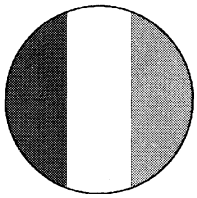
TA-131-SGITC-002

THE ARMY TRAINING SYSTEM (TATS) COURSEWARE

STUDENT REFERENCE/GUIDE

SMALL GROUP INSTRUCTOR TRAINING COURSE (SGITC)

PREPARED BY
HEADQUARTERS
UNITED STATES ARMY
TRAINING AND DOCTRINE COMMAND
FORT MONROE, VA 23651-5000



FOR THE ARMY SCHOOL SYSTEM (TASS) INSTITUTIONS

FIELDING DATE: NOV 99

NON-RECOVERABLE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

This booklet is for use only during this phase of the course and may be kept by the student upon completion of the phase.

Students will bring this booklet to each training session of the phase.

STUDENT'S NAME:_____

UNIT OF ASSIGNMENT:_____

INSTRUCTOR:_____ **CLASS:**_____

The Army School System (TASS) Institutions are to order and issue this booklet only on the basis of one booklet per student per phase.

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SMALL GROUP INSTRUCTOR TRAINING COURSE (SGITC)

STUDENT REFERENCE

JUNE 1998

STUDENT REFERENCE

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Small Group Instructor Training Course

Student Advance Sheet

Introduction

Purpose

This advance sheet introduces you to the Small Group Instructor Training Course (SGITC). It accompanies the Student Handbook and provides you the course objective, procedures and schedule, and lesson study assignments. You are responsible for reading the references prior to attending the listed class. (The Student Handbook is the combination of the Student Reference and the Student Guide.)

Scope

The course emphasizes learning by doing. Consequently, you will find that you do most of the instruction with your fellow students. The course focuses on:

- Adult learning.
- Group development.
- Intervention.
- Self-assessment.
- Active listening.
- Small group instruction methods.

In this advance sheet

This advance sheet contains the following:

Training proponent

The training proponent for the SGITC is:

Commander
U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC)
ATTN: ATTG-CD
Ft. Monroe, VA 23651-5000

Continued on next page

Introduction, Continued

Course manager The SGITC course manager for SGITC delivered over VTT is:

Commander
U.S. Army Training Support Center
ATTN: ATIC-DLC-S
Fort Eustis, VA 23604-5206
DSN: 927-3142
Commercial: (757) 878-3142

Course Overview

Background

The SGITC is a 40-hour course of instruction designed to be presented over video teletraining or from the platform. The SGITC provides the skills and knowledge you need to be a small group leader (SGL). Emphasis is on the small group instruction process, team building, and your role as a facilitator.

Learning objective

This is the learning objective for this course.

Action	Conduct small group instruction.
Condition	Given a group of 4 to 12, instructor-provided instructions, a topic, a small group instruction method, and access to training support.
Standard	Each small group learning activity must include assigned methods, the assigned topic, and. • Group members must participate. • Group must work towards consensus. • Group must work through the Experiential Learning Cycle (ELC). • Group must achieve the training objective.

Prerequisites

You must have the following prerequisites to attend this course:

- Certificate of completion from the Battle Focused Instructor Training Course (BFITC) or another approved Army instructor training course (ITC).
- Assigned or pending assignment as a small group instructor.

Course Overview, Continued

Course completion requirements

To complete this course, you will have to successfully perform the following:

- Successfully lead or facilitate a 1-hour class using a provided lesson plan that specifies an instructional topic, and a small group instruction method, and conduct an AAR of the training event.
- Participate as a constructive member of the group during small group instruction.
- Lead or facilitate a class you currently instruct (or are scheduled to instruct) using an appropriate small group instruction method.

Final presentation requirements

a. Students will select the small group instruction method(s) appropriate for their lesson's training objective. Students must present:

- A lesson objective slide.
- An SGI method slide that identifies the type of SGI method being used.
- A brief discussion of how the SGI methodology is used.
- A 20-minute block of instruction using the selected SGI method.
- A review of the lesson using the ELC.
- A lesson summary and close.

b. Students are also responsible for:

- Preparing sufficient copies of student materials.
- Redesigning their lesson for small group instruction.
- Rehearsing their class.
- A professional presentation.

Evaluation

Your performance as a student discussion leader (SDL) will be evaluated by the course's SGL using the checklist accompanying each lesson.

Testing out

You may not test out of this course. You must participate in all sessions.

Continued on next page

Course Overview, Continued

Student materials

Student materials you should receive include:

Student Handbook

- Student Advance Sheet: Provides SGITC administrative information.
- Student Reference: Provides student readings for SGITC.
- Student Guide: Provides format for student note taking paralleling course slide presentations.

Course Schedule

Background The SGITC will be completed over a 40-hour training period. Each training day begins with a review/preview by the course's SGL and concludes with an AAR of the day's activities.

Course schedule The table below shows the course schedule.

<table>
<tr><th>Time</th><th>Day 1</th><th>Day 2</th><th>Day 3</th><th>Day 4</th><th>Day 5</th></tr>
<tr><td>0800-0830</td><td rowspan="3">Lesson 1: Orientation</td><td>Review/Preview</td><td>Review/Preview</td><td>Review/Preview</td><td rowspan="14">Student Presentations</td></tr>
<tr><td>0830-0900</td><td rowspan="4">Lesson 3: Group Development Parts 2 & 3</td><td rowspan="2">Lesson 5: Intervention</td><td rowspan="2">Lesson 8: Role Playing</td></tr>
<tr><td>0900-0930</td></tr>
<tr><td>0930-1000</td><td rowspan="4">Lesson 2: Roles, Responsibilities and Definitions</td></tr>
<tr><td>1000-1030</td><td rowspan="2">Lesson 6: Leaderless Discussions</td><td rowspan="3">Lesson 9: Committee Problem Solving</td></tr>
<tr><td>1030-1100</td></tr>
<tr><td>1100-1130</td><td>Lesson 4: Intro</td><td rowspan="2">Lunch</td></tr>
<tr><td>1130-1200</td><td rowspan="2">Lunch</td><td rowspan="2">Lunch</td><td rowspan="2">Lunch</td></tr>
<tr><td>1200-1230</td></tr>
<tr><td>1230-1300</td><td rowspan="2">Lesson 3: Group Development Part 1</td><td rowspan="4">Lesson 4: Experiential Learning Cycle</td><td>Lesson 7: Conference</td><td>Lesson 10: Case Studies</td></tr>
<tr><td>1300-1330</td><td rowspan="3">Wrap-up and Student Preparation</td><td rowspan="2">Wrap-up</td></tr>
<tr><td>1330-1400</td><td rowspan="2">Wrap-up</td></tr>
<tr><td>1400-1430</td><td rowspan="2">Student Presentations</td></tr>
<tr><td>1430-1500</td><td>Student Preparation</td><td>Wrap-up and Student Preparation</td></tr>
<tr><td>1500-1530</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>AAR</td></tr>
<tr><td>1530-1600</td><td colspan="5" rowspan="4">Use this time to provide remedial training, assist students with lesson preparation, or adjust VTT schedule for multiple time zones or technical difficulties.</td></tr>
<tr><td>1600-1630</td></tr>
<tr><td>1630-1700</td></tr>
<tr><td>1700-1730</td></tr>
</table>

Study Assignments

Background

Some classes require that you read specific articles in the Student Reference prior to class. These study assignments are in addition to the references that you have to read and understand to lead or facilitate the class assigned to you. You are responsible for completing the assigned study assignments prior to attending the designated classes.

Study assignments

The table below shows the study assignments for the SGITC.

Lesson #	Title	Student Reference Study Assignment
1	Orientation	Chapters 1-6.
2	Roles, Responsibilities, and Definitions	Chapter 1; Chapter 6, page 6-6.
3	Group Development	Chapter 1; Chapter 3; Chapter 5.
4	Experiential Learning Cycle	Chapter 2; Chapter 3, Pages 3-4 and 3-5.
5	Interventions	Chapter 4.
6	Leaderless Discussions	Chapter 6, page 6-5 through 6-15.
7	The Conference	Chapter 6, page 6-5 through 6-13.
8	Role Playing	Chapter 6, page 6-5 through 6-19.
9	Committee Problem Solving	Chapter 6, page 6-5 through 6-19.
10	Case Studies	Chapter 6, page 6-5 through 6-19.

Student Profile and Course Critique

SGITC Critique

Instructions

The course critique includes a student profile and a course critique. It is to be completed by each student in the course. Circle the number from 1 (NOT EFFECTIVE) to 3 (VERY EFFECTIVE) that represents your rating of the course content, facilities, and delivery. Please be candid and specific with your remarks to help the instructor better identify instruction process and content shortcomings. Specify needed improvements for any item designated ineffective.

Submit the completed form to the course instructor. He/she will use the comments to revise materials and/or alter teaching methods to facilitate student learning.

Student Profile Sheet

Data

Date:_____

Name (Last, First, MI):_____

Rank: _____ Organization_____

ITC Certified? YES _____ NO_____

Title of your present job:_____

Time in present job: YEARS _____ MONTHS_____

Primary MOS/AOC:_____

Time in primary MOS/AOC: YEARS _____ MONTHS_____

Secondary MOS/AOC:_____

Time in secondary MOS/AOC: YEARS _____ MONTHS_____

High School graduate: YES _____ NO_____

General equivalency diploma:_____

College graduate: YES _____ NO _____ Yrs completed if NO_____

Post graduate: YES _____ NO _____ Yrs completed if NO_____

Computer access: Home: _____ Work:_____

Modem access: Home: _____ Work:_____

CD-ROM access: Home: _____ Work:_____

Student Signature block:_____

_____

Course Critique

Instructor:_____.

Site location: _____

COURSE CONTENT AND MATERIALS				
☞ Rate the course content and materials on the following points.				COMMENTS
1 = NOT EFFECTIVE		2 = EFFECTIVE		3 = VERY EFFECTIVE
Course materials arrived in time for preparation.	1	2	3	
Learning objectives were identified.	1	2	3	
Lesson content related directly to the learning objectives.	1	2	3	
Evaluation procedures and criteria for performance were explained.	1	2	3	
New vocabulary and concepts were explained to satisfaction.	1	2	3	
Course included activity oriented practical exercises.	1	2	3	
Course was well-paced.	1	2	3	
Read-ahead assignments and handouts were relevant and helpful.	1	2	3	
Course references were available and relevant.	1	2	3	
The time spent in preparation for the course was acceptable.	1	2	3	

Course Critique

COURSE FACILITIES - VTT				
☞ Rate the course facilities on the following points.				COMMENTS
1 = NOT EFFECTIVE	2 = EFFECTIVE		3 = VERY EFFECTIVE	
Visuals were easily read on the VTT monitor.	1	2	3	
VTT facilities were operational throughout the lesson.	1	2	3	
The VTT audio performance was acceptable.	1	2	3	
The VTT video performance was acceptable.	1	2	3	
Site facilities were acceptable.	1	2	3	

COURSE DELIVERY AND NON-VTT FACILITIES				
☞ Rate the course delivery on the following points.				COMMENTS
1 = NOT EFFECTIVE	2 = EFFECTIVE		3 = VERY EFFECTIVE	
Instructor spoke so everyone could hear and understand.	1	2	3	
Instructor maintained eye contact and interacted with class in a positive way.	1	2	3	
Instructor asked questions appropriate to course content.	1	2	3	
Instructor waited an appropriate amount of time for students to respond to questions.	1	2	3	
Instructor encouraged students to ask questions.	1	2	3	
Instructor recognized opposing viewpoints and withheld personal biases.	1	2	3	
Classroom support equipment was appropriate.	1	2	3	
Classroom was conducive to learning	1	2	3	

Comments

Use the following space to make additional comments, elaborate on the comments you have made, or comment on items that were not covered in the checklist.

Performance Evaluation Checklist

Purpose

The PEC is used to assess the SDL and the small group during the SDL presentation of an SGI lesson and final exam.

Who uses this checklist

The following personnel use this checklist:

- Observing groups at the SDL site to rate the group and the SDL.
- SGL to rate the SDL and group performance.

How to use this checklist

a. Observing groups: Fill out one checklist for the group. Discuss your observations and come to consensus. Ensure your discussion does not disturb the SDL's presentation.

Look for positive and correctable SDL attributes and group dynamics. Try to link SDL roles, group process and content issues, and group dynamics to the success of the group meeting the training objective. Report out after the SDL reviews the ELC.

b. SGL: Fill out checklist based on your observations of group and SDL performance.

When to use this checklist

This checklist is used for student lesson presentations (lessons 6-10) and the final exam.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Student Discussion Leader Rating)

Student Name: _____ Date: _____

Evaluator: _____ Rating: _____

Instructions: Evaluate student delivered lessons (6-10) and the final examination with this checklist. Students must receive the number of "GOs" listed next to the evaluated section, i.e., Introduction, 3 "GOs" out of 4. Students must pass each section (Introduction, Body, Conclusion, and ELC) to pass the course. Circle a GO or NO GO for each element in a section and the corresponding rating for that section. Write student rating (a GO or NO GO) on the Rating line above.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
Introduction (3 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Focus group on task?	Go/ No Go	
Clearly state objective?	Go/ No Go	
Motivate/interest students?	Go/ No Go	
Tie SGI method to lesson objective?	Go/ No Go	
Lesson Body (3 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Display SGL roles: - SME? - Facilitator? - Observer?	Go/ No Go	
Involve all students?	Go/ No Go	
Display understanding of SGI method chosen?	Go/ No Go	
ELC (4 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Lead group in publishing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in processing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in generalizing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in applying stage?	Go/ No Go	
Conclusion (2 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Review lesson objective and SGI method relationship?	Go/ No Go	
Summarize lesson results?	Go/ No Go	
Achieve training objective?	Go/ No Go	

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Group)

Lesson: _____ Date: _____

SDL: _____ Evaluator: _____

Instructions: This checklist is used to evaluate group performance during student-led lessons (6-10). Observers within and outside the classroom use the checklist. The SGL uses this form to comment on group productivity and development.

Group criteria do not effect students' evaluation for graduation.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
During the lesson did:		
Group members interact with each other?	Yes / No	
All group members participate?	Yes / No	
Group work as a team?	Yes / No	
Group members provide feedback?	Yes / No	
Each student publish during the ELC?	Yes / No	
Group adheres to the group rules?	Yes / No	
SDL interventions help the group?	Yes / No	
The group focuses on the task?	Yes / No	
Group achieves the training objective?	Yes / No	

Additional Comments:

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

OVERVIEW[1]

The concepts discussed in the following sections of this reference form the foundation for small-group instructional methods. Central to the approach is the use of the social-psychological forces in small groups to enhance and maximize the conditions under which learning occurs.

In the final analysis, the responsibility for learning must rest with the individual student. Learning can occur only within the individual, and he/she must be the final determinant of whether change will, in fact, take place. Thus, the old axiom which states that "if the learner hasn't learned, the teacher hasn't taught" can never be altogether true. But the fundamental responsibility of every instructor is to create around the student those conditions that will be most conducive to learning. This is, in effect, the role of the teacher.

Small-group methods of instruction are one approach to the creation of conditions conducive to learning. Regardless of the particular method used, the rationale for small-group instruction rests upon the premise that learning is partly a function of attitudes, and education or training is a matter of overcoming resistance to change. This can be accomplished by discussing issues or problems and, in many instances, arriving at decisions about how they might be handled. Because the group resolves the problem itself with each student participating, members are committed to the solution through the functioning of group norms endorsing the new ideas or behaviors. Under this rationale, two purposes are assumed to be accomplished: (a) students get new insights into problems by hearing many different viewpoints and by having their own ideas critiqued and (b) they learn new ways of behaving to which they are committed because of group discussion and decision.

For maximum change to occur, a group must possess a common goal for learning, a reasonable degree of cohesiveness, norms conducive to learning, and patterns of effective communication - in short, a learning culture. In permanently structured groups, these ingredients may already be present. However, in most instructional situations, where students usually meet for short periods spread over weeks or months, instructors must create and develop the requisite structure and processes of the group. The various methods used in small-group instruction are merely devices for accomplishing these purposes.

THE NATURE OF PRACTICAL LEARNING

The current rationale begins with the premise that genuine learning involves a change in behavior. In short, if the student does not behave differently after the course than he/she did before, learning has not occurred. Following from such a pragmatic approach, the targets of education and training must be: (a) growth within the individual and change in his/her behavior and (b) deeper and broader goals than the mere transmission of knowledge.

The acquisition of knowledge through solely cognitive processes is one important aspect of individual growth. However, knowledge that remains merely cognitive cannot influence an individual's ability to function effectively. What is needed is a translation of knowledge so that it becomes genuinely significant in the experience of the learner.

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[1] Chapter 1 has been adapted from: Small-Group Instruction: Theory and Practice, Joseph A. Olmstead, Human Resources Organization, Alexandria, VA, 1974.

Knowledge is important to the learner only as it contributes to modification of skills, attitudes, or the internal dynamics of the personality. According to this view, effective learning is insightful, meaningful learning, and isolated information and principles (not tied to problems perceived by the learner as related to his/her life and needs) contribute little to the insight process. Such information and principles are not really "understood." If retained at all, they are pigeonholed or converted to abstractions which possess no real significance for performance.

Learning which can be used is not a matter of filling a void with information. It is a process of reorganization of complex thought patterns, perceptions, assumptions, attitudes, feelings, and skills, and of relating these reorganized concepts to the external world and the problems faced in it. Thus, the learning process is effective only when something dynamic takes place within the learner.

Such learning must be active, participative, and involving. It is best accomplished through continuing experimentation, continual attempts to adjust concepts, and continued checking of one's ideas and interpretations against reality.

Motivation To Learn

Most theories of instruction accept the premise that there must be a readiness for learning before it can occur. In practice, this means that the individual must be capable of changing and must perceive the learning situation as one which can facilitate much change in a direction acceptable to him/her. In short, learning cannot occur unless the individual is motivated and ready to learn.

Fundamental to the rationale for small-group instruction is the concept that the motivation to learn is a matter of attitudes and, what is more, that successful instruction requires not merely the stimulation of positive attitudes toward learning but, more important, the overcoming of attitudes that make the potential learner resistant to change. Much of the methodology of small-group instruction is devoted to overcoming resistance to change.

Attitudes are generally organized and integrated around the person's image of himself/herself, and they result in stabilized, characteristic ways of viewing the world, one's work, and other people. This stable way of viewing the world is comfortable for the individual, and people sometimes go to great length to preserve stability even in the face of facts and information which appear to warrant a change in viewpoint. The suggestion of the need for change not only implies some criticism of the person but also threatens the stability of his/her relationships with the world.

Such threats are especially common in learning situations. The need for learning implies the existence of a deficiency. The suggestion of a deficiency, or the need for change, is likely to be perceived as a threat to the individual's sense of identity and to his/her status position in relation to other people. Therefore, information too threatening for him/her to accept because it attacks the self-image is blocked out or interpreted in such a way as to pose less of a threat. The result is that learning does not really occur.

Furthermore, to learn raises images of potential discomfort or even failure. Learning new things means leaving the tried, sure, and comfortable ways of thinking and behaving, unsatisfactory as they may be. It means setting out along unknown paths and the possibility of encountering unanticipated obstacles which may prove difficult or impossible to overcome. Accordingly, each person inevitably enters a potential change situation with at least some apprehension, either conscious or subconscious, and at most, some severe anxiety.

Thus, both learning and the maintenance of change, once it has occurred, are assumed to have emotional as well as cognitive aspects. Stimulation of the motivation to change in thought and behavior, and to maintain these changes, is considered to be mainly a matter of overcoming both resistance within the student and forces in his/her environment that push against change. Much of small group instructional methodology is devoted to creating conditions intended to minimize resistance and to stimulate motivation to learn.

Conditions For Learning

Changes in behavior do not come easily, either for the student or for the instructor. On the other hand, instruction which is not genuinely intended to achieve change is a waste of time, effort, and money. Accordingly, the most critical problem facing every instructor is the creation of conditions under which change can occur.

Since learning is not solely an intellectual process, the rationale for small-group methods suggests that conditions under which instruction is to occur should take into account both cognitive and emotional aspects. If learning is to be achieved, resistance must be minimized, the student must be exposed to new ideas, and an active functioning frame of reference must be developed which will encompass both an awareness of the need to change and recognition of the
real-life benefits to be derived from new ways of thinking and acting. Instructional methodology intended to accomplish these purposes must meet several requirements.

