experience and knowledge can foresee the potential problem areas and draw the supervisees' attention to address the issues. In this role he initiate discussion or action on the problem area.
- **Empowerer:** A key goal of supervision is empowerment. In the role of empowerer the supervisor helps the supervisees and group to increase their personal, interpersonal, socio-economic, and political strength and influence through improving their circumstances.
- **Coordinator:** coordinators bring components together in some kind of organised manner. On behalf of the agency often the supervisor assumes the role of coordinator for helping the supervisees to avail the services from different agencies.
- **Facilitator:** A facilitator is one who serves as a supervisor for group activity. As a facilitator, supervisor provides the methodological help. He does not

discuss the method but he uses it for facilitating the group process. When required to express his own opinions, he at all times makes it clear when he is functioning as a facilitator.

- **Communicator and Interpreter:** The supervisor has to act as a communicator or interpreter, where interpersonal relationships have to be dealt with. In this role he actually helps the supervisee to understand what is being communicated.

12.2.11 Conclusion

Appropriate supervision is an important component of the group work practice as it provides an opportunity for supervisees to apply the knowledge gained from the group work process. Two key models of supervision that are commonly used in group work to prepare supervisees are the developmental and task models. The varying modes of supervision are conducted within the context of these modes.

12.3 Record Writing in Social Group Work

12.3.1 Concept

The record in social group work means a faithful representation of the facts in an orderly manner about the various interaction processes in group settings in connection with the plan and programme.

The social work Dictionary (1995) defines “recording” as the process of putting in writing and keeping on file relevant information about the client system; the problem; the prognosis; the intervention; the process of treatment; the social, economic, and health factors contributing to the situation and the procedures for termination or referral.

Record is an important working tool and performs the following functions:

- It gives an account of something which has taken place,
- It contains factual descriptions as well as instructions, directions, opinions, recommendation, suggestions etc.,
- It set forth plans for the future.

12.3.2 Elements of Record in Social Group Work

In the process of social group work, we generally attempt to record the following points:

1. When we set out to record a group work process, we write about individuals and their responses to one another in a given situation. In other words, we write about the behaviour of the individuals in the group.
2. We write about the type and extent of participation of individual in the process of social group work.
3. We note and record the origin and development of ideas, including their acceptance or rejection by the individuals involved.
4. We put down exactly what the group worker does as he carries out his helping role with the group.
5. We put down movement, growth and change as we see it in individuals and in the group as a whole.
6. We write about the relationship between the group and the agency and include community relationships when these are significant in understanding the group.
7. We write about the individual reaction to the different programmes and the contribution of each individual in programme planning.
8. The difficulties faced in the performance of any activity are also noted down.

Recording in group work process, thus implies that, we shall concentrate upon individuals working together in group situation, relationship among them as reflected by their participation, their interaction within the group and between the groups.

12.3.3 Principles of Recording

While recording the worker should be conscious about some of the basic guidelines or principles of recording. These principles or guidelines are:

1. **Principle of Flexibility:** The worker should be conscious about the objectives of the agency under which he is working and would maintain the record to adjust with the agency's objectives. He will not follow a rigid form of record writing.

2. **Principle of Selection:** Everything should not be recorded in the group work recording. He records significant observation about individuals and their interactions. He selects from movement of the group behaviour patterns of individuals, his own enabling contribution and skills and techniques applied in the group process.
3. **Principle of Readability:** The most important thing is to keep the record as simple as possible in form, in length. Records must have face sheet, presenting a brief outline of the factual data. If records are in detailed brief summaries should be prepared. In describing individuals, verbatim quotations should be written. Records should be written systematically.
4. **Principles of Confidentiality:** One of the basic principle of recording in all social work is that records are written on the premise that they will be held in confidence. If records are used for other purpose such as training, all names and other identifying information needs to be carefully obscured, with fictitious ones substituted. The record is a professional document and that as such its contents are guarded by as sense of professional ethics.
5. **Principles of Worker Acceptance:** The worker must accept his responsibility to write records because of his conviction that records have value in rendering high quality professional service.

12.3.4 Types of Record

An important part of the group worker's responsibility is the preparation and writing of records and reports. Though agencies vary in the content and the style of the records, these are similarity as to types. In social group work three (3) types of records are generally used – (1) Statistical record, (2) Programme record and (3) Process record.

1. **Statistical Record:** In this type of record different statistical information on organisation, enrolment and attendance of individuals are usually kept. We get these information from individual registration cards and group roaster sheet.
2. **Programme record:** Programme records give the information of the activities in which the group is being engaged. Different information gathered through

systematic study is often recorded. In addition, minutes of meetings are also preserved. These minutes are used by the group in reviewing its experience in making plans and in follow up work.

3. Process record: This is the chronological narrative write up of the group work process as it develops. In this kind of records primary attention is given to the participation and interaction of the members, with a view to determining their role in the affairs of the group. In the process record, the emphasis is not only on what happens but how it happens and what has been its impact on the individual. Thus the process record will reveal the gradual change in the situation.

12.3.5 The Importance of Narrative Records

The writing of the record is becoming an integral part of social group work practice rather than something separate and distinct from it. It is a tool for the improvement of group work and it has important values for the group, the worker, the agency and the field. The major value of the narrative process record from the standpoint of the worker is that such records help the worker to do a more effective job with his groups. Every other purpose is in a sense a sub-purpose of this major one to improve the quality of experience provided for the group. By writing a complete process record of everything he does while working with the group, the worker is helped to think, to analyse and to evaluate. The record is thus a tool in the process of understanding the group and learning how to help it. When the worker puts in writing what happened in each group meeting, what he did, what problems he faced and what questions arose in his mind, he is thinking into the group situation.

Process records are written by the group worker primarily for himself and for his own use continuously throughout his relationship with the group. These records help the worker to become aware of the members of the group as individuals. He can see emerging and changing interests of individuals, he can see evolving needs and how these needs are being met. He can see the development of skills and social attitudes; he becomes sensitive to special problems which may interfere with the individual's full use of the group. Process records show the worker the variety of interpersonal relationship which take shape within the group. The emergence of a group consciousness can be seen as can sub-groupings. The acceptance of the individual by

the group is reflected by his change in status which can be discovered from reading accumulated records. The development of the worker's relationship and role can be ascertained from careful recording of what he does while helping the group. Attention becomes focused upon the status of the group in the agency and in the community as intergroup relations are recorded. Changes in the goals of the group become more evident, and member interests outside the group are seen from a review of the record.

As the worker writes his records after each meeting, he develops a picture of the group that can be passed on to his superior. Together, worker and supervisor can focus their attention on the group situation as experienced by the worker. The record is thus a stimulus to interaction between the supervisor and the worker. Records enable group work supervisors to keep in touch with many groups for purposes of coordinating the total programme of the agency. Records are useful as a basis for evaluating the group experience of the members and for helping the worker in individual and group supervisory conferences. In worker evaluation records are indispensable. When new workers are assigned to group, past records become useful at the point of orientation and help new workers to understand the kind of experience the group has enjoyed prior to the coming of the new worker. Records are valuable to other department of the agency if it is large; and they are important in the planning of referrals of individuals to community resource agencies.

The underlying function of recording is to improve the quality of service to the individual. Hence, recording enables agency administration to judge the quality of its service, the need for its service and needs of its constituency or potential constituency. Records are useful to administration in determining whether its services meet the needs of the community, whether the quality of service is in line with purposes and objectives of the agency, and whether there is a need to change policies and practices. Furthermore, well-kept records are useful in interpreting group work as a method in social work. Agency boards and community groups can be helped to appreciate the need for added facilities, equipment, and staff. When a review of the records of several groups reveals common problems, it is possible to utilize such factual information as a basis for the selection of staff members and for staff training. Staff assignments to groups can be made with greater intelligence when there is a record of the development of the group.

Recording has value for the group, the worker, and the agency and for the field of social work. Teaching material for in-service training and professional education comes from well-written narratives. Discussion material for professional organizations that conduct institutes and conferences can be provided by workers who have recorded and analyzed their work with groups. Group records are essential in study, research, and experimentation.

12.3.6 Factors That Influence the Keeping of Process Records

Because many agencies are at the stage in their development at which they are giving serious consideration to the matter of improving their systems of record keeping, it is necessary to point out some of the factors that influence an agency's decision to keep process records. Not every agency affords adequate facilities for recording. It is doubtful whether or not agencies should attempt to keep full records on all their groups, especially if there is wide variation in the competence of personnel.