A Climate for Learning. Probably the most important requirement is a supportive climate that reduces resistance to learning. The process of changing one's patterns of thought and behavior is difficult, and a climate that reduces individual defensiveness and anxiety about exposure of inadequacy is paramount in overcoming resistance to learning.

The purpose is not to protect the student from exposure of inadequacies but rather to create a supportive atmosphere which will encourage him or her to undertake the task of learning, to cope with anxieties and concerns, and to experiment with new ways of thinking and behaving. Development of a supportive atmosphere requires at least two essential conditions within the learning situation. First, threat must be minimized. The climate must be such that defensiveness is reduced and emotional support is provided while the learner is undergoing change in thinking and action. Second, the learning situation must provide reinforcement for new ways of behaving. As the student tries out different ideas and skills, "correct" responses must be reinforced positively and "incorrect" responses must be reinforced negatively so that they will disappear.

Controlled Observation. Much that is presented in the conventional instructional setting never reaches a useful level of explicitness or clarity. For this reason, skill in applying knowledge received in conventional courses is extremely difficult to develop and usually takes years of on-the-job experience. However, the process can be speeded dramatically if opportunity is provided for students to experience situations where a range of thinking and approaches to problems can be made open to observation and analysis.

Passively watching a demonstration or listening to a discussion of a problem is not enough. What is needed is calculated and purposeful observations made under controlled conditions so that the learner becomes actively involved in developing and practicing an analytic attitude. Therefore, a second requirement is for learning situations in which conditions can be so controlled as to maximize practice in observation and analysis.

Varied and Realistic Situations. As stated earlier, the rationale for small-group methods rests upon a conviction that the problem of instruction is not solely to transmit facts or viewpoints but to help the student to translate knowledge so that it becomes meaningful in his/her experience. According to this view, learning occurs when the entire person is involved, that is, when the individual is affected by the knowledge acquired.

The extent to which a student becomes ego-involved in the learning process appears to be a major determinant of its effectiveness. Involvement is greatest when the learning situation can be structured so that students actively participate, rather than remain passive. Although a student may be taught about self-insight and skills of living and working, these can become a part of his or her repertoire of behavior only through living through and learning from a stream of life events we call experience.

Although it is not always possible to create instructional situations identical to those encountered in the world of work, learners can become involved when problems or content are interesting, realistic, and relevant to the work in which the learning is to be applied. Accordingly, a third requirement for learning is opportunity for the student to actually experience functioning in situations which are as realistic and as relevant as possible.

The effective individual possesses the ability to identify the essential elements in a situation while stripping away and disregarding the many factors that are usually present but not relevant. However, in life, conditions are constantly changing, and the effective person must be able to identify the unique characteristics of each situation encountered. Skill in coping with unique situations is best developed when students are exposed to numerous problems which are sufficiently different to require a variety of responses. Accordingly, this requirement includes the opportunity for students to experience not only realistic and relevant situations but a variety of them as well.

Opportunity for Experimentation. Observing the performance of others does not, by itself, lead toward individual growth, even when good conditions for controlled observation in realistic and relevant situations are provided. Such observations help develop an analytical attitude, but they make no demands upon the student to examine his or her own ideas nor do they enable him or her to see himself or herself in action.

Learning new ways of thinking and acting is difficult. Improved learning usually comes in a series of small steps in which the learner tries out a variety of ideas, discarding those that are inappropriate and reinforcing those that are successful. This can occur only when there is freedom to make mistakes. Accordingly, a fourth requirement is the opportunity to experiment with new concepts and new ways of behaving under conditions where mistakes will not have serious consequences for the learner.

Objective Analysis of Own Performance. Although the opportunity to experience new situations is critical for learning, experience alone never benefits anyone. The important factor is the use the individual makes of personal experience. Thus, while the opportunity to experiment is needed, it should be provided under conditions whereby the student can receive information about the effectiveness of new behaviors which have been tried.

Learning is best when students can consciously test their ideas in action, obtain knowledge of the results of the testing, and analyze this information in terms of consequences for future behavior in actual situations. Accordingly, a fifth requirement is opportunity for students to obtain feedback about the

quality of their learned concepts and behaviors and to analyze their learning in terms of consequences for the future.

THE GROUP AS A SETTING FOR LEARNING

Considering the stressful aspects of learning and the requisite conditions outlined in the preceding section, it would seem that the most effective learning can be achieved in situations which provide emotional support to students while also enabling them to practice an analytic attitude, experiment with new concepts, and obtain feedback concerning others' reactions to their newly developed ideas. According to the rationale under consideration here, the above conditions can frequently be provided best within the context of a small group.

Much of education takes place in loosely structured group situations. For example, most normal instruction involves some sort of transaction between teacher, learner, and other students. Although learning is an individual affair, it most frequently occurs within a social context and much of the more complex learning can come about through social interaction. Thus, group forces, either active or latent, are present in almost every educational situation, even though they may be untapped or uncontrolled. Small group instructional methods are designed to systematically use these group forces to influence and increase the learning of individual students. The objective is to build and maintain groups geared to the purpose of learning and to use the forces inevitably present in such groups to create conditions that will be maximally conducive to learning.

Group Forces Affecting Learning

The social-psychological forces that operate in groups are many and varied. Of these, however, a number have been identified as operant in most situations and as particularly relevant to learning. In one form or another, these appear to provide the underlying bases for most small group instructional methods.

Group Goals. A group goal is an objective that is held in common by all or most of the members. Since behavior is goal-directed, a group goal has the properties of concentrating the efforts of members and of mobilizing their efforts toward its achievement. Thus, under proper conditions, group goals have motivational properties that can exert considerable influence upon the behavior of members.

Both research and experience have shown that a greater degree of learning occurs when students are psychologically involved and actively participate in activities in which learning is supposed to take place. Fullest involvement and participation occurs when students accept and become committed to goals of their instructional groups. A principal purpose of small-group methods is to develop instructional groups that possess the goals of increasing opportunities for individual learning.

Group Cohesiveness. The attractiveness of a group largely determines the degree of influence it can exert upon the individual member. If it is attractive to all or most of its members, a feeling of "groupness" develops which is manifested in attitudes of loyalty and a willingness to be influenced. This group cohesiveness is a highly potent force which can, under proper conditions, be a major factor in learning.

One function served by cohesive groups is the establishment of a climate that supports readiness for learning. Such a climate includes the following:

(1) Expectations among members that everyone will learn.

(2) Acceptance that learning and change are desirable and not a mark of previous inadequacy.

(3) Recognition that individuals may make mistakes but, since all are learning, errors will not be punished by the group or other members.

(4) Realistic levels of aspiration for the group and for all members in terms of new learning to be achieved.

Where such a climate exists, group influences can be strong in helping individuals develop a readiness to learn (overcome resistance) and then to change. For example, if the individual likes the group, it can exert pressure upon him/her to change as other members are changing. The fact that other members face the same difficulties is reassuring and, thus, there is less feeling of inadequacy. Moreover, such a group is able to offer potent rewards in the form of acceptance and recognition by other members. These rewards are usually more effective as motivators than those which can be offered by an instructor.

Group Norms. All groups with any degree of cohesiveness develop norms affecting the behaviors of their members. Norms are standards of behavior - shared expectations of what members should do, perhaps even what they should think and how they should feel. In time, these norms become stabilized and become powerful determinants of the behavior of group members. Thus, the development of an effective instructional situation is, in large part, dependent upon the evolution of certain norms which will be facilitative to optimal learning.

Norms may be concerned with just about anything related to the life of a group. Two of the more important ones for small group instruction are norms which permit every member to experience difficulty and norms of objectivity in the analysis and solution of learning problems. These norms are essential ingredients of a climate conducive to learning and, accordingly, are major targets of small-group instructional methods.

The Communication System. In a basic sense, learning is a function of communication. This is true of all learning that occurs in educational or training contexts, especially in group instructional situations. The communications that occur within the group determine the amount and types of learning that will be achieved.

Communication within an instructional group may occur at various levels. Much of the communication may be at the cognitive level, being primarily an exchange of ideas concerned with the topic under examination. However, many communications also carry noncognitive meanings. Thus, people communicate emotions, attitudes, and feelings, all of which may enter into and influence the learning process.

If an instructional group matures and develops a capacity to work as a learning team, members communicate with one another easily and well. When members do not feel the need to defend themselves, and feel secure enough to expose their ideas to the group, the communication level becomes deep enough for genuine learning to occur. Small group instructional methods are intended to provide conditions which will encourage communication that will be conducive to learning.

Functions Served By The Group

The rationale for small-group methods of instruction incorporates concepts of several kinds, including concepts about the nature of learning, factors that influence it, and ways in which it can be induced. However, underlying all of these is the fundamental premise that much of practical learning involves a social transaction; that is, it requires an interpersonal exchange between people.

On the face of it, this premise is not much different from the one underlying conventional instruction. Both conventional techniques and small-group methods operate from the assumption that much of learning occurs as the result of interaction between people. The principal difference seems to be in the place of the interaction and in the way learning results from it.

It would be foolish to claim that conventional instruction operates from any single set of integrated concepts which could be sharply contrasted with small group methods. Too much of educational philosophy and practice is presently in a state of transition. Furthermore, many of the current debates are squarely grounded in conflicting notions about learning. Yet, through much of conventional education and training runs the concept of a fixed body of knowledge or doctrine and of naive learners who have not acquired the information or skills necessary to apply this knowledge in practical ways. According to this view, learning refers to the process by which learners acquire the information and skills from someone (an instructor) who is already in possession of them.

Small group methods start with a different overall view of learning as a transaction between a learner and other learners, all of whom constitute a group. Under this concept, neither the learners nor the body of knowledge are fixed, and both undergo modification during the transaction. In other terms, this means that much of learning how to use knowledge in a practical way occurs through interaction between learners. During this process, concepts, practices, and additional knowledge from past experience can be exchanged, molded, and integrated with information from instructors, and formed into a workable frame of reference which can later be applied to problems in the real world. Thus, in small-group instruction, the principal interaction is within the learning group, and learning results from the exchange that occurs within the group.

Many of the concepts derived from learning theory apply equally in small-group instruction. Perhaps the most useful are the concepts of reinforcement and feedback. With regard to reinforcement, one learns in groups as elsewhere - by responding to a stimulus. However, in the learning group, the stimulus is the behavior of other people. "Correct" responses are reinforced positively and tend to become established in the learner's repertoire of responses. "Incorrect" responses are negatively reinforced and tend to disappear. In the learning group, other members are the agents of positive and negative reinforcement.

A major difference appears, however, in the determination of which responses are "correct." In conventional instruction, the correctness of the response to be learned tends to be predetermined by instructor, doctrine, or a machine programmer. This definition of correctness is held constant during the entire learning experience. On the other hand, in small-group instruction, group members function both as learners and as environment. Standards of appropriateness of stimulus and response are worked out through the "give and take" of an evolving discussion.

Closely related is the concept of "feedback." This concept is concerned with the powerful learning effects of prompt feedback to the learner about the effects of his/her exploratory responses. In all forms of learning, knowledge of the results of trial responses is deemed essential. This is no less true in

small-group instruction. A principal aim is to provide conditions under which a learner may receive prompt feedback concerning the new ideas and skills which are being tested. In small-group instruction, this feedback is supplied either by other group members or by discussion leaders, depending upon conditions and the method used.

In small-group instruction, the group provides an environment within which learning is both stimulated and tested. As a stimulus environment, the group serves three functions which differentiate small-group instruction from individual-centered education or training. The functions involve resources, social motivation, and social influence.

Resources. One of the principal functions of the group is to serve as a resource to learners. The typical group will have a wider range of information and a greater critical facility than any individual member. Furthermore, the greater potential resources make the group more likely to discover a wider range of alternatives than a single member. The pooling of individual judgments also tends to eliminate erroneous or inappropriate concepts and conclusions. Because group discussion is selective, the final product will probably have eliminated many of the poorer alternatives generated by members. Thus, selectivity often improves the quality of learning.

It cannot be assumed that more information, greater critical facility, and opportunity to pool judgments will inevitably improve the quality of learning in groups. The existence of a group merely makes these resources available. However, unless they are used effectively, they may contribute little and, under some conditions, can actually impede learning because of the confusion which may be created among members.

Social Motivation. Because motivation is a critical determinant of learning and because factors that influence motivation are, in education and training, predominantly social, the motivational consequences of group interaction are difficult to overemphasize. The mere presence of other people in a learning situation creates new motivational implications because many of the goals and rewards valued by most individuals are available only from interaction with other people. These effects are further strengthened when an actual group is developed. Under these conditions, the forces that operate in all groups channel and focus individual motivation in directions determined by the collective goals.

Just as with the provision of resources, the existence of a group situation does not necessarily insure that motivational forces will be directed toward learning. A group can be a powerful source of social motivation; however, the nature and direction of that motivation will be determined by the goals of the group and the conditions that exist within it.

Social Influence. The social influence function of learning groups is concerned with the development and enforcement of norms governing the attitudes and behavior of group members. In small-group instruction, group influence is exerted through standards related to type and amount of participation, collaboration between members, depth of discussion, feedback to be provided members, levels of communication, support given discussion leaders, and similar factors. Although many factors may affect the ability of a group to influence its members, its potential for influencing a particular individual is determined, in large part, by the extent of attraction to the group and of desire to remain in the group and to be accepted by other members.

Again, the existence of a group is not assurance that its norms will be conducive to learning. Depending upon conditions, norms may develop around any issue that has relevance for a group and may exert influence in any direction. An important problem for instructors is to create conditions that will ensure the development of norms that are conducive to learning.

CHAPTER 2

EXPERIENTIAL

LEARNING

CYCLE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STRUCTURED EXPERIENCE[2]

In creating, adapting, and conducting structured experiences, the small group leader needs both a unifying theory and a practical translation of thinking. This introduction will explore a variety of methods and design features that we can incorporate into a range of structured experiences. We can use these ideas both in developing structured experiences and in making sure that existing ones fit the learning readiness of a particular group at a particular time.

OVERVIEW OF THE EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE/ADULT LEARNING MODEL

Experiential learning occurs when a person engages in some activity, looks back at the activity critically, draws some useful insight from this analysis, and puts the result to work. Of course, we all experience this process spontaneously in ordinary living. We call it an inductive process: proceeding from observation rather than from a prior truth (as in the deductive process). We can define learning (and the usual purpose of training) as a relatively stable change in behavior. A structured experience provides a framework in which we can facilitate the inductive process. The stages of the cycle are listed below.

STAGES OF THE EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE/ADULT LEARNING MODEL

Experiencing

The initial stage is the data-generating part of the structured experience. We often associate this stage with some event, game, or fun. This is the experience that must be processed through the stages of the ELC to maximize the learning applications. Obviously, if the cycle stops after this stage, all learning is left to chance. The small group leader must take the group through all stages of the ELC.

We can use almost any activity that involves either self-assessment or interpersonal interaction as the "doing" part of experiential learning. The following are common individual and group activities:

- vehicle maintenance
- section drills
- squad competition
- confidence course
- leadership scenarios
- field exercises
- counseling

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[2] "Introduction to the Structured Experience," adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1980 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1980.

Individuals, pairs, groups of three, small groups, group-on-group arrangements, or large groups can carry out these activities. Of course, the learning objectives would dictate both the activity and the appropriate groupings.

It is important to note that the objectives of structured experiences are necessarily general. We state them in terms such as to explore..., to examine..., to study..., to identify..., etc. We cannot specify beforehand the exact things to be learned. All that we want in this stage of the learning cycle is to develop a common database for the discussion that follows. This means that whatever happens in the activity, whether we expect it or not, becomes the basis for critical analysis.

The next four phases of the experiential learning cycle are even more important than the experiencing phase. Accordingly, the small group leader needs to be careful that the activity does not generate too much data or create an atmosphere that makes discussion of the results difficult. There can be a lot of excitement and fun as well as conflict in human interactions, but these are not synonymous with learning; they provide the common references for group inquiry.

Publishing

In the second stage of the cycle, people that have experienced an activity are presumably ready to share what they saw and how they felt during the activity. The intent here is to make the experience of each individual available to the group. This step involves finding out what happened within individuals, at both cognitive (knowledge and perception) and affective (emotional and feeling) levels, while the activity was progressing. You may find the following methods helpful to facilitate the publishing or declaring of the reactions and observations of individual group members:

- Recording data during the experiencing stage.
    - rating of such things as productivity, satisfaction, confidence, leadership, communication, etc.
    - adjectives capturing feelings at various points.
- Quick free-association go-arounds on various topics concerning the activity.
- Subgroup sharing - generating lists such as the double-entry one "What we saw/how we felt."
- Posting round robin lists - total-group input recorded on butcher paper.
- Ratings - developing ratings of relevant dimensions of the activity, tallying, and averaging these measures.
- Go-around - systematic interviewing of individuals about their experience during the activity.
- Role-Identification - asking group members to identify roles they played during the experiencing stage.
- Interviewing pairs - asking each other "what" and "how" questions about the activity.

The group can carry out publishing through free discussion, but this requires that the small group leader be absolutely clear about the differences in the stages of the learning cycle and distinguish sharply

among interventions in the discussion. Group members often focus energy on staying inside the activity. The small group leader needs to nudge them into separating themselves from it in order to learn. Techniques such as those above make the transition from stage one (experiencing) to stage two (publishing) cleaner and easier. That, after all, is the job of the small group leader - to create clarity with ease.

Processing

This stage is the pivotal step in experiential learning. Group members systematically examine their common shared experience. This is the group dynamics phase of the cycle where group members essentially analyze what happened. Group members try to determine why it happened the way it did. This talking-through part of the cycle is critical. We must include it if we want to develop useful learning. The small group leader needs to plan carefully how the group will carry out processing and focus the processing toward the next stage, generalizing. Group members may experience unprocessed data as unfinished business. This may distract them from further learning. Below are several techniques we can use in the processing stage:

- Process observers - reports, panel discussions. (Note: Observers are often unduly negative and need training in performing their functions.)
- Thematic discussion - looking for recurring topics from the reports of individuals.
- Sentence completion - writing individual responses to such items as "The leadership was...," "Participation in this activity led to..."
- Questionnaires - writing individual responses to items developed for the particular structured experience activity.
- Data analysis - studying trends and correlations in ratings and adjectives elicited during the publishing stage.
- Key terms - posting a list of dimensions to guide the discussion.
- Interpersonal feedback - focusing attention on the effect of the role behaviors of significant members in the activity.

We should thoroughly work through this stage before going on to the next. Group members need to look at what happened in terms of dynamics but not in terms of meaning. What occurred was real, of course, but it was also somewhat artificially contrived by the structure of the activity. An awareness of the dynamics of the activity is critical for learning about human relations outside of the laboratory setting. Group members often anticipate the next step of the learning cycle and make premature generalization statements. The small group leader needs to make certain that the processing has been adequate before moving on.

Generalizing

At this point in the structured experience, we move from the reality inside the activity to the reality of everyday life outside the training session. The key question here is, "What is the relevance?" Group members focus their awareness on situations in their personal and work lives that are similar to those in the activity they experienced. From the processing stage, they form principles they can apply outside.

This step is what makes structured experiences practical. If we omit or gloss over it, the learning is likely to be superficial. Here are some strategies for developing generalizations from the information generated in the processing stage:

- Fantasy - guiding group members to imagine realistic situations back home and determining what they have learned in the discussion that might be applicable there.
- Truth with a little "t" - writing statements from the processing discussion about what is true about the real world.
- Individual analysis - writing "What I learned," "What I'm beginning to learn," "What I re-learned."
- Key terms - posting topics for potential generalizations, such as leadership, communication, feelings, etc.
- Sentence completion - writing completions to items such as "The effectiveness of shared leadership depends on...."

The small group leader needs to remain impartial about what the group is learning by drawing out the reactions of others to generalizations that appear incomplete, absolute, or controversial. Group members sometimes anticipate the final stage of the learning cycle also. They need to keep on the track of clarifying what they learned before discussing changes.

In the generalizing stage, the small group leader may introduce information to link theory and research to the generalizing stage to the real world. This practice provides a framework for the inductive learning and checks the reality orientation of the process. However, this practice may lessen commitment to the final stage of the cycle. The group members do not "own" the outside information - a common occurrence in deductive processes.