The first factor to consider is the function and purpose of the agency. If the agency is committed to the task of providing individualized group experience, then it is absolutely necessary that records be kept. If, on the other hand, the agency conceives its role in more general terms, it may not have need for full records. Another factor to be considered is the level of current group work practice as observed in the agency. If the agency has workers who are adequately prepared to do a good job as group workers, they should be able to assume a responsible role in relation to recording. If, however, workers are not well trained, it is doubtful that they will be capable of keeping records that will be of much value. Workers who have never engaged in record keeping will need special help in developing their skill in this area.

It takes time to write records. Unless agencies recognize this and allow for it in determining worker loads, it is impossible to do an adequate job of recording. Facilities and staff services are required as well.

Another factor to consider is the nature and purpose of the specific group. It is a group of indeterminate status, lacking fixed enrollment and definitely conceived as a short-term activity group, it may not require full recording. If the group is considered

permanent, or at least long-term, with definite objectives in the sense of individual development, then records should be kept.

The availability of competent supervisory help for workers is another factor. Records take on much more meaning when they are discussed by the supervisor and the worker they are discussed by the supervisor and the worker together. Supervisory staffs must be sufficiently large in relation to the number of workers supervised, so that records, will be read with care and will be utilized regularly in the supervisory process.

The departmental organisation of the agency will be an influential factor in the setting up of a system of recording. If records are to be used by all departments, there must be agreed-upon uniformity of content and centralization of the material to make it promptly accessible to all.

When the agency is a part of a national organization, its records will necessarily be geared to the total requirements of the national scene. The fact of agency membership in local federations or in social welfare councils will influence the form and content of records.

If, after analysis of its own situation, an agency decides to move ahead on establishing a system and requirement of narrative process recording on all or some of its groups, the following questions must be studied: what does it mean to record the group work process? What should be included in the record from the standpoint of content? How can workers be helped to learn how to write good records? What can be learned from analysing records, and how can the learning be utilized?

12.3.7 Meaning of the Record in the Group Work Process

First, when we set out to record the group work process, we write about individuals and their responses to one another in a given group situation. In other words, we write about the behaviour of the individuals in the group.

Second, we write about the type and extent of participation of individuals who are working, playing, thinking or otherwise acting together in the group. We concentrate upon what individuals do as they associate with one another.

Third, we note and record the origin and the development of ideas, including their acceptance or rejection by the individuals involved. We look for the interplay of minds and the stimulation of individuals by other individuals.

Fourth, we put down exactly what the group worker does as he carries out his helping role with the group. In addition, we record what the worker thinks and feels about the group situation and what he hopes to accomplish as he works with it.

Fifth, we put down movement, growth, and change as we see it in individuals and in the group as a whole.

Sixth, we write about the relationship between the group and the agency and include community relationships when these are significant in understanding the group.

Recording the group work process thus implies that we shall concentrate upon individuals working together in group situations, relationships among individuals as reflected by their participation, interaction within group and between groups, ourselves as workers present to exercise a helping role. This may be restated as who? – the members of the group; what? – the things they do together; how? – the way in which they do things together; why? – the reasons why we think certain things occur or fail to occur.

In the beginning, workers who are learning how to record the group work process, discover that their job consists of alert observation and sensitivity to what is happening in the group; selection of what to include; organization of material selected; the actual write-up; analysis of the material written; interpretation and utilization of the material in next steps with the group.

12.3.8 The Content of the Narrative Record

The writing of the narrative record is one part of the worker's job in group work. Any outline or list of what to include in the record is a reflection of the group work philosophy of the person or persons drawing up the outline. When workers have good insight as to the basic principles of social group work, the items included in content lists tend to emphasize or illustrate these principles. Because groups are different, any list or outline of what to include in the record must be something to select from and to be guided by in a general way. At the outset, workers should be encouraged to include everything that they see as important in understanding the group. As the worker develops security and skills with a given group, changes will come about in the recording. The worker will see more than he saw at first. He will recognize the importance of his own role within the group and will comment upon it more fully.

He may discover perplexing and conflicting situations which need further study, and so he will include more interpretation and evaluation in the records. Various items which might appear in the records of a group which has been meeting for some time include the following:

1. The record should include basic identifying information about the group, its name, the date, time, and place of its meeting, the names of individuals present and absent should be listed and new members properly noted. The physical setting within the agency or away from the agency should be mentioned at the beginning of the record as well as any important observations on whether or other conditions which might affect the attendance.
2. The record should include mention of individuals by name; what they do, what they say, and how they get along in the group should be recorded along with the sequence of their participation. Specific contributions of individuals should be mentioned as they interact with other members of the group. The emotional quality of participation, as reflected by behaviour toward other individuals or the worker, is important and should be included.
3. As the worker works along with the group he will become aware of the group as a whole. By putting down what the group does in its activity programme, by noting positive and negative response to experience, and by recording what the members say about their group in relation to the agency, the worker becomes conscious of the group as it moves through various phases of its development.
4. The relationship and role of the group worker should be included. When the worker provides materials, makes arrangement, introduces new members, offers suggestions, leads discussion, participates the activities, interprets the agency, or in any other way enters into the affairs of the group it should recorded.
5. At the close of each meeting's record the worker should include a section of evaluative comments regarding what happened during the meeting. This section can consist of questions, explanations as why things occurred or failed to occur, and tentative plans for the future. Such comments or meeting-by-meeting evaluations are exceedingly important and frequently are longer than the actual meeting record.

6. The worker should include both planned and informal meetings with individuals before, after, and between group meetings. If the worker works with committees, that are a part of the group, these meetings should also be described. Individual conferences between the worker and offices of the group, and meetings that the worker established for the purpose of locating programme resources should be included. The goal should be to make the record as complete as possible.

12.3.9 Learning How to Write Records

The development of skill in recording is fundamentally a matter of becoming capable of observing the group, analyzing what is going on and understanding what it means to the individuals. As workers become more skillful in their work with groups and develop insight into their own role and responsibility with the group, their records reflect this growth.

As one worker put it, the recording is not difficult, but the thinking and analysis that precede the actual writing are difficult. Many workers believe that there is value in writing up the factual account of the meeting shortly after it has been held. The analysis of what happened then appears in the section of evaluative comments. This section may not be written until a few days after the meeting when the worker has had more time to think about what occurred.

Some suggestions that have proved helpful to workers who are learning how to record are given as possible helps. Some workers find it helpful to prepare a brief topical outline before writing or dictating major record entries. Such outlining helps in the organization of the material and in the selection of the most important items. Worker should endeavour, in so far as possible, to attach the names of group members to the action as it takes place. When workers do this, they avoid phrases such as: “it was felt” without telling who “it” is; “there was a good discussion” without discussing what and why it was good; “several members objected” without telling who discussed what and why it was good, “several members objected” without telling who the “several” were; “details were left to be worked out later” without telling what the “details” were or who would work them out. Simple language, short sentences, frequent paragraphing, and the use of topical headings throughout the record will make it easier to analyse at a later time. Identification of the worker by

“w” or “worker” is preferable, though some find the use of the personal pronoun “I” easier and more natural for them. The dating of all entries is important because it shows continuity and development. Periodic summaries of individual and group growth are important means of reviewing and group growths are important means of reviewing the record and modifying future entries as to style or content. In reviewing the records that have been accumulated over a period of perhaps several months, the worker might ask such questions as: Have I identified myself and included what I did and why I did it? Have I identified the individuals who make up the group and have I included what they did? Have I included all my contacts or did I overlook some important ones? Have I given enough interpretation of what has happened? How can I improve my recording to make the record more specific and meaningful to me?

There is no one way to keep the narrative process record. Most workers will develop a style of their own and will include pertinent material as they become aware of the important uses to which the records are put.

12.3.10 Using Process Records—What We Learn from Analyzing Record

The worker’s use of records begins when he starts to write, because the primary value of records is in helping the worker think through his work with the group. The record should be reviewed before each meeting with the group, since in so doing the worker will be helped to recall salient features of the group’s development. After a period of work with the group the accumulated body of information in the record should be studied with a view to ascertaining trends and movements. Record usage thus centres around both immediate and long-term goals.