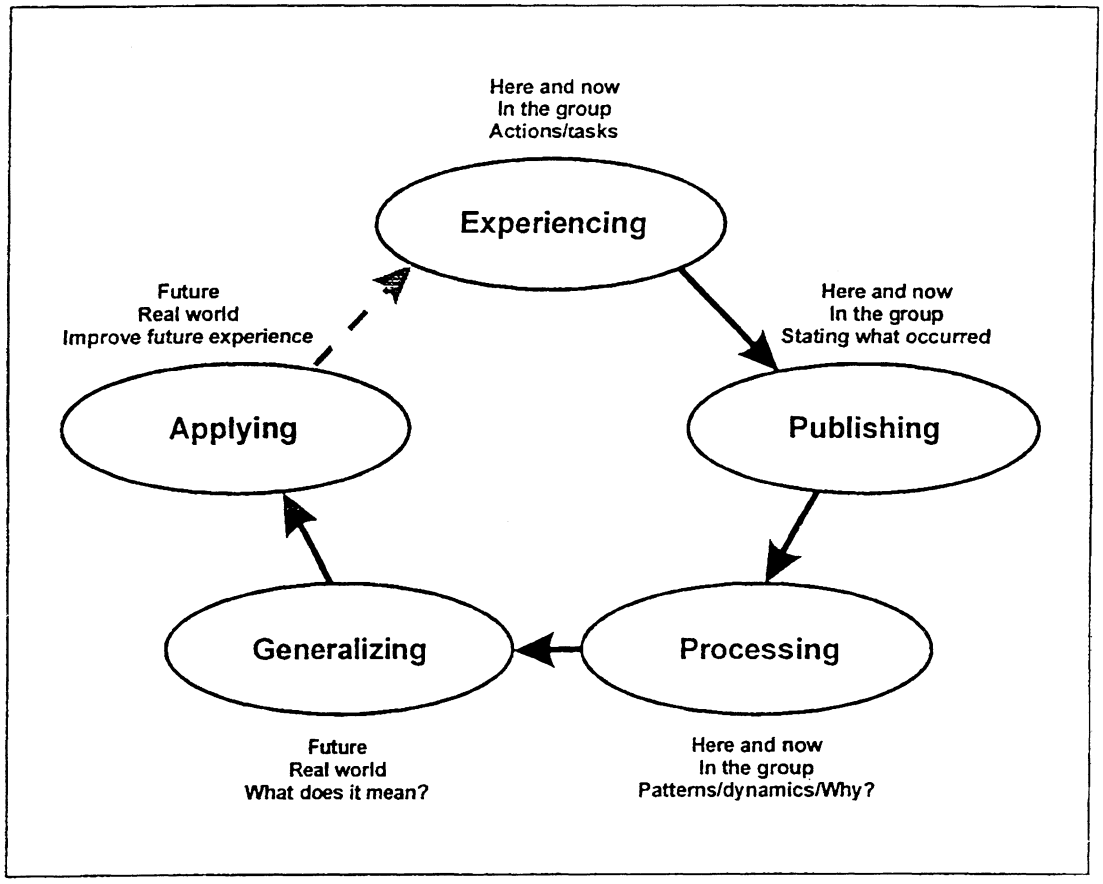
Applying

The final stage of the experiential learning cycle is actually the purpose of the structured experience. The central question here is, "Now what?" The small group leader helps group members apply generalizations to actual situations which they are experiencing. Ignoring such discussion jeopardizes the probability that the learning will be useful. It is critical that we design ways for group members to use what they have learned during the structured experience to plan more effective behavior. Below are some strategies to use in this stage:

- Consulting groups of two or three - taking turns helping each other with "back home" problem situations, applying generalizations.
- Goal setting - writing applications according to such goal criteria as performance, involvement, realism, and observableness.
- Contracting - making explicit promises to each other about applications.
- Subgrouping - in groups with common interests discussing generalizations in terms of what they can do more effectively.
- Practice session - role playing actual situations to attempt to change behavior.

Individuals are more likely to implement their planned applications if they share them with others. Volunteers can report what they intend to do with what they learned. This can encourage others to experiment with their behavior also.

It is important to note that on the diagram of the experiential learning cycle (below) there is a dotted arrow from "applying" to "experiencing". This indicates that the actual application of the learning is a new experience for group members to examine inductively also. What structured experiences teach, then, is a way of using one's everyday experiences as data for learning about human relations. We sometimes refer to this as re-learning how to learn. Actually, there are other ways to learn. For example, we learn skills best through practice toward an ideal model, knowledge of results, and positive reinforcement. Also, structured experiences do not easily develop large-scale perspective. Lecture-discussion methods are probably superior for such a purpose. What experiential learning does accomplish, though, is a sense of ownership over the learning that occurs. We achieve this most easily by making certain that we develop each stage of the learning cycle adequately.



THE EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING MODEL AND ITS APPLICATIONS TO GROUPS[3]

We can better understand the experiential model by comparing it with traditional classroom lecture or conferences (didactic model).

Experiential Compared To Traditional

In the experiential model, learners participate and are actively involved in learning. They are more responsible for their own learning. In the didactic model, however, the focus is primarily on the teacher while the learner's responsibility is to take notes, listen, think, memorize or duplicate the content of the course on an examination.

Focus

The focus of the experiential model is on content **and** process. The group members experience the issues as well as identify them intellectually. In contrast, the didactic model concentrates on content. The didactic leader gives the examples and students accept them on faith. They do not experience the examples.

Another basic difference is that a small group leader and the group members in an experiential setting, more readily identify a group member's learning stance (interest, involvement, motivation, attention span, readiness, etc.) than in a didactic setting. A group member in an experiential setting explores his or her learning stance overtly. But in a traditional didactic model, members do not need to interact. No one declares, challenges, or even vaguely knows the learning stances.

"Nothing is more relevant to us than ourselves." Experiential learning is based on this concept. In other words, experiential learning provides a forum for self-knowledge. Regardless of the content under consideration, group members must see, hear about, and examine their own uniqueness in action. The experiential model, then, allows both cognitive (knowledge) and affective (emotional) behavioral involvement. The didactic model usually makes most things outside the presentation seem inappropriate. Experiential learning combines a personal reference point, cognitive and affective involvement and feedback, and theoretical and conceptual material for a more complete learning event. Evaluation in experiential learning is usually more continuous and more internal than the evaluation procedures traditionally used in a didactic model.

The experiential group leader and group members will be more aware of their reactions to the experience, whether positive or negative, since commenting on the process is a legitimate thing to do. The didactic leader, by contrast, may often be left wondering how he or she is doing.

Transferability

In an experiential model, group members usually initiate issues themselves. Therefore, the individual will probably be able to repeat the behavior he or she learned outside the group setting. This may be because the individual changed on his or her own, without expert help. The learner has strong ownership of his or her decisions to change behavior.

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[3] "The Experiential Learning Model and Its Application to Groups," adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1975 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1975.

Advantages

One of the major strengths of the experiential learning model is that we can adapt it to many situations or content areas. Once we identify a particular topic, issue, concern, or learning objective, we can design activities or structured experiences. Many types of activities lend themselves to this model. We can use them in the development of personal growth, communication skills, interpersonal relationships, life/career planning, leadership, decision-making, problem-solving, creativity, group roles, group dynamics, conflict resolution, bargaining, individual and group competition, collaboration, planning and organizing, and interviewing techniques.

Factors To Consider In Experiential Learning

Group Leader Responsibility

The group leader must consciously avoid assuming responsibility for others. Group members will often try to shift responsibility or blame to the group leader or the situation. Yet the greatest potential for learning rests in group members becoming fully aware of their responsibility for their behavior.

Task Focus

We must not focus the structured experience too exclusively on the task. Members can experience many of the activities at a games level, but the group leader must always focus on the process and related issues and not focus on only the content. The process of understanding the content (experience) will allow students to maximize learning.

Group leaders must also realize that there is considerable skill involved in working with people and in conducting these structured experiences. Explicit directions for conducting a particular experience by themselves do not guarantee even minimal success. Group leaders have to know much more about the model than simply its step-by-step instructions.

Group Leader Vulnerability

In the experiential model, group leaders are much more vulnerable in terms of feeling and behavior. They are no more visible in this model, but since it provides a vehicle for them to receive feedback, they must be ready to confront action and feelings directed toward them. They may be unaccustomed to dealing with these behaviors. Group leaders should remember that the use of the experiential model takes time. They should take care not to crowd the experience, leaving sufficient time for discussion and summarizing. Effectiveness depends on thorough planning.

If group leaders understand the basic components of the experiential model, the most important skills they can bring to the situation are their ability to be sensitive to people; to know where they are and what they expect, fear, or anticipate; and to select the appropriate leadership style, experience, content presentation, and timing sequence to fit the diverse needs of the situation.

Central Issues Confronted

The experiential learning model has power and impact because it confronts basic psychological issues with which people have to deal every day. This adds to the interest and involvement of the members during an activity, and it contributes significantly to the transfer of learning. Once members see the

relationship between these issues and their demonstration in the experience, the relevance of the model becomes clear.

The model gives group members an opportunity to examine their feelings and behavior when they interact with other individuals. The issues of intimacy, anger, and aggression are central to most people's daily interactions, and group members gain an increased awareness of these issues through focused experiences. They also begin to identify their own personal styles in relationships. Group members not only confront their personal responses to different emotions but also participate in situations that generate a broad spectrum of feelings. Examining these feelings identifies and legitimizes individual differences and helps to expand group members' awareness and understanding of the function their emotions play in their behavior.

Rationale for Use

There are five major reasons for using the experiential learning model:

(1) We can reach more people using the same resources. This can broaden the effect of the group leader, producing higher efficiency in learning.

(2) We can apply this technique in various settings and adapt it to meet the diverse learning objectives of nearly any group. Sample activities and populations include career planning in the school system, communication skills training for university undergraduates and graduates, leadership training programs for business, industry, and military and organizational development.

(3) The use of this model allows exploration of communication skills and interpersonal relationships within organizations. The helping professions are able to accomplish their mental health objectives for a much larger number of people.

(4) Using the experiential model provides group members with the opportunity to experience and understand issues related to responsibility. It gives them the opportunity to be responsible for their own learning and behavior rather than having this responsibility rest with someone else.

(5) The model provides people with a peer group experience where they are able to demonstrate for themselves their capacities to help each other grow. They can observe their abilities to make exciting learning outcomes occur for each other without an instructor, trainer, counselor, or teacher directly involved.

Role of the Group Leader

Group leaders have a central role in the implementation of the experiential model, but in many ways their duties and responsibilities are much different from what they would be in other models. The following five steps describe these responsibilities in terms of process and content.

Step 1. Preparation. A major portion of group leaders' responsibilities rests in their work prior to the event. They must diagnose the learning needs of the group and set some objectives for the planned activity. Accurate diagnosis of the learning objective is critical. The activity not only should cover the appropriate content issues but also must be compatible with the readiness and sophistication of the group.

Group leaders must identify and prepare all the materials they need for the experience and ensure that the physical facilities are adequate.

Group leaders should spend time reviewing the material and the sequence of events for the experience. They must anticipate any consequences and develop contingency plans. They should complete all preparation before the session begins.

Step 2. Introduction. At the beginning of the session, group leaders have several critical process tasks which affect the quality of the entire experience. First, they must introduce the activity and give clear instructions to the group members. Since group members have a tendency to question and evaluate the proposed activity, the primary objective at this stage must be involvement. The group leader should not allow the group to discuss the activity fully or the group will never get to the activity itself. He or she should ask the group to suspend judgement, to become involved in the activity, and to be ready to evaluate it later. A group's rejection of these requests could indicate a lack of trust, suggesting that the group leader invest further effort in diagnosing the learning readiness of the group.

Step 3. Activity. During this step of the process the group leader has both content and process tasks. In terms of content, he or she is responsible for conducting the experience, giving instructions, distributing material, and performing any other functions the activity requires. While the groups are working, the group leader notes the actions of the members and compiles a list of issues or relevant points about the focus of the activity that specific behavior can illustrate. The process responsibility of the group leader seems quite simple on the surface: he or she must not become involved, either unconsciously or deliberately. However, group members often make many attempts to draw the group leader into their process, and these invitations are sometimes difficult to refuse. The group leader should be able to accept the basic principle of this approach: that learning can take place without direct expert invention.

Step 4. Publish and Process. The observations that the group leader made during the activity step can form the basis of the Publish and Process step. If some of the group members were also observers, the group leader solicits their comments. During this step, the group leader attempts to help group members relate their experiences to existing knowledge.

Step 5. Generalization. During this step of the model, the group leader has several content tasks and some critical process responsibilities. He or she links observations of the activity to theory, making connections and generalizations helpful to the group members. As an integral part of this generalizing activity, questions will arise about both the content of the activity and the process that occurred, including the group leader's behavior. Whatever happened during the activity can provide data for learning.

In order to maximize the learning that occurs and the chances that it will transfer, the time spent in the Publish and Process step and the Generalization step should at least equal the time for the Introduction and the Activity steps. Inadequate time for these steps is perhaps the most common design error that group leaders make.

Experiential learning techniques offer great benefits for both group members and group leaders. Some hazards do exist in the implementation. But if group leaders are careful in choosing the activities and consider the rationale and uses of the experiential learning model, they will have an extremely practical technique to use with their groups.

PROCESSING QUESTIONS FOR EACH STAGE OF THE EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE[4]

Usually in stage one, the experiencing phase, group members participate in an activity to generate data. Processing the data does not actually begin until the second (publishing) stage. However, since group members sometimes resist beginning and/or completing an activity, the group leader may find the following questions helpful in stage one. They are usually "no fail" questions because (1) they tend to break down the group members' resistance by encouraging involvement in the activity; (2) if they do not break down the resistance, then processing this resistance becomes the learning; and (3) we can use them at any stage of the experiential cycle. They are key questions which the group leader can use along with summarizing and reflecting to help the group move either more deeply into the stage at hand or on to another stage.

- What is going on?
- How do you feel about that?
- What do you need to know to _____?
- Would you be willing to try?
- Could you be more specific?
- Could you offer a suggestion?
- What would you prefer?
- What are your suspicions?
- What is your objection?
- If you could guess at the answer, what would it be?
- Can you say that in another way?
- What is the worst/best that could happen?
- What else?
- Would you say more about that?

In stage two, the publishing phase, group members have completed the experience. Questions focus on generating data.

- Who would volunteer to share? Who else?
- What happened?
- How did you feel about that?

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[4] "Processing Questions for Each Stage of the Experiential Learning Cycle" adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1979 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1979.

- Who else had the same experience?
- Who reacted differently?
- Were there any surprises?
- How many felt the same?
- How many felt differently?
- What did you observe?
- What were you aware of?

In stage three, the processing phase, group members now have data. Questions focus on making sense of that data for the individual and the group.

- How did you account for that?
- What does that mean to you?
- How was that significant?
- How was that good/bad?
- What struck you about that?
- How do those fit together?
- How might it have been different?
- Do you see something operating there?
- What does that suggest to you about yourself/your group?
- What do you understand better about yourself/your group?

In stage four, the generalizing phase, group members work toward forming principles which they derived from the specific knowledge they have gained about themselves and their group. Questions focus on promoting generalizations.

- What might we draw/pull from that?
- Is that plugging into anything?
- What did you learn/relearn?
- What does that suggest to you about _____ in general?
- Does that remind you of anything?
- What principle/law do you see operating?

- What does that help explain?
- How does this relate to other experiences?
- What do you associate with that?
- So what?

In stage five, the applying phase, group members discuss using what they learned in their real-world situations. Questions focus on applying the general knowledge they have gained to their personal and professional lives.

- How could you apply/transfer that?
- What would you like to do with that?
- How could you repeat this again?
- What could you do to hold on to that?
- What are the options?
- What might you do to help/hinder yourself?
- How could you make it better?
- What would be the consequences of doing/not doing that?
- What modifications can you make work for you?
- What could you imagine/fantasize about that?

We can add a final stage here, that of processing the entire experience as a learning experience. Questions focus on soliciting feedback.

- How was this for you?
- What were the pluses/minuses?
- How might it have been more meaningful?
- What's the good/bad news?
- What changes would you make?
- What would you continue?
- What are the costs/benefits?
- If you had it to do over again, what would you do?
- Any suggestions?

Many of these questions may elicit similar responses, thereby offering the group leader several avenues to achieve the same goal.

Questioning Disadvantages

One disadvantage in using processing questions is that the group leader may come to rely solely on these questions without becoming knowledgeable about the concept, issue, or theory the experience is illustrating. A second disadvantage is a more philosophical one: questions are actually indirect statements that hide one's own reactions to the experience. The group leader can do one or both of the following to overcome this disadvantage: (1) turn each of the questions into statements such as, "I'd like to know what you're feeling," and (2) share his or her own experiences during the processing of the learning cycle ("What happened for me was..."; "What I learned was...").

Both of these disadvantages emphasize the fact that questions in themselves are neither good nor bad; it is how the group leader uses them that is the object of evaluation.

Questioning Advantages

The advantages in using processing questions are several. If the experience is going as planned, the group leader has a tool for guiding the experiential learning cycle at the pace, depth, breadth, and intensity that he or she deems appropriate. If the experience is not going as planned, the group leader has a tool for deriving learning from what is occurring, so that group members gain something beneficial regardless of their attitudes and reactions. The greatest advantage is that we can use these questions with virtually any experience in nearly any situation with the vast majority of group members. They are generalizable and transferable, and they are guaranteed to evoke learning. A group leader's nature and skills of sharing, empathizing, and listening are most important to the appropriate use of this technique. However, armed with these questions, the consciously competent group leader can be sure and make sure that something always happens in the experiential learning process.

CHAPTER 3

GROUP DEVELOPMENT,

CONSENSUS,

AND

FEEDBACK

INTRODUCTION

Small group instruction (8-12 persons) should differ in many ways from traditional instruction in a class of 20 or more students. Note the use of the word "should". An instructor can teach a small group in the same way as a large class. However, to do so is to lose the value of using a small learning group in the first place.

The strength of a small group learning environment is to allow the students to interact with one another during the learning process. This interaction results in synergism - that geometric payoff in learning and retention that comes from student interaction. The problem solving power of the group is much greater than of its individual members. As students help develop one another's ideas, they reach insights that otherwise would not have been possible.

The small group leader (SGL) helps create an environment where learning and synergism can take place for the benefit of the students. He facilitates the process as it occurs to help the group function smoothly and achieve its goals.

To accomplish this, the SGL must be able to perform in a variety of roles. These roles include being an astute analyst of group process and an adept contributor when the situation calls for action.

THE SGL AND THE SMALL GROUP

The roles of the SGL are: subject matter expert, observer, and facilitator of group process.

Subject Matter Expert. Just as in the traditional classroom, the small group leader is a subject matter expert. As such, he/she should have knowledge of the subject matter and experience as an instructor. In this sense, the SGL is a special resource person who contributes to the total learning environment.

Observer. The constant role of the SGL is observer. He must be aware of nonverbal communication and be able to observe it, interpret it, and take action based on it. One of the key abilities of a small group leader is that of accurate observation.

Facilitator of Group Process. The success of a small group depends upon the ability of the SGL to help the small group function effectively. The SGL can do this by applying knowledge of group behavior to the small group he/she is working with. The SGL assists the group with its process to ensure the training objective is met.

Now that the roles of the small group instructor have been briefly explained, let's look at what goes on in small groups. Armed with this and some knowledge of behaviors that will be discussed later, the instructor can correctly diagnose what the group is doing and can decide which of the three roles (subject matter expert, observer, or facilitator) to assume to help the group achieve the learning objective. An important point to note is that the SGL must first diagnose the effectiveness of the group before deciding which role to assume. The SGL should never do anything without a reason.

The Process and the Content[5]. In a small group there are always two things happening at the same time - something is being talked about (the content), and it is being talked about in a certain way (process). For instance, the students may be discussing the subject of leadership - this is the content of the discussion. During the discussion, perhaps one student is dominating the conversation; another student is leaning far back in his chair; most of the comments being made are addressed directly to the instructor rather than to the group as a whole. These are all elements of the process, that is, the way the group is operating as it discusses the content - leadership.

The SGL can influence both the content and the process dimensions of small group learning. Based on observations, the SGL may decide to influence the content dimension by adopting the subject matter expert role and interjecting some content knowledge. The SGL can adopt the facilitator-of-group process role to influence the process dimension by drawing attention to the inefficient or ineffective methods the students are using in their discussion. The SGL could also decide not to intervene in either dimension and adopt a low-profile, observer role.

The SGL always assumes one of the three possible courses of action available to influence the events taking place in the small group: (1) influence the content, (2) influence the process, or (3) choose to not directly influence either. Remember, he must have a reason for choosing which course of action to take.

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[5] "Content and Process" adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1972.

Stages of Small Group Development[6]. Whereas the behavior of an individual may be considered somewhat unpredictable, when individuals get together to form a small group, the behavior of the group has some predictable aspects or stages of development. All small groups go through these stages. The stages are (1) dependent/inclusion/acceptance, (2) independent/control/influence, and (3) interdependent/cohesion/affection. Several names are associated with each stage here because they all are descriptive and all are in common use.

During the dependent/inclusion/acceptance stage of development, the group is characterized as polite and looking for approval and guidance from the SGL. A rough parallel to a group in the dependent stage is the dependency children have on their parents.

During the independent/control/influence stage the group is characterized as openly argumentative. One or two individuals force decisions on the group, and some members challenge the authority of the SGL.

A group in the interdependent/cohesion/affection stage is one that has progressed through the dependent and independent stages to a stage of cooperation, problem solving, and high productivity.

Some general principles to keep in mind about the stages of group development are listed below:

1. The time a group spends in each stage of development varies with the particular group.

2. The job of the SGL is two-fold - to move the group to the highly productive interdependent/cohesion/affection stage and to positively influence the group's learning regardless of its stage of development.

3. The time a group spends in any stage can be influenced by the actions of the SGL in the facilitator-of-group process role, but it is also dependent on other factors such as previous group experience by the students, their familiarity with each other, and the time they have been together as a group.

4. A group in the independent/control/influence or interdependent/cohesion/affection stage can "reset" to an earlier stage if a change in membership occurs. This also applies if the SGL changes.

5. For a group to get to the interdependent/cohesion/affection stage it must go through the dependent/inclusion/acceptance and independent/control/influence stages in that order - there are no short-cuts.

These points are extremely important for the SGL to keep in mind for they clearly indicate what the job as facilitator is: to get the group from the independent to the interdependent stage. They also let the SGL know what to expect along the way.

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[6] "Stages of Group Development" is adapted from the Handbook for Staff Group Instructors published by the Center for Army Leadership.

WHAT IS GOING ON

The stages of small group development give the foundation for the SGL's diagnosis. In other words, he will diagnose what stage of development the group has reached. The SGL can then accurately decide which course of action would be most effective (remember, there are essentially three - influence the content, influence the process, and not intervene at all). At this point we will look at the behavioral dimensions which can be used to make the diagnosis just described. Following that, we will return again to the possible actions the SGL can take and formulate decision criteria for their use.

Behavioral Dimensions

Norms. Norms are the rules of behavior that groups operate by. For the most part they develop without being formally instituted. In that norms are not openly decided on, they can be thought of as developing covertly. They are usually based on custom, observed behavior, and/or assumption. Operating norms that the SGL can identify are valuable clues in determining the group's stage of development.

In the dependent/inclusion/acceptance stage the most prominent norm is that of politeness. Students will take special care not to do or say things they think may hurt another student's feelings. This over-politeness is an indication that the small group is in the dependent/inclusion/ acceptance stage.

Often that over-politeness shows itself in the avoidance of certain issues. The SGL can discover these issues when students nonverbally demonstrate that something in the group's discussion has affected them but say nothing. They have chosen to avoid that issue.

In the independent/control/influence stage of development, the norms of the dependent stage are broken. Politeness is forgotten and disagreement becomes the order of the day. The norm of respect for authority is also likely to fall. This can be a scary time for the SGL.

In the interdependent/cohesion/affection stage of development the norm is openness and a willingness to examine the norms the group is developing. Thus, the norms the group operates by are more overtly developed and are generated by an interest in getting the job done effectively rather than generated by custom, observed behavior, and assumption.

Norms are not easy to isolate and identify, but they are a powerful indicator of the stage of group development. This also is an important area for the SGL to influence as a facilitator of group process to move the group from one stage of development to another.

The following figure relates norms to each stage of group development.

Stages of Development

Norm

STAGE	ACTION
dependent/ inclusion/ acceptance	norms develop covertly
independent/ control/ influence	norms broken
interdependent/ cohesion/ affection	norms examined openly by group

Figure 1

The SGL can formally establish some norms when the group initially starts. However, he must carefully observe if these norms are being followed. If not, the instructor must bring this to the group's attention.

Structure. Structure in a group is direction - a procedure to follow to get the job done. This is usually provided by stating objectives for the students and providing a plan on how to proceed to accomplish those objectives. All groups need this type of guidance. The key for the SGL in determining the group's stage of development is knowing where the students look for that structure.

In the dependent/inclusion/acceptance stage of development the students look to the SGL for structure (guidance on how to proceed).

In the independent/control/influence stage of development another student unilaterally imposes a structure on the group.

In the interdependent/cohesion/affection stage of development, structure comes from the group's consensus that a particular procedure is the best one to get the job done. In other words, the students look to themselves in a constructive way for structure.

The following figure relates structure to each stage of group development.

Stages of Development

Structure

STAGE	ACTION
dependent/ inclusion/ acceptance	group looks to instructor
independent/ control/ influence	imposed by another student
interdependent/ cohesion/ affection	group looks to themselves

Figure 2

Decision Making. There are several ways to make decisions. The way that the group makes decisions can be a valuable tool for the SGL to use in making the diagnosis. First let's look at the types of decisions.

1. Plop. A student makes a suggestion, and the rest of the group ignores it and considers something else. The group actually made the decision to not consider the first student's idea.

2. Autocratic. One student alone forces a decision on the group; this can be done in a rather covert way. For instance, you may hear: "Let's talk about Articles 15. I think that..." Without waiting for any consensus about the topic, the suggestor launches into the discussion. If the group silently goes along, the suggestor has successfully forced an autocratic decision.

3. Minority. Although more than one person makes this type of decision, they are still a minority of the group. For example, you might hear: "Let's talk about Articles 15. John, what do you think about them?" If John gives an opinion without considering what the rest of the group thinks about the subject being discussed, he has become a vocal part of a minority decision.

4. Consensus. Consensus is a type of decision where there is substantial (but not necessarily total) agreement. Unique to this type of decision is the idea that everyone is given a chance to voice thoughts on the subject at hand and have those ideas listened to and explored; thus, there is no chance for a "plop" decision. If, after stating the case, most of the group decides otherwise, the differing student(s) go along with the group.

   NOTE: This happens only after given a chance to influence the group.

5. Majority. A majority decision is determined by a vote. This differs from a consensual decision in that minority students do not get to individually state their views and, by virtue of the vote, end up losers.

6. Unanimous. A unanimous decision is when all group members agree. This is a very time-consuming process and is usually unrealistic to achieve.

In the dependent/inclusion/acceptance stage of development the "plop" decision is frequent; students are ignored. Some evidence of autocratic and minority decision is also present.

These three types of decisions are also present in the independent/control/influence stage of group development with emphasis on the autocratic and minority decisions. Majority decisions are also present at this stage.

Decisions by consensus are present in the interdependent/cohesion/affection stage, and this sometimes mistakenly turns into useless attempts at unanimous decisions. Autocratic decisions are also made in this stage but only when the group determines the situation calls for it (usually when time is short and when one student has all the necessary expertise to make a decision). The following figure relates decision making to each stage of group development.

Stages of Development

Decision Making

STAGE	ACTION
dependent/ inclusion/ acceptance	plop, autocratic, minority
independent/ control/ influence	autocratic, minority majority
interdependent/ cohesion/ affection	consensus, attempts at unanimous

Figure 3

Influence. Influence is a valued commodity in a group. Everyone wants it and believes there is only so much to go around, and then it runs out. The SGL must recognize who has influence in the group, how it was gained, and how it is used because influence also indicates the group's stage of development.

Group members gain influence in many ways; here are some of the most popular. (Notice that often influence is the same as controlling what goes on). Some of the listed behaviors can have a positive effect on a group until used to excess. For example, having a special knowledge the group needs is valuable up to the point where the group accepts what that person has to say without discussing it or questioning it. The special knowledge at that point dominates all new thought and independent thinking in the group.

1. Having a special knowledge or expertise the group needs.

2. Talking a lot (controlling what is talked about).

3. Asking a lot of questions (controlling what is talked about and who does the talking).

4. Using humor (controlling attention).

5. Not giving in (controlling attention).

6. Intimidating other students (verbally overpowering other students).

7. Making reference to authority.

8. Always disagreeing.

In the dependent/inclusion/acceptance stage of development, a group member's influence attempts are usually subtle and expressed in nonverbal behavior (not listening to others) and trying to get the group to buy his/her ideas (often by referring to authority). However, influence is usually left to the SGL.

In the independent/control/influence stage, the influence attempts are more obvious. Students challenge the authority of the SGL. Verbal disagreements become more frequent and heated. Students are getting answers to the question, "Who will influence them and who will I let influence me?" There is an unspoken belief in this stage that there is only so much influence to go around, and if they don't get some now they never will.

In the interdependent/cohesion/affection stage, the questions in the preceding paragraph have been answered. Also, members no longer see influence as a fixed quantity and, therefore, will share it. The influence goes to the student who can best help the group achieve its goal at that time.

The following figure relates influence to each stage of group development.

Stages of Development

Influence

STAGE	ACTION
dependent/ inclusion/ acceptance	covert and reference to authority
independent/ control/ influence	overt argument
interdependent/ cohesion/ affection	shared - goes to most appropriate student for the task at hand

Figure 4

Feedback. Feedback is information offered either to the group (about what it is doing and how effective it is) or to a student (about what he or she is doing and how others react to that behavior). Feedback can occur in both the content and the process dimension; however, the concern here will be with feedback on process.

In the dependent/inclusion/acceptance stage of group development there is little feedback. (This goes along with the developing norm of politeness, "I can't tell John how his constant talking affects me because I may hurt his feelings").

In the independent/control/influence stage there is likely to be feedback but not the type that conforms to the rules of effective feedback. Some rules of effective feedback are listed below.

1. Not imposed.
2. Timely rather than significantly after the fact.
3. Specific rather than general.
4. Objective (focuses on observable behavior) rather than being judgmental.

In the interdependent/cohesion/affection stage the students are willing to give and receive feedback about how (process) they are accomplishing their task. Through this feedback to each other, they make changes in the way they operate as individuals and how the group operates to become more effective and efficient at learning.

The following figure relates feedback to each stage of group development.

Stages of Development

Feedback (in the "willing to process" dimension)

STAGE	ACTION
dependent/ inclusion/ acceptance	little or none
independent/ control/ influence	some but does not conform to rules
interdependent/ cohesion/ affection	conforms to rules, students give and receive

Figure 5

Competition. The attitude a student has about winning (points in a discussion, respect, etc.) varies through the three stages of development. The attitude in the dependent/inclusion/ acceptance stage of group development can be expressed as "can't win." Individuals see most of their competitive attempts as futile. The over-politeness discussed earlier is in part a result of this can't win attitude as it shows an avoidance of competition.

The second stage is characterized by a "must win" competitive attitude. The argumentative atmosphere permeating the group during this stage is a result of students individually rebelling against a "can't win" environment. The product of that rebellion is a "must win" attitude and the belligerent behaviors associated with it - such as not giving in or not conceding a point.

The competitive attitude characteristic of the interdependent/cohesion/affection stage of group development is "all win". As differences are resolved, as influence is shared, and as constructive norms develop, the student realizes that all students can win, and that not to win is not the same as to lose. The resulting behavior is cooperation.

The following figure relates competition to each stage of group development.

Stages of Development

Competition

STAGE	ACTION
dependent/ inclusion/ acceptance	can't win: avoidance of competition
independent/ control/ influence	must win: belligerence
interdependent/ cohesion/ affection	all win: cooperation

Figure 6

Stages of Development

	dependent/ inclusion/ acceptance	independent/ control/ influence	interdependent/ cohesion/ affection
Norms	norms developed	norms broken	norms overtly examined as a group
Structure	group looks to instructor	imposed on group by another student	group looks to themselves
Decision Making	plop, autocratic and minority	autocratic, minority, and majority	consensus, other types agreement
Influence	covert and reference to authority	overt arguments, trying to get as much as possible	shared - goes to student for the appropriate task at hand
Feedback	little or none	some, but does not conform to rules	conforms to rules, students willing to give and receive
Competition	can't win, avoidance of competition	must win, belligerence	all win, cooperation

Figure 7

Psychological and Emotional Dimensions

There are other dimensions influencing what goes on in a group besides the behavioral ones. So far we have focused on these behavioral dimensions because behaviors can be observed and discussed as a common experience to all students. However, the psychological and emotional dimensions of human experience are also at work in a group. These psychological and emotional dimensions, although not directly observable, cause the behaviors thus far discussed.

Because they are so powerful, these two dimensions (psychological and emotional) will be addressed here. They explain many behaviors you may see exhibited within the group. It is important to remember, however, that the evidence of psychological or emotional influence in a group is second hand - observable behaviors interpreted by SGL. To assume that a certain observed behavior is caused for a certain reason can be a dangerous and false deduction. The only sure thing is that the behavior itself occurred.

SGLs who understand the emotional and psychological dimensions of groups can anticipate the types of behaviors which are likely to occur within the group. We will address five elements of these dimensions. As with behavior, the discussion will be tied to the stages of group development: (1) dependent/inclusion/acceptance, (2) independent/control/influence, and (3) interdependent/cohesion/ affection.

Attitude. The general attitude of the students corresponds directly to the stages of development. In fact, the stages take their names from the attitudes. The attitude in stage 1 is

dependence/inclusion/acceptance. In stage 2 it is independence/control/influence, and in stage 3 the attitude evolves to one of interdependence/cohesion/affection.

Needs. The needs of the students vary directly with each of the stages of group development. In stage 1 the need is acceptance. In stage 2 the need changes to relatedness (how will one student relate to another; who will influence and be influenced). Growth and development is the need in the third stage of group development.

Feelings. The feelings students have in the various stages closely relate to the attitudes just discussed. In stage 1 the feelings are of being in the group or of being out of the group. In other words, students are settling the issue of whether they will accept the group and whether or not they feel the group will accept them. In the second stage the feelings are of being on the top or of being on the bottom. Refer to the Figure 7 behaviors associated with influence and competition to clarify this. In stage 3 the feelings issue is that of how close or how far a student wants to feel to other group members as the group completes its tasks. This is a measure of how friendly the students want to be toward each other.

Focus. The focus for students during stage 1 is to provide information (about themselves), to get information (about others), and to form the group. During stage 2 the focus is on establishing influence patterns, and during stage 3 it is to perform (bring the elements of the group together to effectively and efficiently perform a task).

Self Concept. A student's self-concept within the context of the group changes as he or she participates in the group and movement takes place from one stage of development to another. During stage 1, the individuals seek to establish their significance. That endeavor, of course, is closely related to their feelings of "in" or "out," satisfying their need for acceptance, and their focus of getting and giving information. In stage 2 the students need competence. That issue is largely satisfied by the results of the influence patterns that develop. In stage 3 the students seek a self-concept and a sense of worth. This is a product of close/far decisions and the satisfaction of growth and development needs.

Stages of Development

Psychological and Emotional Dimensions	dependent/ inclusion/ acceptance stage	independent/ control/ influence stage	interdependent/ cohesion/ affection stage
Attitude	dependence	independence	interdependence
Needs	acceptance	relatedness	development
Feelings	in vs. out	top vs. bottom	close vs. far
Focus	inform, form	storm	perform
Self-Concept	significance	competence	worth

Figure 8

Each of the elements just discussed and each of the behaviors discussed earlier are closely related to each other and are at work in the group all at the same time. A physical analogy is having three separate

templates- the stages of group development, dimensions of behavior, and the elements of the emotional/psychological dimension-all superimposed on the group at the same time.

This can be extremely confusing for the instructor. It is important to be aware of the emotional or psychological dimensions for the meaning they can give to what is occurring in the group. However, with rare exceptions, the focus of the instructor and the group must be on the common experience of observed behavior.

WHAT CAN I DO ABOUT IT?

Step 1 - Diagnosis

Now that we have tools to help us determine what is going on, we need to make a diagnosis of the group. As the SGL, you must look at what the group is doing (in the process dimension) and when you recognize a behavior in the group from the chart in Figure 7, look for another behavior that could support the stage of development indicated. If the group is in one stage of development, you will be able to observe most of the behaviors listed under that stage in Figure 7.

This diagnosis, like any diagnosis of a human system, is seldom sharply defined. Various students may be exhibiting behavior that would indicate different stages of development. Therefore, you must diagnose the group's stage of development based upon the weight of the available evidence since every single piece of data may not point to the same conclusion. It is a good idea to gather several pieces of evidence about the stage of development of the group (in other words, rely on using more than just one of the tools previously discussed) before deciding on your course of action. Figure 7 shows the relationship of the dimensions of behavior to the stages of group development and to each other to make that evidence-gathering process easier.

Step 2 - The Decision to Action

Now that we can make a diagnosis of the group, it is time to develop some decision criteria about possible courses of action the SGL can take. As discussed earlier, there are three possible courses of action the SGL can take and three roles that the SGL can assume. They match up generally as shown on the chart in Figure 9

	Course of Action		
Roles	Influence Content	Influence Process	Do Nothing
Observer	X	X	X
Expert	X		
Facilitator		X	

Figure 9

Although the distinction among the possible roles the SGL can assume is not as clear as indicated in the chart, the picture shown is a fair mental road map to follow. The chart shows that the SGL is always an observer, a facilitator when influencing the process dimension, and a subject matter expert when influencing the content dimension.

The question now is, "How do we know what course of action to take and what role to assume?"

a. Influence the content dimension. Since the job of the group is to learn, the content dimension must receive heavy emphasis. This dimension contains the product of the group.

b. Influence the process dimension. You must influence the process dimension when things bog down, progress is slow, resistance seems to be high, or for some reason things don't seem to be going smoothly.

The following chart gives some relevant decision criteria for deciding to influence the content dimension:

When **to** influence content dimension	When **not to** influence content dimension
When the group is floundering because it does not have the necessary information.	When the group can get the necessary information from its own resources.
When the class design calls for you to give information to the group.	When you are asked a legitimate question by a student that another student can answer.
When you are asked a legitimate question by a student that another student cannot answer.	When your intent is to influence the process dimension.

Figure 10

The following chart gives some relevant decision criteria for work in the process dimension:

When to influence process dimension	When not to influence process dimension.
When group will not take its share of responsibility for learning.	When smooth, efficient, effective learning is taking place.
When resistance or arguments occur.	When group itself intervenes in its own process (looks at how it is operating).
When inefficient decision making takes place.	When your intent is to intervene in the content dimension.
When feedback does not conform to the rules of effective feedback.	
When ineffective norms seem to be developing.	
When attempts to gain influence in the group become destructive to effective learning.	
When you determine that you want to move the group to a higher stage of development.	

Figure 11

Step 3 - Course of Action

a. Do nothing. There are times when the SGL can do best by doing nothing (except observing). In one sense, the decision criteria already listed for not influencing the process or content dimension are the criteria of importance here. In general terms, however, there are three instances when the SGL should observe and not actively participate:

   (1) When things are going smoothly and the group is accomplishing its task.

   (2) When the group is struggling but still making progress in the learning task. (It is in cases like this that the most effective learning usually takes place.)

   (3) When the SGL does not have enough data to make a decision on what to do. (Remember, at no time should the SGL do something without a reason.)

b. Take action. In the process of leading a group, we have thus far made a diagnosis and decided which of the three available courses of action to adopt. What remains is to discuss the specifics of carrying the decision to action.

Not acting may sound like the easiest course of action to put into effect because it implies no work or effort. But remember, even when the SGL seemingly does nothing, he or she is in the critical, ever-present role of observer (refer to Figure 9). During these passive periods the SGL must be especially observant, for the students' actions continually lead to new diagnoses that may require active participation from the SGL.

Little space will be taken here discussing SGL actions in the content dimension. (The assumption is made that the reader is already an accomplished instructor, well-versed in content.) If anything, the SGL must hold back. Do not lecture in the small group environment. Instead, provide items of content that serve to stimulate discussion and productivity in the group. (Remember, when you provide content, you are at the same time providing structure. The SGL that lectures keeps the group stagnated in the dependent/inclusion/acceptance stage of development.) Stimulate, don't stagnate. The following are some suggestions on how to begin a content intervention. You, of course, can add to them. The idea is to make the comment as unobtrusive as possible.