Good records enable the worker to see and understand the kind of relationship he has established with the group. They show his sensitivity and the way in which he picks up group leads or fails to respond to requests for help. Records make it possible for the worker to learn how his role has changed as the group has developed and reveal the kind of problems the group has encountered in carrying out programme and in meeting specific situations.

Records help the worker to deepen his understanding of individual and group behaviour and indicate the point at which the individual and the group have arrived in their development. Individuals who need special attention emerge, and the extent

to which their needs are being met in the group can be seen. Individuals with leadership abilities can be helped to take greater responsibility for the affairs of the group when they have been located by means of the record.

In general, records are most useful at the point of evaluation of the group work process. In fact, it is doubtful whether evaluations of programme, individual growth, or worker performance can be satisfactorily made without records. Although partial judgements can be made on the basis of memory, thorough evaluation is possible only if adequate records have been kept.

From time to time it is advisable for the group worker to go back over his records and prepare an analysis and summary. This exercise is extremely rewarding to the worker and is well worth the time required to do it. The worker can learn a great deal about what has happened in the group, and, more important, he can retrace the role he has played in bringing about this group development.

Such a review is, of course, essential if the group is being closed. It is also needed if the worker is transferring the group to a new worker. In connection with agency evaluation the summary analysis is indispensable.

12.3.11 Outline For Group Summary

In writing the analysis of the group record, it is important to include throughout the place which workers have had in these various aspects of the group behaviour. In describing worker's relation to the group, it is important to indicate not only what he did but what were his purposes, his assumptions and, so far as he can evaluate them.

1. What has been happening to individuals in the group?

Add to face sheet material a brief description of the behaviour of the person and his adjustment in the group.

2. How has the group changed in purpose and membership?

- A. Has the group stated a purpose? If so, what is it?

Judging by its behaviour, what seems to be the dominant purposes of the group? What needs are being met? What unavowed purpose do you see evident? How are the group objectives influenced by unconscious motivations in your opinion? How does agency function or purpose affect the purpose of this group? How does the surrounding community affect group's objectives?

- B. What changes in purpose or membership policies have occurred during the period of the record? Why did these come about?
 - C. How is membership determined? What agency policies affect membership? What individual factors of congeniality, etc., are determining membership?
 - D. What social factors are affecting the make-up of the group? Note influence of nationality parochial or public school, occupation, location of residence, financial status of family, parents working away from home etc.
 - E. What relation has worker had to this success of formation, the determining of objectives and membership? What has he aimed to do in this area? What has resulted?
3. How do the members relate to each other?
- A. Describe the pattern of acceptance and rejection in the group showing changes over the period.
 - B. During the period of the record, how have subgroup's affected the way the group has functioned? Note cliques, conflicts between subgroups, leadership subgroups etc. How have groups based on personal congeniality or personal hostility affected the formation or functioning of authorized groups, such as committees? How have social factors such as occupation or race affected subgroups?
 - C. Does the group treat any of its members consistently in certain roles, such as scapegoats, rebels, clowns, outcasts, or objects of pity to be uplifted by the group? How do you account for the attitudes in these cases – both on the part of the group and from the viewpoint of the individual treated in this way?
 - D. What part has worker played in this process of acceptance, rejection, and status finding? How has he affected the patterns? How has he used it in relation to individuals? To the whole group?
4. How is the group governed?
- A. Does the group have a formal system of control embodied in a constitution or set of rules? If not, what means has it of control? Is so, how much does the group abide by its own rules?
 - B. How much control do the officers exercise over the programme and behaviour of the group? How much is this affected in total group participations? What limits are set over the power of the officials?

- C. What committees does the group have and what are their functions? What part has worker had in setting up of committees? What were his aims here?
 - D. Are there instances of socially inert or passive members? Of dependent or dominated members? Of fringe members not actively engaged in the group? If so, describe psychological basis of their position as you see it.
 - E. Does the group control its members outside of the meeting? In what respects? How is this done?
 - F. What kinds of issues have produced conflicts in the group? How does the group react when it cannot get what it wants? How was authority used in such situations? What part did worker play in such conflicts?
 - G. Is there any unauthorized group or individual controlling or attempting to control the group? How is it working to do this? How successful is it? What methods were used?
 - H. Who are the indigenous leaders of the group? What contribution do they make which accounts for their rise to headship? What needs or drives of their do you think play into their leadership? How do they use their position as leaders in controlling the group?
 - I. What agency regulations or requirements affect control of the group? How are such controls put into effect? What part does the agency staff other than worker have in such control?
 - J. How do attitudes toward authority, neighbourhood tradition, class, habits etc., affect the reactions of the group toward authority and self-government?
 - K. What has the worker done in regard to the control of the group? At what points has he taken control himself? What methods did he use? What were his aims in doing this? What were the results? How has he attempted to establish democratic method through indigenous, leaders?
5. How does the group make up its mind?
- A. What kind of questions required group thinking and collective decision during the period of the record? Were these handled in business meetings? If not, how and where did the discussion occur?
 - B. In the business meeting of the group, is formal parliamentary procedure used? Informal discussions?

- C. How does the group usually come to its decisions? By majority rule? Compromise? Integration? What is the usual attitude of the minorities toward majority decisions? What opportunities are afforded for minority expression of opinion? How does the majority treat minority opinion?
 - D. Has the group had discussions of questions other than those in business meetings? Are they “bull sessions”, planned discussions, “round labels”, “truth sessions”? What subjects have come up for such discussion?
 - E. In the business meetings or subject discussions of the group, what is the quality of the group thinking in terms of information gained or used in the discussion, clarity of thinking, influence of emotional and irrational factors in reaching conclusions, ability to come to integrated group conclusions where necessary, etc?
 - F. What part has worker played in group deliberation? What educational purposes has he had in mind for such deliberative meetings? With what results?
6. What has happened to esprit corps?
- A. What is the general social climate of the group in terms of factors, such as the following: friendliness or hostility toward each other; opportunity for free expression opinion and receptive attitude toward such, attitude toward authority as represented by worker, the agency, or the indigenous leaders; ability to cooperate effectively for common ends? What outside factors, such as physical setting of the group, fatigue, home, school, or work situations have in your opinion affected this climate? If the climate has changed markedly during the period of the record, what has produced this change?
 - B. How has spirit do corps of the group fluctuated during this period? What has produced these fluctuations? How has it been affected by programme, conflicts, interpersonal acceptance and rejection, events outside the group?
 - C. Do the members vary in their attachment to the group? How does this show itself? What is the pattern of group attachments?
 - D. Does the group use any symbols or ritual to express its attachments to the group? Where did these come from? What effect do they have on group cohesion? Or individual reactions to the group? What effect do they have on the group’s standing with other groups in the agency?

- E. What relation has worker to these aspects of the group? What has he aimed to do about it? What resulted?
7. What are the dominant values in the group?
- A. What evidences are there of commonly accepted values affecting the behaviour of the group? Are these values formulated into a clearly understood code? If so, what does the code require of this members in the way of behaviour? What does it forbid? Do these values deviate from the mores of the neighbourhood? If so, how? At what points are they different from those of worker? At what points do they differ from those of the agency?
- B. If the group has certain accepted standards, how do they affect individual behaviour? How are they enforced by the group? Are awards or punishment given?
- C. How are the group values related to its selection of indigenous leaders? Do its stigmatizing of certain members? To what extent does the elected or natural leader embody the group ideal (e.g., in popularity with the other sex, physical powers, prominence in a skill, embodiment of a social purpose, etc.)? In what ways are its values influenced by those of its indigenous leaders?
- D. Does the group indicate rejection of certain values? Does it have an enemy outside itself in the form of another group, racial grouping, or area? If so, how is this hostility expressed? Does it show evidences of social prejudices, racial, religions, economic, etc.?
- E. Does the group think of itself as in line with community standards or is it in revolt against them? Or, if the latter, is it consciously antisocial, or does it consider its standards high than those of the community? In any of these situations, how have you as worker dealt with this attitude toward accepted values?
- F. How is the agency attempting to affect these values? What does worker do about them? What is his aim in doing this? What has resulted?
8. What has been the programme of the group?
- A. List the major activity of each meeting, i.e., business meeting, trip, party.
- B. How is programme determined?