To Influence Content

- Stand and write on the board or chart paper.
- Say, "Let me add some ideas here...".
- Say, "Before you start a discussion on the topic, I have some thoughts I want to get out."

Figure 12

When you decide to influence group process, you can use any of the dimensions of behavior discussed earlier (norms, structure, decision making, influence, competition, or feedback). When something in the process dimension is hindering the group's progress (learning), look for the most obvious behavior and start with that. Mention what you observe, and let the group respond to what you say. The effect of your comment will be to focus the group's attention on its process.

To Influence Process

- Say, "Why is it that (describe the behavior)...?"
- Say, "What seems to be holding up progress at this point?"
- Say, "A rule appears to be developing here that says: (state the developing norm). Is that going to be effective?"
- Say, "You have just decided (state the decision you observed). How was that decision made?"
- (Use after a task has been completed or at the end of a session.) Say, "What did you do that helped get the job done?"
- (Address a student directly.) Say, "(Name), you seemed to have an idea about what was going on. Would you tell us?"

Figure 13

When students make process-oriented comments, ensure that they do not lead to destructive arguments. Ensure that the rules of effective feedback are followed. Maintain a problem-solving approach. Focus on what is happening and how it can be improved - not whose fault it is.

CONSENSUS-SEEKING AND SYNERGY[7]

The expression, "A camel is a horse put together by a committee," humorously reflects the productivity of many groups. Unfortunately, we tend to think about the results of group activity in terms of our own experience with unproductive groups. We have all been members of groups whose outcomes were less than desirable.

Ordinarily, we form task groups without expending any effort toward building the group into a functioning unit. We can't process how the group gets work done, discuss how members feel about what is happening, nor explore what members are willing to contribute. We assume that individual members know how to be effective group members, and we assume that democratic mechanics (such as voting) result in collective decisions that are satisfactory simply because people participated.

In our culture we value winning, being number one, and beating out someone else. As a result, we are highly competitive in group situations. We assume that competition gets better results. Because we have overlearned this competitive behavior, we are likely to be competitive in many group situations. We rationalize this tendency in statements such as, "It's a dog-eat-dog world" and "Free enterprise is the answer".

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[7] "Consensus Seeking and Synergy," adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1973 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1973.

Closely related to competition is the cognitive style of either/or thinking. We tend to oversimplify situations by reducing them to dichotomies, to discrete, mutually-exclusive categories, and to polar opposites. We translate this way of looking at the world into human relations in win-lose, all-or-nothing terms. "Either you're with me or against me," "Who's in charge?," "If she gets an A, that hurts my chances," "If I give it all away, I won't have anything left," "More of this means less of that". We often are impatient with paradoxes, such as "Giving is receiving," "Good and evil can coexist," and "Being unselfish is selfish."

To achieve synergy, we must look at what appears to be opposite or paradoxical in terms of commonalties rather than differences. We look for meaningful relationships between what seem to be dichotomous elements of a situation. We must attempt to break out of the either/or mentality and look for wholes rather than parts. We are thinking synergistically when we fuse such opposites as work and play, sensuality and spirituality, now and not-now, aggression and kindness, etc.

Applied to groups, the concept of synergy means not looking at outcomes in an all-or- nothing way. Collaboration in planning, problem-solving, etc., generates products that are often better than those of any individual members or subgroup. On the other hand, competition often means creating not only winners but also powerful losers who can make the price of winning high. We can view collaboration and competition as meaningfully-related processes. Both can result in productive outcomes owing to group interactions. When a group validates the individual viewpoints of its members, the outcome exceeds what would have happened if the members had acted independently. A synergistic outcome results from the groupness that is greater than the sum of the parts of the group.

Work groups can obtain synergistic results when the process of working together increases sharing and competition. Instead of making decisions by majority rule or striving for unanimity, the group tries to achieve consensus (group members reach substantial agreement for the good of the group). Conflict becomes an asset rather than something to avoid. Winning becomes a group effort rather than an individual quest. Individuals who do not go along are catalysts for improved production rather than blockers. Group members begin to consider the values in opposite points of view rather than trying to win each other over to their own viewpoints.

Consensus-seeking is harder work than other modes of decision-making, but this hard work can have a dramatic payoff. Following is a list of suggestions to help achieve consensus:

1. Members should avoid arguing in order to win as individuals. What is the best collective judgement of the group as a whole.

2. Members should view conflict on ideas, solutions, predictions, etc., as helping rather than hindering the process of seeking consensus.

3. Groups solve problems best when individual group members accept responsibility for both hearing and being heard, so that everyone takes part in the decision.

4. Tension-reducing behaviors can be useful as long as group members do not smooth over meaningful conflict prematurely.

5. Each member should be responsible for monitoring the work process of the group and for initiating discussions of effective or ineffective process.

6. The best results flow from a fusion of information, logic, and emotion. Judgements about what is best should include members' feelings about the data and the process of decision-making.

A sculptor viewing a block of granite can see a figure surrounded by stone. Likewise, the best decision is inside group effort, if we can find ways of chipping away the excess. Consensus-seeking is a way of helping group resources produce synergistic outcomes without denying the individuality of its members.

FIVE COMPONENTS CONTRIBUTING TO EFFECTIVE INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATIONS[8]

Five interpersonal components offer clear distinctions between good communicators and poor communicators. They are: Self-concept, Listening, Clarity of Expression, Coping with Angry Feelings, and Self-disclosure.

Self-Concept

The most important single factor affecting our communication with others is our self-concept - how we see ourselves and our situations. While situations may change from moment to moment or place to place, our beliefs about ourselves are always determining factors in our communicative behavior. The self is the star in every act of communication.

We have literally thousands of concepts about ourselves; who we are, what we stand for, where we live, what we do and do not do, what we value, what we believe. These self-perceptions vary in clarity, precision, and importance from person to person.

Importance of Self-concept

Our self-concept is who we are. It is the center of our universe, our frame of reference, our personal reality, our special vantage point. It is a screen through which we see, hear, evaluate, and understand everything else. It is our own filter on the world around us.

A Weak Self-concept

Our self-concept affects our way of communicating with others. A strong self-concept is necessary for healthy and satisfying interaction. A weak self-concept, on the other hand, often distorts our perception of how others see us, generating feelings of insecurity when relating to other people.

If we have a poor view of ourselves, we may have difficulty conversing with others, admitting that we are wrong, expressing our feelings, accepting constructive criticism from others, or voicing ideas different from those of other people. Because of this insecurity, we are afraid that others may not like us if we disagree with them.

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[8] "Five Components Contributing to Effective Interpersonal Communications" adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1974 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1974.

A weak self-concept makes us feel unworthy, inadequate, and inferior It makes us lack confidence and think that our ideas are uninteresting to others and not worth communicating. We may become secretive and guarded in our communication, even contradicting our own ideas.

Forming the Self-concept

Just as our self-concept affects our ability to communicate, our communication with others shapes our self-concept. We derive most crucial concepts of self from our experiences with other human beings.

We learn who we are from the ways important people in our lives ("significant others") treat us. From verbal and nonverbal communication with these significant others, we learn whether we are liked or disliked, acceptable or unacceptable, worthy of respect or disdain, a success or a failure. If we are to have a strong self-concept, we need love, respect, and acceptance from significant others in our lives.

Listening

Most people under-emphasize the importance of listening in their daily communication activities, yet we need information that we can only acquire through the process of listening.

Listening, of course, is much more intricate and complicated than the physical process of hearing. Listening is an intellectual and emotional process that integrates physical, emotional, and intellectual inputs in a search for meaning and understanding. Effective listening occurs when the listener discerns and understands the sender's meaning. They achieve the goal of communication.

The "Third" Ear

An effective listener listens not only to words but to the meanings behind the words. A listener's third ear hears what the speaker is saying between and without words, what he or she is expressing soundlessly, what he or she feels and thinks.

Effective listening is not a passive process. It plays an active role in communication. The effective listener interacts with the speaker in developing meaning and reaching understanding.

Several principles can help increase essential listening skills:

1. The listener should have a reason or purpose for listening.

2. The listener should suspend judgment initially.

3. The listener should resist distractions - noises, views, people and focus on the speaker.

4. The listener should wait before responding to the speaker. Too prompt a response reduces listening effectiveness.

5. The listener should repeat word-for-word what the speaker says.

6. The listener should rephrase the content and feeling of what the speaker says to the speaker's satisfaction.

7. The listener should seek the important themes of what the speaker says by listening past the words for the real meaning.

8. The listener should use the time differential between the rate of speech (100-150 words per minute) and the rate of thought (400-500 words per minute) to reflect upon content and to search for meaning.

9. The listener should be ready to respond to the speaker's comments.

Clarity Of Expression

Many people find it difficult to say what they mean or to express what they feel. They often simply assume that the other person understands what they mean, even if they are careless or unclear in their speech. They seem to think that people should be able to read each other's minds. "If it is clear to me, it must be clear to you also." This assumption is one of the most difficult barriers to successful human communication.

Poor communicators leave the listener guessing what they mean while they operate on the assumption that they are, in fact, communicating. The listener, in turn, proceeds on the basis of what he or she guesses. Mutual misunderstanding is an obvious result.

People who can communicate their meaning effectively to others have a clear picture in their minds of what they are trying to express. At the same time, they can clarify and elaborate what they say. They are receptive to the feedback that they get and use it to guide their efforts at communication.

Coping With Angry Feelings

A person's inability to deal with anger frequently results in communication breakdowns.

Suppression

Some people handle their anger by suppressing it, fearing that the other person would respond adversely. Such people tend to think that communicating an unfavorable emotional reaction will be divisive. They become upset even when others merely disagree with them.

I may, for example, keep my irritation at you inside myself. And each time you do whatever it is that irritates me, my stomach keeps score...2...3...6...8...until one day the doctor pronounces that I have a bleeding ulcer or until one day you do the same thing that you have always done, and my secret hatred of you erupts in one great emotional avalanche.

You, of course, will not understand. You will feel that this kind of overcharged reaction is totally unjustified. You will react angrily to my buried emotional hostility. Such a failure to cope with anger can end unproductively.

Expression

Expression of emotions is important to building good relationships with others. People need to express their feelings in such a manner that they influence, affirm, reshape, and change themselves and others. They need to learn to express angry feelings constructively rather than destructively.

The following guidelines can be helpful:

1. Be aware of your emotions.

2. Admit your emotions. Do not ignore or deny them.

3. Own your emotions. Accept responsibility for what you do.

4. Investigate your emotions. Ask yourself why you feel the way you do.

5. Report your emotions. Congruent communication means an accurate match between what you are saying and what you are experiencing.

6 Integrate your emotions with your intellect and your will. Allow yourself to learn and grow as a person.

We cannot repress our emotions. We should identify, observe, report, and integrate them. We can then instinctively make the necessary adjustments in the light of our own ideas of growth. We can change and move on with life.

Self-Disclosure

Sidney Jourard, author of Transparent Self and Self Disclosure, says that self-disclosure - the ability to talk truthfully and fully about oneself - is necessary to effective communication. Jourard contends that an

individual cannot really communicate with another person or get to know that person unless he or she can engage in self-disclosure. Indeed, this is a mutual process. The more we know about each other, the more effective and efficient our communication will be. A person's ability to engage in self-revelation is a symptom of a healthy personality; Powell puts it this way:

> I have to be free and able to say my thoughts to you, to tell you about my judgements and values, to expose to you my fears and frustrations, to admit to you my failures and shames, to share my triumphs before I can really be sure what it is that I am and can become. I must be able to tell you who I am before I can know who I am. And I must know who I am before I can act truly, that is, in accordance with my true self.

Perhaps people will understand only as much of themselves as they have been willing to communicate to another person.

Blocks to Self-revelation

To know themselves and to have satisfying interpersonal relationships, people must reveal themselves to others. Yet many people block self-revelation. For example:

Powell: "I am writing a booklet, to be called Why Am I Afraid to Tell Who I Am?

Other: "Do you want an answer to that question?"

Powell: "That is the purpose of the booklet, to answer the question."

Other: "But do you want my answer?"

Powell: "Yes, of course I do."

Other: "I am afraid to tell you who I am, because if I tell you who I am, you may not like who I am, and it's all that I have."

This conversation from real life reflects the fears and doubts that many people have: that they are not totally acceptable to others, that parts of themselves are unlovable, that they are unworthy. Cautious, ritualized communication is the result.

Dynamics of Trust

We can exchange the dynamics of fear for the dynamics of trust. No one is likely to engage in much self-disclosure in a threatening situation. We can only make self-disclosure in an atmosphere of good will. Sometimes it takes one person's risk of self-disclosure to stimulate good will in other people. Trust begets trust; self-disclosure generates self-disclosure. The effective communicator is one who can create a climate of trust in which mutual self-disclosure will occur.

Being an effective communicator, then, depends on these five basic components: an adequate self-concept, the ability to be a good listener; the skill of expressing one's thoughts and ideas clearly; being able to cope with emotions, such as anger, in a functional manner; and the willingness to disclose oneself to others.

COMMUNICATING COMMUNICATION[9]

Effectiveness of management personnel of all grades is very dependent upon the ability to communicate orally. Research shows that, by and large, the better supervisors (better in terms of getting the work done) are those who are more sensitive to their communication responsibilities. They tend to be those, for example, who give clear instructions, who listen with empathy, who are accessible for questions or suggestions, and who always properly inform their subordinates.

Research also shows that there is a positive correlation between effective communication and each of the following factors: worker productivity, personal satisfaction, rewarding relationships, and effective problem solving. Two major components of effective communication are sending and receiving messages. Techniques of listening and verbalizing help in both these dimensions.

Factors Affecting The Sender

Self-feelings

In any communicating situation, the sender's feelings about self will affect how he or she encodes the message. The following questions are conscious and subconscious thoughts that affect the effectiveness of the message: "Do I feel worthwhile in this situation?"; "Am I safe in offering suggestions?"; "Is this the right time (place)?"; Am I the subordinate or the boss in this situation?" Or in every day jargon, "Am I OK?"; "Do I count?" Usually the more comfortable or positive the self-concept, the more effective the sender is in communicating.

Belief in Assertive Rights

Linked to self-concept is the belief that we have some rights, such as the right to change our minds, the right to say, "I do not understand" or "I do not know," the right to follow a "gut feeling" without justifying reasons for it, the right to make mistakes and be responsible for them, and the right to say, "I am not sure now, but let me work on it." Believing in such rights can help strengthen the sender's self-concept and avoid the defensive maneuvering that hinders communication. We must remember that with assertive rights come responsibility. For example, we have the right to say, "I do not know," but we also have the responsibility to find out.

The Sender's Perception of the Message

Do I feel the information I have is valuable? Is it something I want to say or do not want to say? How do I feel it will be received? Is the topic interesting or not interesting to me? Do I understand the information correctly, at least well enough to describe it to others, and do I know the best way to say it?

The Sender's Feelings about the Receiver

The probability for effective communication increases if the sender feels positive or respectful toward the receiver. Positive or respectful feelings usually carry a built-in commitment and/or desire to share communication. Negative or disrespectful feelings require conscious effort to communicate

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[9] "Communicating Communication," adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1978 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1978.

effectively. The sender must realize that it is all right not to like everyone or to like some persons less than others. The sender must also realize that not everyone is going to like or respect him.

Suggestions for the Sender

In order to communicate messages effectively, the sender should consider the following points:

1. Become aware of your thoughts and feelings. Do not be quick to brand them "good," "bad," "wrong," or "right." Accept them as a reflection of the present "you." Consider what they are whispering or shouting to you. By increasing your awareness of your feelings, you can better decide what to do with them.

2. Feel comfortable in expressing your feelings. Such expression, when it is congruent with the situation and appropriate, can enhance communication.

3. Be aware of the listener. Try to verbalize your message in terms of the listener's understanding and indicate why you feel the message is important to him or her. Does it have a certain significance for the listener or is it just general information?

4. Focus on the importance of the message, and repeat key concepts and essential aspects of the information.

5. Use as few words as possible to state the message.

Points For The Listener

Effective listening is as important to communication as effective sending. Effective listening is an active process in which the listener interacts with the speaker. It requires mental and verbal paraphrasing and attention to nonverbal cues like tones, gestures, and facial expressions. It is a process of listening not to every word, but to main thoughts and references.

Deterrents to Effective Listening

- Assuming in advance that the subject is uninteresting and unimportant.
- Mentally criticizing the speaker's delivery.
- Getting overstimulated when questioning or opposing an idea.
- Listening only for facts, wanting to skip the details.
- Outlining everything.
- Pretending to be attentive.
- Permitting the speaker to be inaudible or incomplete.
- Avoiding technical messages.
- Overreacting to certain words and phrases.
- Withdrawing attention, daydreaming.

The feelings and attitudes of the listener can affect what he or she perceives. The listener's self-concept, perception of the message, and feelings about the person sending the message affect how well the listener listens. The listener should keep in mind the following suggestions:

1. Be fully accessible to the sender. Being preoccupied, letting your mind wander, and trying to do more than one thing at a time all lessen your chances to hear and understand efficiently. In the words of Woody Allen, "It is hard to hum a tune and contemplate one's own death at the same time." Interrupting a conversation to answer the phone may enhance your perceived ego, but the speaker you interrupted feels of secondary importance.

2. Be aware of your feelings as a listener. Emotions such as anger, dislike, defensiveness, and prejudice are natural, but they cause us not to hear what the sender is saying and sometimes to hear things the sender is not saying.

Listening with the "third ear" requires the listener to do the following things:

- Suspend judgement for a while.
- Develop purpose and commitment to listening.
- Avoid distraction.
- Wait before responding.
- Develop paraphrasing in his or her own words and context, particularly to review the central themes of the messages.
- Continually reflect mentally on what the sender is trying to say.
- Be ready to respond when the sender is ready for comments.

Responses That Can Block Effective Communication

Evaluation Response. The phrases "You should...," "Your duty...," "You are wrong," "You should know better," "You are bad," and "You are such a good person," create blocks to communication. There is a time for evaluation, but if the listener gives it too soon, the speaker usually becomes defensive.

Advice-Giving Response. "Why don't you try...," "You'll feel better if...," "It would be best for you to...," "My advise is...," are phrases that give advice. You should give advice at the conclusion of conversations and generally only when the speaker asks for it.

Topping Response. "That's nothing, you should have seen...," "When that happened to me, I...," "When I was child...," and "You think you have it bad..." are phrases of "one-upmanship". This approach shifts attention from the speaker and leaves him or her feeling unimportant.

Diagnosing, Psychoanalytic Response. "What you need is...," "The reason you feel the way you do...," "You don't really mean that," and "Your problem is..." are phrases that tell others what they feel. Telling people how they feel or why they feel the way they do can be a two-edged sword. If the diagnoser is wrong,

the speaker feels pressed; if the diagnoser is right, the speaker may feel exposed or captured. Most people do not want to be told how to feel and would rather volunteer their feelings than to have someone expose them.

Prying-Questioning Response. "Why," "who," "where," "when," "how," and "what," are responses common to us all. But such responses tend to make the speaker feel on the spot and, therefore, resist the interrogation. At times, however, a questioning response is helpful for clarification, and in emergencies it is necessary.

Warning, Admonishing, Commanding Response. "You had better," "If you don't," "You have to," "You will," and "You must" occur constantly in the everyday work environment. Usually such responses produce resentment, resistance, and rebellion. There are times, of course, when this response is necessary, such as in an emergency situation when the information being given is critical to human welfare.

Logical, Lecturing Response. "Don't you realize ...," "Here is where you are wrong...," "The facts are...," "Yes, but..." occur in any discussion with two people of differing opinions. Such responses tend to make the other person feel inferior or defensive. Of course, persuasion is part of the world we live in. In general, however, we need to trust that when people have correct and full data, they will make logical decisions for themselves.

Devaluation Response. "It's not so bad," "Don't worry," "You'll get over it," and "Oh, you don't feel that way" are familiar phrases we've heard as responses to another's emotions. A listener should recognize the sender's feelings and should not try to take away the feelings or deny them to the owner. In our desire to alleviate emotional pain, we apply bandages too soon and possibly in the wrong place.

Whenever a listener's responses convey nonacceptance of the speaker's feelings, the desire to change the speaker, a lack of trust, or the sense that the speaker is inferior, at fault, or being bad, communication blocks will occur.

Conclusion

The communication process is complex but vital to effective problem solving and meaningful personal relationships. It is a process that we can never really master, but one we can continually improve. It requires certain attitudes, knowledge, techniques, common sense, and a willingness to try. Effective communication happens when we have achieved sufficient clarity or accuracy to handle each situation adequately.