- C. What activities have met with the greatest response? The least?
 - D. What contribution do you feel the programme activities have made to individuals?
 - E. How did the worker's interests and skills affect programme? What was his part in determining it?
9. What is the relation of group to other groups?
- A. Has this group had any relation to other groups inside the agency? How has this group been related to programme planned for whole agency? What effect does this have on its own programme? What contacts has it had outside the agency? Describe the contact in each case in terms of activities engaged in an effect on the group.
 - B. What part has worker played in these intergroup activities? What has he aimed to do through them? What has resulted?
 - C. If this is a representative group, what is its relation to this constituent group?
10. What is the relation of worker to members of the group?
- A. During the group meetings are there certain members who are constantly endangering the effective functioning of the group by such behaviour as bullying weaker members, refusal to carry their share of work, showing off by noisy or irritating behaviour, passively, or day-dreaming, acting tough, monopolizing the leader? What is the relation of worker to these persons? How does he handle this behaviour in the group? How has he used group programme or group pressures to deal with this behaviour? Are there certain members who are normally helpful to the group by such behaviour as making useful suggestions, assuming responsibility, helping or protecting weaker members, quieting noisy members, upholding agency standards, stimulating thinking or control of emotional outbursts of others? What is the relation of worker to these persons? How has he used their behaviour to promote group programme or group relations? How has he used group programme or pressures to develop their capacities? To what extent does the worker work with the officers or committee chairman in planning business meetings or programme?

- B. Outside of the group meeting, what contacts has worker had with members of the group? In lobbies, streets, homes, etc., in which he saw the person by himself or with one or two others? How did these contacts arise? What occurred in the interviews of significance to the person or to the functioning of the group?
- C. In dealing with members on an individual basis, has worker referred members to other agencies or used other resources within the agency?

II) Statistical Summary:

Enrollment at beginning of the period

Number of members added during this period

Including (a) old members re-enrolled

(b) new members enrolled

Number of members dropped during period

Cumulative enrollment

Enrollment attendance

Cumulative attendance

(Summation of attendance at each regular meeting)

Attendance index

$$\frac{\text{Cumulative attendance}}{\text{Enrollment attendance}} = \text{attendance index}$$

12.4 Conclusion

The writing of the records is becoming an integral part of social group work method. Since, social group work is the process of working with the people, it needs to maintain record to conduct the group activities perfectly and methodically. Recording is thus a tool for the improvement of the horizon of different activities concerning the group. In short its utilities are: (1) helps the worker in developing skill in terms of better understanding of the individual, and ability to think analyse and evaluate, (2) helps the group worker to understand the groups as a whole because in the record writing process he becomes aware of the whole, (3) the record provides the worker

with evidence of growth and change in the part of the members and of himself as a worker, thus record serves as an instrument of evaluation, (4) it provides contents for supervision both on the part of the worker and the agency, (5) the record provides a source of future programme planning because it is a reflection of expressed and unexpressed and unfulfilled interests and needs as well as amount of what actually happened, (6) it provides historical data which may be used by new workers to maintain the continuity of work, (7) the record provides data to the higher opportunities, which gives financial support to the agency, (8) the reports sometimes help to resolve the difficulties arising in the course of group activities, (9) the reports helps the absentee members to follow the discussions in the meeting, (10) lastly, these records are of immense value in social research.

Since, WHO in every group is different, the WHAT, HOW and WHY are also different. It is, therefore, impossible to develop a rigid records. Writing records helps the worker to acquire greater skill and sharpen his knowledge and understanding of the complex dynamics of social group work process. The reports must be factual, clear and simple and must fruitfully represent the tempo of group process and the interaction between various people within the group. In the task of evaluating of the work of a group or the agency as a whole, well written and objective reports will go a long way.

12.5 Exercise

1. What do you mean by record? What are the elements of record in social group work?
2. Write in brief the principles of recording.
3. Elucidate the importance of narrative records.
4. What are the meanings of record in the group work process?
5. As a professional gives an outline for group summary records.
6. What is Supervision? What are the functions of supervision?
7. Write in detail the supportive functions of supervision.
8. State how the task model of supervision differs from the developmental model?

9. What activities generally fall under the mode of supervision?
10. What are three ways in which prolonged job related stress affects professional performance?
11. Elucidate the role of a supervisor in the group work process.

12.6 Reference

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