ACTIVE LISTENING

What is Active or Nonjudgmental Listening?

It is a listening technique that allows you to see the world as the other person sees it and involves risk taking because you may hear what you don't want to hear. This listening technique neither threatens the other person nor puts the other person on the defensive. It does not assume you know what the other person is going to say next. This technique takes time and patience.

How to Listen Actively, Positively, or Nonjudgmentally

1. Paraphrase (say the same thing back in different words). Allow for correction. Repeat as necessary. (Feedback and correction).

   Paraphrasing, in essence, says, "I am interested enough in what you are saying to hold it up like a mirror to see if I got it right. And if I didn't get it right, I want to hear it again in different words until I do get it right."

2. Check your perceptions. Say how you think the other person is feeling and allow for correction.

   Sometimes, feelings are irrelevant to the matter at hand, but perception checking, in essence, says I only interested am not in what you are saying about something but also how you are feeling about it. Here again, I am willing to hold up a mirror to see if I got it right, and if I didn't, to try again.

   The other person uses your paraphrasing and perception checking to clarify personal thoughts and feelings.

3. Withhold evaluation until understanding is complete! You can get your agenda in, but be patient.

   Active listening, as in ice skating, is a skill. At first, it seems awkward, and it is easy to fall flat on your face. The only way to learn is to practice. If you continue to practice over months and years, you will internalize this skill learning and do it naturally.

   When you first start active listening, you may want to tell the other person (as you listen) that you are practicing techniques to become a better listener. For instance, "I" messages help in nonjudgmental listening: "So, you are saying...?" or "I sense you're feeling...."

Pitfalls

"Snap supporting," interrogation, analyzing, and moral judging may lead to avoidance behavior. The other person may feel you haven't really been listening at all.

Snap supporting makes light of another person's feelings or troubles. You snap support when you say things such as "Oh, don't worry about it, everything will be all right," or "Things will work out OK for you, I'm sure, in the long run." You are telling others that you do not accept their feelings or you think there is no reason to feel that way.

Interrogating makes a person feel trapped, especially when questions appear in rapid fire order. You interrogate when you ask questions such as: "What time did you do it? Who saw you do it? Are you going to tell the boss? What if you get into trouble?"

Use open-ended questions to fill in information you need. If you ask, "How do you see the events which led to the signal line being cut?", you also leave room for the person to give you more information. If you interrogate by asking, "At what time did you cut the signal line?", you may send the message, "You cut the signal line too early, you dummy, and spoiled the whole field exercise!"

Remember to paraphrase the answer to your open-ended question!

Analyzing tries to find out why another person is feeling, saying, or doing things. You analyze when you say things such as "What's bothering you is that you have no confidence in yourself; what you are really feeling is anger at your coworker" or "I'll bet you did it because you hate Tim, and Sam looks like Tim."

You attribute thoughts and motives that may or may not be there. Try analyzing in a tentative way, such as, "Do you think you might have done it because Sam looks like Tim?"

Moral judging implies, or makes an evaluation. An action was either right or wrong, good or bad. Statements such as, "I wouldn't do that if I were you" or "With that attitude, you're bound to get into trouble" exemplify moral judging.

Is Active/Nonjudgmental Listening The Answer?

Active listening is not appropriate in all situations. Sometimes a person wants help. Sometimes people are simply looking for information or advice and are not trying to work out their feelings. For these two functions, active listening is inappropriate. For instance, if you wanted to know on what day the stationery order was due in, it would be exasperating to hear, "You're interested in knowing when our office supplies are going to be here?" Consider the situation before you apply a listening technique.

Communication Effectiveness: Active Listening and Sending Feeling Messages[10]

"I know you believe that you understand what you think I said, but I am not sure you realize that what you heard is not what I meant."

When a person communicates a message to another person, the message usually contains two elements: content and feeling. These two important elements combine to give the message meaning. However, we often do not understand other people's messages or are misunderstood by others because we forget that meanings are in people, not in words.

The Risk of Communicating Nonacceptance

The communication of mutual acceptance is vital to developing and maintaining work and personal relationships. However, various ways of responding to situations run the risk of communicating nonacceptance. To understand another person's point of view effectively, you must show your openness to that communication. According to author Gordon, most people, during a listening situation, commonly respond in one or more of the following 12 ways:

1. Ordering, Directing: "You have to..."
2. Warning, Threatening: "You'd better not..."

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[10] "Communication Effectiveness: Active Listening and Sending Feeling Messages," adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1978 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., which is adapted from Dr. Thomas Gordon's, Parent Effectiveness Training P.E.T., published by Wyden Books, 1970.

3. Preaching, Moralizing: "You ought to..."
4. Advising, Giving Solutions: "Why don't you..."
5. Lecturing, Informing: "Here are the facts..."
6. Evaluating, Blaming: "You're wrong..."
7. Praising, Agreeing: "You're right..."
8. Name-calling, Shaming: "You're stupid..."
9. Interpreting, Analyzing: "What you need..."
10. Sympathizing, Supporting: "You'll be OK..."
11. Questioning, Probing: "Why did you..."
12. Withdrawing, Avoiding: "Let's forget it..."

These response modes may communicate to the sender that it is unacceptable to feel the way that person does. If the sender perceives one of these messages as indicating unacceptance, a risk exists that the person will become defensive about new ideas. The person may be resistant to changing behavior, tend to justify certain feelings, or will turn silent because the listener is perceived as only passively interested in the sender.

Active Listening

A more effective way to respond to a listening situation is called "active listening." Gordon defines active listening as a communication skill to help people solve their own problems. In active listening, the listener is involved with the sender's need to communicate. To be effective, the listener can respond with a statement explaining the meaning of the sender's message.

Read the following example:

Sender: "The deadline for this report is not realistic." Listener: "You feel you're pressured to get this report done."

To understand the sender's meaning, the listener must understand the sender's point of view. The listener uses this feedback to check personal skills in accurately listening and understanding.

Active Listening Benefits

Active listening creates an open communication climate for understanding. The listener learns what another's meaning and feelings are about situations and problems. Skillful, active listening can communicate acceptance and increase interpersonal trust among people. It can facilitate problem solving. The appropriate use of active listening increases the communication effectiveness of people.

Active Listening Pitfalls

Active listening is a skill for improved communication. As with most skills, the tendency to misuse this tool exists. Listeners must avoid trying to manipulate people to behave or think the way others think they should. Listeners should avoid "parroting" someone's message by repeating the same words. A good listener is people-oriented. Along with manipulating and parroting, timing is another active listening pitfall. Active listening is inappropriate when there is no time to deal with the situation or when someone is asking only for factual information. Choosing the right time to stop giving feedback comes with experience and sensitivity to nonverbal messages of the sender. Avoiding these common pitfalls makes active listening a more effective communication skill.

Principle of Problem Ownership

Active listening is most appropriate when a person expresses feelings about a problem; that is the time to ask who owns the problem. The principle of problem ownership can be demonstrated in the following situations:

Person A's needs remain unsatisfied by A's behavior. A's behavior doesn't directly interfere with Person B's personal satisfaction. Therefore, A owns the problem.

Person A's needs are satisfied, but A's behavior interferes in some way with Person B's personal satisfaction of needs. Since B has the problem, B then owns it.

Person A satisfies personal needs, and A's behavior does not directly interfere with Person B's needs. In this case, there is no problem.

Active listening is useful, but it is inappropriate to use if another person's behavior creates the problem.

Communicating Ones Needs

Ineffective Approaches

The person owning the problem must know how to confront it and communicate personal needs so that other people will listen. However, people frequently confront problems in ways that tend to stimulate defensiveness and resistance. The two most common approaches appear below:

1. Evaluating - which communicates judgement, blame, ridicule, or shame ("Don't you know how to use that machine?"; "You're late again!"). This method creates several risks:

   a. It makes people defensive and resistant to further communication.

   b. It implies power over the other person.

   c. It threatens and reduces the other person's self-esteem.

2. Sending solutions - which communicates what the other person should do, rather than what the speaker is feeling ("If you don't come in on time, I'll have to report you"; "Why don't you do it this way?"). Sending solutions carries risks:

   a. People become resistive if they are told what to do, even if they agree with the solution.

   b. This approach indicates that the sender's needs are more important than the receiver's.

   c. It communicates a lack of trust in other people's capacities to solve their own problems.

   d. It reduces the responsibility to define the problem clearly and explore feasible alternatives to a problem.

A More Effective Approach

Problems can be confronted and personal needs made known without making other people feel defensive. An effectively communicating message involves three components:

1. Owning feelings.

2. Sending feelings.

3. Describing behavior.

Ownership of feelings focuses on who owns the problem. The sender of a message needs to accept responsibility for personal feelings. Messages that own the sender's feeling usually begin with or contain "I"

Sometimes communicating feelings is viewed as a weakness, but the value of sending feelings is communicating honesty and openness by focusing on the problem and not evaluating the person.

Describing behavior concentrates on what one person sees, hears, and feels about another person's behavior as it affects the observer's feeling and behavior. The focus is on specific situations that relate to specific times and places.

It is useful to distinguish between descriptions and evaluations of behavior. The underlined parts of the next statements illustrate evaluations of behavior.

"I can't finish this report if you are so inconsiderate as to interrupt me."

"You're a loudmouth."

The underlined parts of the next statements describe behavior.

"I can't finish this job if you keep interrupting me."

"I feel you talked considerably during the meetings."

A design for sending feeling messages can be portrayed as follows: Ownership + Feeling Word + Behavior Description = Feeling Message. Note the following example: "I (ownership) am concerned (feeling word) about finishing this job on time (description of behavior)".

Several factors cause the effectiveness of feeling messages.

- "I" messages are more effective because they place responsibility with the sender of the message.

- "I" messages reduce the other person's defensiveness and resistance to further communication.

- Behavioral descriptions provide feedback about the other person's behavior but do not evaluate it.

- Although "I" messages require some courage, they honestly express the speaker's feelings.

- Feeling messages promote open communication in work and personal relationships.

Summary

The skills of sending feeling messages and listening actively can be applied to work, family, and personal relationships.

No one is wrong; at most, someone is uninformed. If you think someone is wrong, one of you (you or the other person) is unaware of something. Avoid playing "superiority" games, and find out more about the message and the sender.

GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK

Feedback is a way of making a person/group personally aware of a behavior you see and how that behavior affects you or affects task accomplishment. When we use this skill correctly, we open communication channels. Dr. Ken Blanchard, a well-known management consultant, describes feedback as the "breakfast of champions." He views it as "the last little bit that the superstar looks for," because it represents information that tells the superstar exactly what is needed to reach the goal.

To make the most effective use of feedback, follow the guidelines listed below.

Should Be	Should Not Be
Descriptive	Evaluative
Specific	General
Clear	Vague
Concerned with changeable behavior	Concerned with uncontrollable qualities
Well timed	Delayed or after the fact
Small doses	Overloaded
Directed to	Directed about
Owned by me	Owned by others
Checked out for clarity/understanding	Railroaded
Asked for (solicited)	Force fed
Well-intended	Hurtful

1. Feedback should be DESCRIPTIVE, not EVALUATIVE. Describe the behavior you see and its effect upon you. Don't try to evaluate or imagine the reason for the behavior.

   EXAMPLE: When I was talking, you were tapping your foot, and I found it hard to concentrate on what I was saying.

   NOT: You were deliberately tapping your foot to distract me.

2. Feedback should be SPECIFIC, not GENERAL. Making general statements often leaves people wondering what you mean.

   EXAMPLE: Your uniform is wrinkled and dirty.

   NOT: You're sloppy.

3. Feedback which is CLEAR and precise in its presentation has a greater chance of being understood than feedback that is VAGUE.

   EXAMPLE: Your class on interviewing was so well-organized and fast paced that it completely held my attention.

   NOT: There's something about the way you teach, or maybe it's the material you use... well, anyway, it was, um, real good.

4. Feedback should be DIRECTED TOWARD A CHANGEABLE BEHAVIOR, a behavior that a person can do something about, NOT toward a behavior a person cannot control. For example, to be angry with a person who stutters or who speaks with a heavy accent, and you have difficulty understanding, is unproductive. It is something the person cannot control.

5. Feedback should be WELL-TIMED, NOT DELAYED or AFTER-THE-FACT. Provide it soon after a given event has occurred, while the general situation following the noticeable behavior is still fresh in the person's mind.

   EXAMPLE: Sergeant Smith, I really enjoyed that class you just gave. I found it interesting and to the point, and you were easy to understand. I also found the examples you used to be very helpful.

   NOT: Hey Smith, that class you gave last week was good.

6. Give feedback in SMALL DOSES. Don't save up and OVERLOAD a person with large amounts of data all at one time. It is much easier for a person to accept and deal with a few items than to be bombarded with a lot of feedback all at once. Large amounts of feedback, given all at one time, may be seen as punishing and cause the person to become defensive.

7. Feedback should be DIRECTED TO, not DIRECTED ABOUT a person. Talk to and look at the person when giving feedback. Don't talk around a person or behind someone's back.

8. OWN your feedback by saying I, not WE. Let others speak for themselves; don't speak for them.

9. Check for CLARITY AND UNDERSTANDING. When giving feedback, check with the person to ensure that what you have said is clear and that he or she understands your message. Have the person repeat what you said. Also, the person may wish to compare your perceptions with the perceptions of others in the group. You represent only one view; others may disagree.

10. People more readily accept feedback that they ASK FOR and find it more useful than feedback that is FORCE-FED. In the absence of a request, it is acceptable to say, "Fred, I have some feedback for you. Would you like to hear it?" This lets the person know you have information to give and also allows the person the option to ask for it.

11. Finally, feedback should be WELL-INTENDED and NOT HURTFUL. Do not give feedback to punish or get even. Give feedback in a caring way to help the person be more effective. When you give feedback to someone, you should be willing to spend time with that person to ensure clarity and understanding and to offer any assistance that the person may desire.

When people give feedback, they often assume two things. The first assumption is that feedback is, by its nature, negative. That is, it usually involves undesirable behaviors, negatively-toned reactions, and desires for behavior change. In our culture, this is generally true; most feedback is indeed negative. In fact, it is fair to say that we live in an economy of plenty with regard to negative feedback. There's plenty to go around.

The second common assumption is that people are most likely to change their behavior in response to negative feedback. On the contrary, people very seldom change their behavior in response to negative feedback (especially in the way it's usually given). If people changed so readily, there would be a lot less need for negative feedback. This assumption is probably false.

In fact, POSITIVE feedback is more likely to lead to desirable behavior change than negative feedback. When we give positive feedback - and we give it genuinely and honestly - we give the person a solid platform from which he or she can view some of his or her other common behaviors and decide, out of a sense of security, to make changes in those behaviors. People usually know a lot about what's wrong with them - what they would change if they could. People are more likely to be able to make changes from a positive view of themselves than from the anxiety, insecurity, and even fear involved in a negative self-view.

We live in an economy of extreme scarcity with respect to positive feedback. Others seldom give it to us, and we are rather starved for it. Try out some positive feedback to others. Give some careful feedback when you see something you appreciate in someone. It will be interesting to see what happens.

This is not to say that negative feedback - correctly delivered - is not useful to people. The point here is that we should use positive feedback as well.

As we deliver positive feedback to people, we are prone to fall into a common trap, what we might call the "yes, but" phenomenon. We deliver positive feedback all right but feel we must link it to negative feedback - as if undiluted positive feedback were too dangerous or that it might go to the person's head, so to speak. So, we temper our positive feedback with negative feedback - "You did a fantastic job on this problem, Joe, BUT you were three days behind schedule." The positive feedback delivered this way sounds like a set-up to the receiver or a way of softening the blow. The listener comes to listen for the negative feedback that is coming and doesn't even notice the content of the positive feedback at the beginning. The positive part doesn't seem the slightest bit real but only ritual politeness. Don't fall into this trap.

Two responses to feedback are useful and almost always indicated. First, listen actively to it. Be sure you understand where the giver is "coming from" - what is his or her frame of reference? Acknowledge or thank the person who was willing to give the feedback. You're more likely to get further useful information if you do that.

Respond to feedback in two ways. First, listen to it with an open mind. Be prepared to learn something. Resist the temptation to explain away and justify your behavior. Second, acknowledge the person who is willing to give the feedback; you're more likely to get useful information in the future if you show appreciation.

GIVING FEEDBACK: AN INTERPERSONAL SKILL[11]

The process of giving and asking for feedback is a critical dimension of small group instruction. Feedback enables us to see ourselves as others see us. This, of course, is not an easy task. Effectively giving and receiving feedback implies certain key ingredients: trust, acceptance, openness, and a concern for the needs of others. Just how helpful feedback is may finally depend upon the personal philosophy of the people involved. In any case, giving feedback is a skill that we can learn and develop.

The term "feedback" was borrowed from rocket engineering by Kurt Lewin, a founder of laboratory education. A rocket sent into space contains a mechanism that sends signals back to earth. On earth, a steering apparatus receives these signals, makes adjustments if the rocket is off target, and corrects its course. The small group is like this steering mechanism, sending signals when group members are off target in terms of their goals. An individual can then use these signals - or feedback - to correct his or her course.

For example, George's goal may be to learn how his behavior affects others. He can use information from the group to check his progress toward this goal. However, if George reacts to criticism of his behavior by getting angry, leaving the room, or otherwise acting defensively, he will not reach his goal. Group members may help him by saying, "George, every time we give you feedback, you do something that keeps us from giving you further information. If you continue this kind of behavior, you will not reach your goal." If George responds to this steering of the group by adjusting his direction, he can again move toward his target. Feedback is a technique that helps members of a group achieve their goals. It is also a means of comparing one's own perceptions of ones behavior with the perceptions of others.

Giving feedback is a verbal or nonverbal process through which a person communicates his or her perceptions and feelings about the behavior of others. When soliciting feedback, a person asks others for their perceptions of his or her behavior. Most people give and receive feedback daily without being aware of doing so. One purpose of small group instruction is to practice giving and soliciting feedback so that leaders will intentionally make use of this process.

Information-Exchange Process

Between two people, the information-exchange process goes something like this: The sender's intention is to act in relation to the receiver. However, the receiver sees only the sender's behavior. The sender uses an encoding process to select a behavior that communicates his or her intention. The receiver decodes an intention from the responding behavior of the receiver.

If either person's encoding or decoding process is ineffective, either party may react in a way that confuses the other. A person's intentions are private. If they are not explained, others can only guess at what those intentions are. The feedback process focuses on behaviors since we cannot see someone's intentions. Problems arise when we give feedback about other people's intentions instead of their behavior. Often times people perceive behavior as being negatively intended when in fact it was not. It can be difficult to realize that the sender's intentions were not what you thought they were.

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[11] "Giving Feedback: An Interpersonal Skill," adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1975 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1975.

Responsibility For Feedback

In many feedback exchanges, the question of ownership frequently arises: How much responsibility should the giver assume for his or her behavior and how much responsibility should the receiver assume for his or her response? If person A's behavior evokes negative feedback from person B, how much ownership should each assume? Some people are willing to assume more responsibility than others.

For example, Joan may be habitually late for group meetings and may receive feedback from others who react negatively to her behavior. Joan's response may be to say to the others that the real problem is their lack of tolerance for individual differences. She might say that they are attempting to limit her freedom. She might claim that they are investing too much responsibility in her for the group's effectiveness. Joan states that she wants to be involved in the group, but she does not understand why they need her to be on time. Joan is refusing ownership.

This situation presents a value dilemma to the group. Joan's observations are accurate, but her behavior is irritating to other group members. One clarification of this dilemma is to point out that while Joan "owns" only her behavior, the reactions of others to her behavior will inevitably affect her. She must consider the responses of others if she cares about her relationship with them.

Concern for the needs of others as well as one's own needs is a critical dimension in the exchange of feedback. Ownership or responsibility for one's behavior and the consequences of that behavior overlap between the giver and receiver of feedback. The problem lies in reaching some mutual agreement concerning where one person's responsibility ends and the other's begins.

Guidelines For Using Feedback

Regardless of how accurate feedback may be, if a person cannot accept the information because he or she is defensive, then feedback is useless. Always give feedback so that the person receiving it can hear it in the most objective and least distorted way possible, understand it, and choose to use it or to use a decoding process to decide what intention the sender's behavior communicates. This pattern continues as the sender then chooses not to use it. Consider this scenario as you read the guidelines for using feedback.

George intends to compliment Marie by saying to her, "I wish I could be more selfish, like you." Marie responds with "Why, you insensitive boor; what do you mean by saying I'm selfish?" George then gets defensive and retaliates, and both people then become involved in the game of "who-can-hurt-whom-the-most." Instead, Marie could have stated her position another way by saying "When you said 'I wish I could be more selfish, like you,' I felt angry and degraded." This second method of giving feedback contains positive elements that the first did not.

Indirect Vs Direct Expression Of Feelings

When Marie stated that George was an insensitive boor, she was expressing her feelings indirectly. That statement might imply that she was feeling angry or irritated but one could not be certain. On the other hand, Marie expressed her feelings directly when she said, "I felt angry and degraded." She committed herself, and there was no need to guess her feelings.

If Tom says to Andy, "I like you," he is expressing his feelings directly, risking rejection. However, if he says, "You are a likeable person," the risk is less. Indirect expression of feelings is safer

because it is ambiguous. Andy might guess that Tom likes him, but Tom can always deny it. If Andy rejects Tom by saying, "I am happy to hear that I am likeable but I do not like you," Tom can counter, "You are a likeable person, but I do not like you." Indirect expression of feelings offers an escape from commitment.

"You are driving too fast" is an indirect expression of feelings. "I am anxious because you are driving too fast" is a direct expression of feelings. Indirect statements often begin with "I feel that..." and finish with a perception or opinion. For example, "I feel that you are angry." Instead, "I am anxious because you look angry" expresses the speaker's feelings directly and also states a perception. People frequently assume that they are expressing their feelings directly when they state opinions and perceptions starting with "I feel that..." but they are not.

Interpretation Vs Description Of Behavior

In the original example in which Marie said to George, "When you said, 'I wish I could be more selfish like you' I felt angry and degraded, "Marie was describing the behavior to which she was reacting. She was not attributing a motive to George's behavior, such as "You are hostile" or "You do not like me." When one attributes a motive to a person's behavior, one is interpreting that person's intention. Since a person's intention is private and not available to anyone else, it is easy to misinterpret someone's intention.

If William is fidgeting in his chair and Walter says, "You are anxious," Walter is interpreting William's behavior. If instead, Walter describes William's behavior, William may interpret his own behavior by saying, "I need to go to the bathroom."

In any event, interpreting another person's behavior or ascribing motives to it tends to put that person on the defensive. The feedback, regardless of how much insight it contains, cannot be used.

Evaluative Vs Nonevaluative Feedback

When Marie called George an "insensitive boor," she was evaluating him as a person. This feedback was not effective. Respond to the person's behavior and not to the person's personal worth. If George is told that he is stupid or insensitive, he is not likely to respond objectively. He may sometimes act stupidly or behave in an insensitive way, but that does not mean that he is a stupid or insensitive person. Evaluative feedback casts the people in the roles of the judge and the person being judged. The person giving evaluative feedback is imposing a set of values that may not be applicable or others may not share.

Response To Evaluative Feedback

Evaluative feedback usually offends a person's feelings of self-esteem, so it is difficult for anyone to respond to it. We all have core concepts about ourselves that feedback cannot easily change. We are likely to become defensive when our self-esteem is attacked and not even consider the feedback. Therefore, always respond to an observable behavior when giving feedback; do not attack a person's sense of self-esteem.

General Vs Specific Feedback

When Marie responded to George by saying, "When you said, 'I wish I could be more selfish,' I felt angry and degraded," she was describing a specific behavior. If she would have said "You are hostile," she would have been giving feedback in general terms and George might not have known to which behavior she

was reacting. The term "hostile" does not specify what evoked a response in Marie. If George wanted to change, he would not know what behavior to change. When the sender is specific, the receiver knows to what behavior the receiver is responding. The receiver can then change or modify that behavior. Feedback expressed in general terms, such as "You are a warm person" does not allow the receiver to know what specific behavior is perceived as warm. The person cannot expand or build upon this feedback without knowing which behavior evoked the response "warm."

Pressure To Change Vs Freedom of Choice To Change

When Marie told George that she felt angry and degraded by George's statement, she did not tell him he had to change his behavior. If she or the feedback were important to George, he would probably change. If she were not important to him, he might decide not to change. A person should have the freedom to use feedback in any meaningful way without being required to change. When the giver of feedback tells a person to change, the assumption is that he or she knows the correct standards for right and wrong or good and bad behavior. The receiver is then supposed to adopt the standards of the sender for his or her own good (or to save the sender the trouble of changing). Imposing standards on another person and expecting that person to conform to those standards arouses resistance and resentment. The sender assumes that his or her standards are superior. A major problem in marriages arises when spouses tell each other that they must change their behaviors and attitudes to conform with one or the other partner's expectations and demands. These pressures to change can be very direct or very subtle, creating a win-lose relationship.

Expression Of Disappointment As Feedback

Sometimes feedback reflects the sender's disappointment that the receiver did not meet the sender's expectations and hopes. For example, a group leader may be disappointed that a student did not assume a leadership role within the group or did not perform well on an assignment. These situations represent dilemmas. An important part of the sender's feedback is the sender's own feelings. If the sender withholds these feelings of disappointment, the receiver may get a false impression regarding his or her progress. If, on the other hand, the sender expresses the feelings of disappointment, the receiver may experience this feedback as an indication of personal failure instead of as an incentive to change.

Persistent Behavior

Sometimes a group member will persist in a behavior even after receiving feedback that others find this behavior irritating. The most that the group can do is to continue to confront the member with its feelings. While the person has the freedom to change, he or she will also have to accept the consequences of that decision, namely, other people's continuing irritation at the behavior and their probable negative reactions. The person cannot reasonably expect a positive reaction from other group members if the irritating behavior continues. However, the only person you can change is yourself. As a by-product of this change, others may change in relationship to you. As you change, others will adjust their behavior to yours. No one should be forced to change. Such pressure may produce not only superficial conformity but also underlying resentment and anger.

Delayed Vs Immediate Timing

Feedback is most effective when given immediately after the event. In the initial example of the exchange between George and Marie, if Marie had waited until the next day to give feedback, George might have responded with "I don't remember saying that." If Marie had asked the other group members later,

they might have responded with only a vague recollection; the event had not been significant to them, although it was significant to Marie.

When you give immediate feedback, the event is fresh in everyone's mind. Feedback is like a mirror by which people see their behaviors reflected back to them. Other group members can also contribute their observations about the interaction. People often delay feedback because they fear losing control of their feelings, hurting the other person's feelings, or exposing themselves to criticisms of others in the group.

Although it can be threatening to give immediate, honest feedback to a person, feedback is necessary for the group to develop into a team.

PLANNED FEEDBACK

Feedback sessions may be planned to keep communication channels open. You may wish to set aside specific times for feedback sessions. Students may discuss events occurring since their last feedback session or may evaluate the progress of the group to date.

External Vs Group Shared Feedback

When feedback is given immediately after the event, it is usually group-shared so that other members can look at the interaction as it occurs. For example, if group members had reacted to George's statement ("I wish I could be more selfish, like you") by saying "If I were in your shoes, Marie, I wouldn't have felt degraded" or "I did not perceive it as degrading," then Marie would have to look at her behavior and its appropriateness. If, on the other hand, group members had supported Marie's feelings and perceptions (consensual validation), her feedback would have had more potency.

Events that occur outside the group (there-and-then) may be known to only one or two group members and, consequently, other participants cannot react to or discuss them meaningfully. In addition, other group members may feel left out during these discussions. For example, if John discusses a private argument he had with Jane, group members can only conjecture what happened, using John's behavior within the group as a reference point for that conjecture. John's description of the event will be colored by his own bias and emotional involvement. The group members will, therefore, receive a distorted picture of what happened. If the argument had occurred within the group, group members could have been helpful since they would have shared the event. They would have been able to comment on whether or not their perceptions of what happened agreed with the way John perceived the interaction.

Events that occur within the group can be processed by all group members who witness the interaction. They can then share their perceptions and feelings about what occurred. Although a group member may get some value from describing an event external to the group, he or she is not as likely to get an objective evaluation of that event.

Consistent Perceptions

Shared perceptions of what happens in here-and-now events is a major value of the small group. All members must participate to realize this benefit. A person may get feedback from one group member and assume that the rest of the group feels the same way. Sometimes feedback from one member presents a distorted picture because that person's perceptions differ from those of the rest of the group. However, when everyone's reactions are given, the receiver has a much better view of his or her behavior.

If the group members are consistent in their perceptions of the receiver of the feedback, and this feedback disagrees with the receiver's personal view, then the receiver needs to examine the validity of these self-perceptions. The fact that people perceive an individual's behavior differently is useful information in itself. Each group member needs to solicit feedback from members who have not yet provided any feedback to him or her because it represents information that is needed to reach the goal.

It is legitimate to impose feedback in some situations. You may give unsolicited feedback as the group leader in order to role model how to give feedback correctly. A norm may exist within the group that it's o.k. to give unsolicited feedback and this is appropriate if the group is functioning as a team. However, feedback is usually more helpful to the individual if he or she solicits it. Asking for feedback may indicate that the receiver is prepared to listen and is genuinely interested in the perceptions of others.

Some of the same guidelines for giving feedback also apply to asking for feedback. For example, a person should be specific about the subject on which he or she wants feedback. The person who says to the group, "I would like the group members to tell me what they think about me," may receive more feedback than desired. Other members should ask the person to be more specific if he or she requests general feedback. Feedback is a reciprocal process; both senders and receivers can help each other in soliciting and in giving it. Sometimes you must give feedback on how a person is giving feedback. If the sender upsets the receiver, the sender needs to learn to give feedback without attacking someone's self-esteem.

Some group members will be afraid to solicit feedback; others will be afraid to give honest feedback. As the group members begin to develop feelings of trust for one another, feedback will be more readily solicited and given.

Unmodifiable Vs Modifiable Behavior

Feedback is not useful if it is aimed at behavior that cannot be changed. Some individual's behaviors are habitual and may have been developed over a period of several years. Feedback on this kind of behavior is frustrating because the behavior would be very difficult to change.

Feedback on behaviors that are difficult to change can make the person self-conscious and anxious. For example, if the spouse of a chain smoker gives feedback (using all of the appropriate guidelines) about the smoking behavior, it is unlikely that the smoking behavior will change. In fact, such feedback may increase the smoker's tension level, resulting in even more smoking.

Many behaviors can be easily changed through feedback and the person's conscious desire to change the behavior. However, before giving feedback, consider whether or not the behavior can be easily changed.

Motivation To Hurt Vs Motivation To Help

One outcome of small group instruction is that some students learn to help themselves and others develop more effective interpersonal communication skills. However, if a group member is angry, the motivation for feedback may be to hurt the other person. The goal of the interaction is to degrade the other person. Therefore, angry feedback is often useless, even when the information is potentially helpful, because the receiver must reject the feedback to protect his or her integrity.

Coping With Anger

People cope with anger in various ways. Some people engage in verbal or physical attacks; others suppress it. A better strategy is to talk about personal feelings of anger without assigning responsibility for them to the other person. Focusing on personal feelings encourages other group members to help. In this way anger dissipates without either viciousness or suppression. Anger and conflict are not themselves "bad." In fact, they are necessary for the growth of any group. Negative consequences do not arise from conflict in and of itself; they arise from conflict being handled poorly within the group. Conflict within the group presents an opportunity for students to learn to express anger and to resolve conflicts in constructive, problem-solving ways. If conflicts never surfaced, students would not be able to develop competence and confidence in effectively dealing with them.

CONCLUSION

As a team or small group leader, you will need to enforce some of the feedback guidelines more often than others. You will most likely have to remind students to be specific, descriptive, and nonevaluative. You can also use these guidelines diagnostically. For example, if a person reacts defensively to feedback, some of the guidelines were probably violated. The group members can then ask the receiver how he or she interpreted the feedback, and they can help the giver assess how he or she gave the feedback.

CHAPTER 4

INTERVENTIONS

TYPES OF PROCESS INTERVENTIONS[12]

As small group instructors, how, how often, and when do we intervene in our groups? What kinds of interventions do we make? How can we be sure that we will intervene at just the right point when a process intervention will be most effective? The appropriate moment for a particular intervention might easily come and go without realizing it.

Although we can call all interventions merely "process interventions," we can put them into three distinct and separate classes: conceptual-input, coaching, and process-observation interventions. Consider each type in terms of (a) the objective that it can facilitate; (b) what it might look or sound like when we make it; (c) when we can make it; and (d) the form or style it might take.

Conceptual-Input Interventions

Objectives

A conceptual-input type of process intervention provides group members with an organizing principle that has the power to help them clearly see distinctions between typical (but not optimal) behavior and less traditional (but more effective) behavior. Group members tend to remember conceptual inputs easily. Therefore, we can refer to them in the future. When an instructor intervenes in this way, he or she is providing the group members with a new, explicit vocabulary and conceptual system understood by all group members. Thus, we minimize confusion and misunderstandings since group members are more likely to remember, understand, and make use of the kinds of behaviors to which the new language refers.

Timing

We can use the conceptual-input type of intervention at any time. For maximum effectiveness and impact, the intervention should come immediately after a transaction between or among members that clearly illustrates the undesirable consequences of their nonproductive behavior. This is the point at which the intervention will make immediate sense to the group members. When an intervention makes sense, people are most likely to make use of it.

Form or Style

A conceptual-input is brief and succinct. Use words and phrases that are understandable to the group members. It does not help to make the appropriate intervention at the right time if the instructor uses complex terms the group members do not understand. Such a style could result in the group members regarding the instructor as an irrelevant, ivory-tower type and, therefore, not accept the intervention.

Coaching Interventions

Objectives

Coaching interventions should assist members of a group to get in the habit of using new experimental behaviors that they have said they want to practice. They should help group members acquire desirable, functional habits of interacting.

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[12] "Types of Process Interventions," adapted from Jones and Pfieffer, Editors, The 1978 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, CA: Pfieffer and Co., 1978.

Timing

We can most effectively make coaching interventions either (a) during the early, standard-setting phases of the group process (to shape the kinds and sequence of interpersonal communications at an early point) or (b) just after a conceptual-input has been made that provides a justifiable theoretical framework for the coaching efforts. In either instance, we should discontinue coaching interventions as soon as the group members demonstrate that they can employ the new behaviors without assistance or when some members begin systematically to perform the coaching function for other members.

Form or Style

Coaching interventions should use up very little of the group's "air time." They should be suggestions rather than demands or reprimands, and they should be precise and understandable. No one should have to guess what the group leader is aiming at.

Process-Observation Interventions

Objectives

A process-observation intervention may have numerous objectives including:

1. Heightening the group members' awareness of the distinction between the content and process dimensions of activities occurring within a group.

2. Heightening the group's awareness of the implications and consequences of its members' actions. For example, an individual's behavior may contribute to the creation or continuation of norms (both functional and nonfunctional) governing group members' behavior. One member's topic jump might create a group norm that is acceptable in a particular group. When another member does the same thing, it legitimizes and continues the norm. We can also use a process-observation to highlight implications and consequences by pointing out what happens to the group when it is not performing necessary task and maintenance functions or what happens when it employs different group decision-making procedures.

3. Providing an observable model of functional behavior that demonstrates in a tangible manner how a group's movement in the direction of its objectives can be facilitated.

Timing

A process-observation intervention is likely to be most effective during the early phase of the group process. When the group leader has modeled any process-observation, he or she should refrain from making further such interventions. This gives group members more opportunities to experiment with and to practice performing these facilitative functions. To the extent that they do this, they acquire increased self-sufficiency. This tends to preclude their becoming dependent on the group leader, the expert, to perform such functions.

If the group members do not assume responsibility for performing these functions after the leader has modeled them once or twice, the leader might keep track of the implications and consequences of this

failure. Then, during a stop action or some other designed process session, these data could be fed back to the group along with a question: "What, if anything, do we want to do about this situation?" This explicitly invites the group to negotiate a contract among themselves (a) to ensure that needed functions are used when they would be most relevant and (b) to avoid the unnecessary, undesired consequences that have been observed to follow nonperformance of the functions.

Form or Style

In style, process-observations should be personalized and not punitive. But, almost by definition, this class of intervention usually takes a bit longer than others. The instructor is attempting to draw a verbal portrait of dynamic, constantly shifting group processes in order to help the group members see what is happening right now and also to model behavior that the members themselves might attempt at some future time. To get this double message across adequately, sufficient care and time must be taken.

Conclusion

Saul Alinsky's "iron rule" - "Don't ever do anything for people that they can do for themselves" - comes to mind. If one or more group members have the skills and knowledge to act in a functional and objective manner, the instructor should let them do it. If they do not possess such resources, they may require assistance in acquiring them. However, excessive assistance on the part of the instructor - whether process, theory, structured skill-practice exercises, or simulations - leads to stultification, dependency, and indifference or apathy. In order to be as effective as possible, the group leader must learn the line between not enough help and too much help.

INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

1. To provide guidance.

   a. Group feedback can note observations regarding:

      - Balance of participation.
      - Signs of active and inactive listening.
      - Balance between task performance and group maintenance behaviors.
      - Presence/absence of appropriate task and maintenance behaviors.
      - Presence/absence of nonproductive behaviors.
      - Possible inferences concerning risk-taking and freedom of expression.
      - Signs of frustration and disinterest.
      - Ways in which the group appears to be changing over a period of a few sessions.

   b. Guidance can range from least directive, (1) below, to most directive, (5) below:

      (1) Give only raw data.

      Example: Tell group that during the past 30 minutes you observed the following behaviors:

      - 54 information giving.
      - No evaluating.
      - 3 people were silent.
      - Several signs of inactive listening.

(2) Give raw data and suggest there might be a problem.

(3) Suggest possible problems that might be inferred from the raw data.

Example: Using the data in (1) above, possible problems/causes might be:

- Avoidance of conflict.
- Group unwilling or unable to share leadership functions.
- Some people preoccupied with their own problems.
- Disinterest in topic/task.

(4) Suggest possible solutions to problem the group appears to have.

(5) Impose a specific solution to solve a problem.

NOTE: Consider the phase of the group's development as well as the specific situation at hand when deciding how directive to be.

2. Intervene to provide positive reinforcement. Examples:

- When several students begin to share leadership behaviors.
- When students begin giving honest feedback in a helpful, constructive way.
- When students begin diagnosing their effectiveness as a group.

3. Intervene to protect an individual student. Examples:

- Someone "volunteers" another person to do something.
- Feedback is unfair or hurtful to a particular student.
- Conflict is out of hand; disagreement is violent.

Intervention Pitfalls

1. Intervening too often - this limits freedom and can lock the group into Phase 1.

2. Intervening too infrequently - this prevents students from developing the skills to be self-directive.

3. Interventions are too lengthy - stifles group development by creating dependency on group leader.

4. Presenting only negative feedback - creates more frustration than necessary.

NONPRODUCTIVE BEHAVIOR

In this section we identify some behavioral patterns that group members occasionally manifest which cause difficulty for group leaders. We have labeled these patterns to help you identify them. In doing so, we provide clues and examples which will help you recognize people who may be difficult to deal with. Finally, we provide some suggestions about ways you might respond to minimize negative behavior.

Some of the suggestions are more direct than others. We encourage you to choose the one that seems most comfortable to you. Even better, develop your own responses that will help reduce the negative behavior.

Keep in mind that we are describing patterns of behavior. One or two exhibitions of negative behavior do not constitute a pattern. In other words, it is not necessary or appropriate to intervene each time a group member manifests a disruptive behavior. Only when this behavior becomes repetitive, has a negative effect on the group, or becomes irritating to you does it become a pattern. At that point it is desirable to intervene to eliminate the behavior. Also, remember that people can and do change. If you must label someone's behavior, remember that the behavior is not the person. It is only one aspect of the person. When an individual is primarily showing a negative side, it is difficult to see the positive. You, as a leader, need to reinforce any positive behaviors and attempt to minimize the negative ones.

The Rescuer

People who exhibit this behavior tend to "make nice." They apologize, defend, interpret for others, and explain away their own and other people's feelings. They tend to get frustrated or frightened by conflict, and they protect others as a way of avoiding the conflict situation. They are easy to recognize because they preface statements with phrases like, "I think what she really meant was..." or "You shouldn't feel that way because..." or "You shouldn't say that to Sam because he may take it the wrong way."

Intervention Strategies: The Rescuer

- When the rescuer is attempting to interpret for someone else, say, "I'm aware that you are speaking for Alice. What I suggest is that you let Alice speak for herself," or "I would prefer that people speak for themselves. Communication breaks down when people interpret for others."

- When the rescuer is trying to avoid conflict, you can say, "You seemed uncomfortable when Joe got angry. Is it true?"

The Projector

The projector attributes his or her own thoughts and feelings to other people. Often projectors are unaware that it is they who are experiencing the feeling, probably because it is so uncomfortable for them. Different feelings can be unpleasant for different individuals. Some people are afraid of anger, others are afraid of sadness, and still others are afraid of fear. The feelings we tend to project onto others are the ones with which we are most uncomfortable. Projectors, although they appear to be speaking for other people, are actually speaking for themselves. You can recognize them because they either talk in generalities or talk about other people. They rarely make statements for themselves.

Intervention Strategies: The Projector

- "You've just made a statement for the group. Is that statement true for you?"

- "I'm wondering if that is really the way you feel. Let's check out whether other people are really experiencing the feelings you are attributing to them.

The Passive Aggressor

This kind of behavior can be difficult to notice at first, as it is indirect rather than direct. Passive-aggressive people are hostile or angry, but they express their hostility in subtle and indirect ways. Often they attempt to mobilize group members to express the negative feelings they are experiencing. What usually occurs is that everyone begins to feel uncomfortable. Generally, passive-aggressive people project their anger or uncertainty onto the leader, and the leader may begin to feel defensive. Participants exhibiting passive-aggressive behavior tend to do the following: come a little late to meetings and be mildly disruptive when they arrive; initiate occasional side conversations when someone else (generally the leader) is speaking; and maintain a somewhat unpleasant or disinterested facial expression. They often make mildly hurtful statements to people in the group, particularly the leader. If someone confronts them about their intentions, they retreat and claim they did not mean anything negative by their remarks. They seem to have a knack for sensing the leader's "Achilles heel." A group leader often feels defensive around passive-aggressive people. These people tend to bait the leader, but they back off, act naive, and play victim when the leader attempts to deal with them directly. The leader is often left feeling foolish, and the behavior gets reinstated at a later point. In attempting to eliminate this kind of behavior, it is important that the leader does not get into an argument with the passive-aggressive person and does not make an attempt to confront the behavior directly.

Intervention Strategies: The Passive Aggressor

- Take time for general evaluation. You can say, "Let's take a minute to see how people are feeling about the class now. If the passive aggressor responds negatively, thank him or her for the feedback. If he or she responds positively or says nothing, say, "I'm glad you seem to be responding well to the class so far."

- If the individual makes a negative statement about the group and seems to be speaking for others, re-phrase the statement so that it pertains only to the speaker. If John says, "That last exercise was a waste of time," say, "You feel, John, that the last exercise was a waste of time."

- If you feel a need to confront the person directly about his/her anger, and he/she is able to express it, then you have succeeded in cutting off the indirect passive-aggressive behavior. If the individual denies any angry or negative feelings, then simply say, "I'm sorry. I must have misread you. I'm glad everything is fine."

The Apologizer

Apologizers tend to preface their questions or statements with an apology. They often begin with the words, "Maybe I should not say this but..." or "Maybe you have already answered this question but..." or "I'm sorry for taking up so much time but..."Apologizers are not negative or unpleasant people. They can be draining, however, and they generally use up a lot of airtime in a group. Although they tend to speak a good deal, their apologies often reflect deep levels of insecurity.

Intervention Strategies: The Apologizer

- It is best to be direct with apologizers. You can say, "I feel badly that you apologize each time you speak. Your concerns are legitimate. There is no need to apologize for yourself."
- "You have made some interesting points. You do not need to apologize for speaking."
- "Would you please ask your question again? This time experiment with omitting the apology."

The Fighter

Fighters are people who exhibit fighting behavior in a group, arguing or disagreeing with most things that are said. They give the impression they want to pick a fight by asking questions or making comments in a provocative way. Their questions are really statements. They often begin by saying, "Don't you think that...." They are easy to recognize as their tone of voice is often belligerent. They seem to be continually looking for an argument. Usually fighters are struggling for power or control. Their questions or disagreements with the leader are the means by which they attempt to assume control.

Intervention Strategies: The Fighter

- If the fighter continually picks apart your statements or finds fault with the material, say, "It sounds like you have some interesting ideas. I'd really like to hear you elaborate on them."

- If the fighter says, "Don't you think that...," say, "It sounds like you have a statement to make. You are not really asking a question."

- You can confront the negativity by saying, "You sound irritated to me. Is there something bothering you?" If the fighter expresses some negative feelings, it is important to thank him or her for telling you and not argue about what was said.

The Flighter

This person seems to be in another world. He or she often "tunes out," misses directions, or just does not seem to grasp the material. Often flighters play dumb, rather than admit their attention is elsewhere. They are annoying in groups because they ask leaders to repeat directions or points everyone else understood. Their investment in the group seems low. When asked for an opinion, they often respond by saying, "I don't care" or "Whatever you want" or "It makes no difference to me." During the class, they often have blank expressions on their faces.

Intervention Strategies: The Flighter

- If a flighter asks you to repeat material that you believe was quite clear, ask him or her to repeat first what he or she did hear. You can then ask other group members to fill in the rest.

- If you notice the flighter getting distracted, you can say, "You seem to be distracted right now. Is there something on your mind?"

- If flighters seem reluctant to give their opinion or to make a choice, force them to make a choose. Say, "Even though you don't have much of a preference, please make a choice anyway."

The Questioner

The questioner can cause you difficulty because he or she is repeatedly stopping the flow of your presentation by asking questions. These questions may be about the content, the procedure, or about your style of leading the group. Questioners often ask a lot of "why" questions that you may begin to find difficult to answer and which can make you feel defensive. You will probably feel irritated by these

persistent interruptions. Often questioners have trouble thinking by themselves. Rather than finding their own answer to a thought or question, they will ask you to figure out the answer for them.

Intervention Strategies: The Questioner

- "I appreciate your interest in the material. I think it would be helpful for you to experiment with answering that question yourself."
- "Take a guess as to what I meant by that statement."
- "We only have a limited amount of time. Would you please save your question? We may address it later on."
- "Instead of answering that now, why don't you see me during the break if your question has not been answered by then?"
- "What do you think the answer to that question is?" If the questioner responds by saying he or she does not know, say "Take your time. When you get an idea, let us know."

The Withdrawer

The withdrawer sits quietly in the group but looks miserable. He or she calls attention to himself or herself by looking pained, blank, or even disgusted. The group is generally aware of this person's feelings even though he or she is quiet. The withdrawer's facial expression clearly communicates displeasure, but the rest of the body gestures are quite still and withdrawn. Other members of the group generally feel awkward when they notice this person's quiet, but obvious discomfort.

Intervention Strategies: The Withdrawer

- "Is there something about what we are doing that is not of interest to you?"
- "Susan, why don't you take this opportunity, while we are evaluating this segment of the class, to express your feelings and thoughts; you seem to be displeased."
- "I encourage you to express your point of view. Perhaps you can influence what we are currently doing."

The Monopolizer

The monopolizer takes up a great amount of air time in a class. As a result, sometimes other group members begin to withdraw rather than fight for the right to speak. The monopolizer is generally a poor listener who usually manages to turn the conversation back to himself or herself. People exhibiting this behavior are often long-winded and tend to interrupt others to state a personal opinion or relate an experience. This person seems unaware that there are other people who might want to speak. Almost always when there is a pause in the conversation, he or she jumps right in, attempting to relate personally to the topic.

Intervention Strategies: The Monopolizer

- "We have been hearing primarily from one or two people. I'm interested in hearing from the rest of you."

- "It might be helpful for those of you who have been doing a lot of talking to listen more and for those of you who have been doing a lot of listening to try speaking up more often."

- "Notice your style of participation. Have you been primarily a listener or a talker in this class? Practice exhibiting the opposite behavior, and see what new things you can learn."

- "You have made some interesting comments. Now I would like you to give some other people an opportunity to speak."

The Know-It-All

The know-it-all is the person who is the expert on everything. Regardless of what you say, he or she either adds something or corrects what you have said. Know-it-alls have ideas about almost everything and are very quick to offer their opinions, whether someone solicits them or not. They want to feel important and show they are knowledgeable. Therefore, know-it-alls attempt to get recognition and power by taking the role of the resident expert.

Intervention Strategies: The Know-It-All

- "It seems that you have opinions on many subjects that are very different from mine. Would you like to come up to the front of the room and present an opposing point of view?"

- "You seem to know a lot about the subject. I'm wondering why you took this class."

- "Perhaps you would like to prepare a presentation and give it this afternoon since you seem to have so many opinions on the subject."

- "Thank you for the information" or "Thank you for your point of view."

- "You and I see the situation very differently. Although you certainly don't have to change your mind, I suggest that you let yourself be open to these new ideas. Let me know at the end of the class how you feel."

The Complainer

The complainer continually finds fault with all aspects of the class. His or her criticism can include everything from dissatisfaction with the environment to dissatisfaction with the material being presented or with the structure. Therefore, you are likely to hear complaints like the following, "this workshop is not what I expected" or "the seats are uncomfortable" or "I hate role-playing." Complainers begrudgingly participate while letting you and everyone else know how they feel. They do not always express their feelings orally; rather they tend to moan and groan and make grimaces.

Intervention Strategies: The Complainer

- "You seem quite dissatisfied with most of the material being presented. What I hope is you will let yourself be open to it and reserve judgment until the end of the class. Then I would appreciate your feedback."

- "Even though I know you are not getting what you want right now, would you be willing to be receptive to what we are offering, and then decide later on how useful the material is to you?"

- "If nothing pleases you, perhaps you really do not want to be here now."

The Distractor

The distractor often asks questions or makes comments that have nothing to do with the material currently being discussed. Distractors change the topic by bringing up extraneous material, but they are usually unaware they are doing so. Their questions and comments divert attention from what is being discussed. These irrelevant comments often cause discomfort as well as annoyance to the leader and to the group members. Responding to the comments and questions means getting sidetracked. It is difficult not to respond, however, because distractors are usually enthusiastic participants who do not consciously intend to cause trouble.

Intervention Strategies: The Distractor

- "That question does not seem to fit what we are discussing right now. If it continues to seem important to you, why don't you talk to me during the break?"

- "You seem to be asking a lot of questions that are only slightly related to the topic we are discussing. Are you having difficulty understanding the material?"

- If people are raising their hands before speaking, you can avoid calling on the distractors. If, however, participants are speaking without raising their hands, you can say, "Gee, Joe, we have heard from you a lot; let's hear from some other points of view now."

The Pollyanna

A Pollyanna can initially be a delight to have in a group. The individual is always smiling, and his or her attitude is that everything is always wonderful and satisfying. Pollyannas rarely, if ever, express a preference or make a critical comment. They almost always go along with what someone says or what the majority of the group wants. Nothing is ever a problem for them. A Pollyanna will avoid conflict or disharmony at any cost. He or she refuses to engage in any activity that might cause discomfort.

Intervention Strategies: The Pollyanna

- If you are waiting for the Pollyanna to state a preference, and he or she is avoiding responsibility, you can say, "Choose. Make a decision, any decision, as long as you decide."

- In an evaluation, encourage him or her to give corrective feedback as well as positive feedback. Say, "I really appreciate all your positive comments though I am sure the course is not 100% excellent. Find something you would like to see improved. It is important to give corrective as well as positive feedback."

- "It is really nice to hear you give both positive and corrective feedback."

The Intellectualizer

Intellectualizers tend to be quite verbose and provide a lot of explanations for why they think or feel a certain way. An intellectualizer attempts to make sense out of everything. When speaking, he or she uses many rationalizations and justifications for his or her beliefs. This person often becomes lost in his or her own theory. One way to recognize intellectualizers is by the way they often translate a very simple thought or idea into a complex theory. The more the intellectualizers talk, the more complicated the simple thought becomes.

Intervention Strategies: The Intellectualizer

- "Try expressing that idea in one sentence."

- "I am glad you are interested in that idea, but I am getting confused with how you are developing it."

- "I am getting lost in all your words; see if you can say what you mean more concisely."

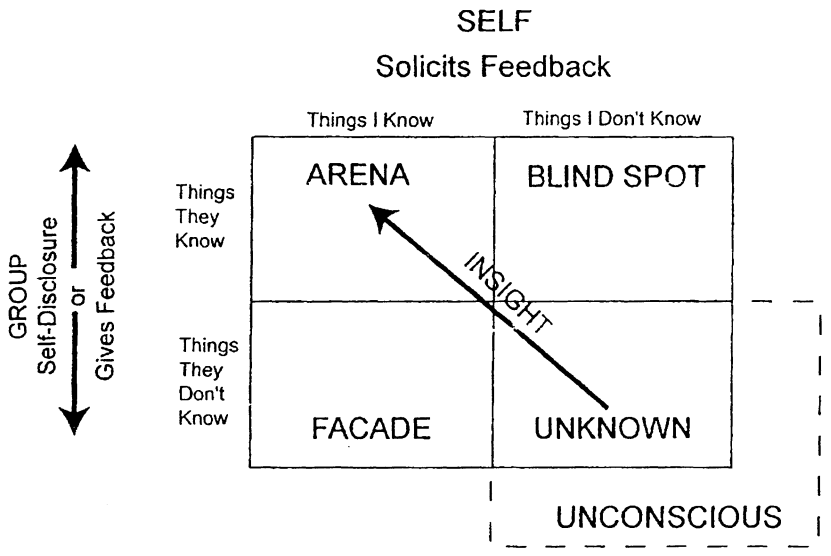
- "It appears to me you are making what has just been said more complicated than is necessary."

CHAPTER 5

JOHARI WINDOW

THE JOHARI WINDOW: A MODEL FOR SOLICITING AND GIVING FEEDBACK[13]

The process of giving and receiving feedback is one of the most important concepts in training. Through the feedback process, we see ourselves as others see us. Through feedback, other people also learn how we see them. Feedback gives information to a person or group either by verbal or nonverbal communication. The information you give tells others how their behavior affects you, how you feel, and what you perceive (feedback and self-disclosure). Feedback is also a reaction by others, usually in terms of their feelings and perceptions, telling you how your behavior affects them (receiving feedback).



A model known as the Johari Window illustrates the process of giving and receiving feedback. Psychologists Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham developed the window for their group process program. Look at the model above as a communication window through which you give and receive information about yourself and others. Look at the four panes in terms of columns and rows. The two columns represent the self; the two rows represent the group. Column one contains "things that I know about myself;" column two contains "things that I do not know about myself." The information in these rows and columns moves from one pane to another as the level of mutual trust and the exchange of feedback varies in the group. As a consequence of this movement, the size and shape of the panes within the window will vary.

The first pane, the "Arena," contains things that I know about myself and about which the group knows. Characterized by free and open exchanges of information between myself and others, this behavior is public and available to everyone. The Arena increases in size as the level of trust increases between individuals or between an individual and the group. Individuals share more information, particularly personally relevant information.

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[13] Chapter 5 is adapted from Group Process: An Introduction to Group Dynamics by Joseph Luft, Mayfield Publishing Co., 1984.

this behavior is public and available to everyone. The Arena increases in size as the level of trust increases between individuals or between an individual and the group Individuals share more information, particularly personally relevant information.

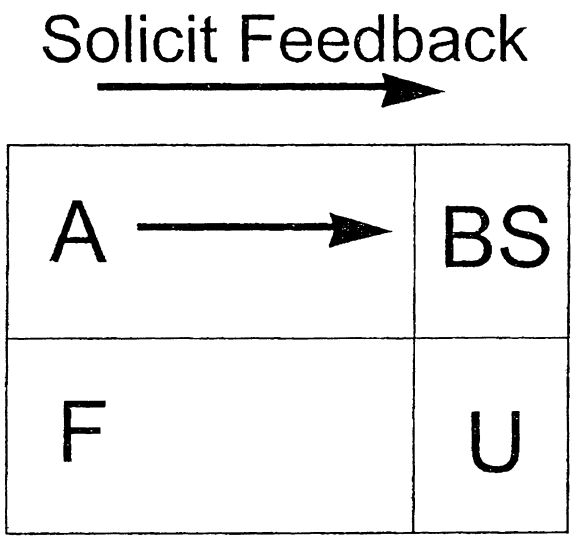
The second pane, the "Blind Spot," contains information that I do not know about myself but of which the group may know. As I begin to participate in the group, I am not aware of the information I communicate to the group. The people in the group learn this information from my verbal cues, mannerisms, the way I say things, or the style in which I relate to others. For instance, I may not know that I always look away from a person when I talk... or that I always clear my throat just before I say something. The group learns this from me.

Pane three, the "Facade" or "Hidden Area," contains information that I know about myself but the group does not know. I keep these things hidden from them. I may fear that if the group knew my feelings, perceptions, and opinions about the group or the individuals in the group, they might reject, attack, or hurt me. As a consequence, I withhold this information. Before taking the risk of telling the group something, I must know there are supportive elements in our group. I want group members to judge me positively when I reveal my feelings, thoughts, and reactions. I must reveal something of myself to find out how members will react. On the other hand, I may keep certain information to myself so that I can manipulate or control others.

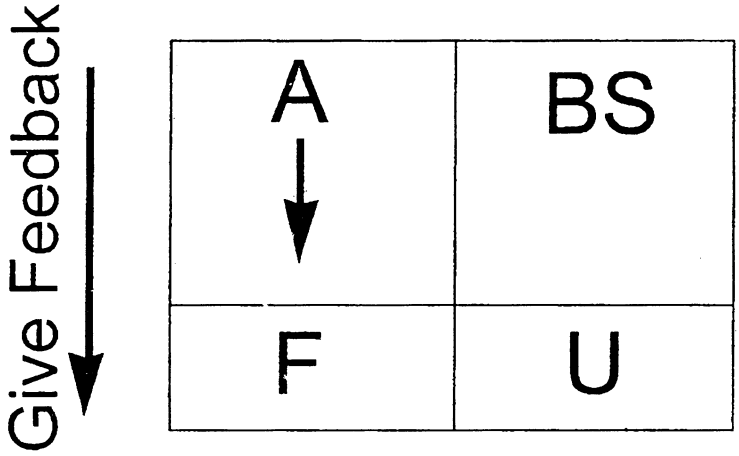
The fourth and last pane, the "Unknown," contains things that neither I nor the group knows about me. I may never become aware of material buried far below the surface in my unconscious area. The group and I may learn other material, though, through a feedback exchange among us. This unknown area represents intrapersonal dynamics, early childhood memories, latent potentialities, and unrecognized resources. The internal boundaries of this pane change depending on the amount of feedback sought and received. Knowing all about myself is extremely unlikely, and the unknown extension in the model represents the part of me that will always remain unknown (the unconscious in Freudian terms).

Individual Goals Within a Group

In a small group, each member can work toward an individual goal as well as the group's goal. For example, let's say that your goal is to decrease the size of your Blind Spot (window-pane two). In other words, you want to move the vertical line to the right in the window. The size of the Arena and Facade panes will increase as the size of the Blind Spot and Unknown panes decreases. The Blind Spot contains information the group knows about you, but you do not know. The only way you can learn this information is to seek feedback from the group. If you solicit feedback consistently and remain receptive to that feedback, the size of your Blind Spot will decrease.



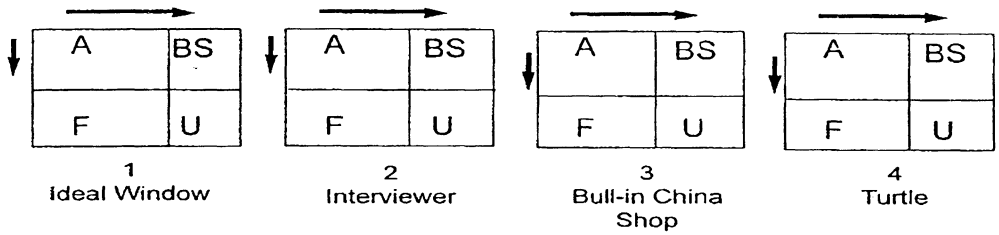
Suppose you decide to reduce the Facade pane, i.e., move the horizontal line down. This window contains information you have hidden from the group. You can reduce the size of this window by telling the group or group members about your perceptions, feelings, and opinions about things in others and yourself. This feedback tells the group exactly where you stand; they no longer need to guess about the meaning of your actions. As you disclose more information about yourself, you decrease the size of your Facade pane.



The Johari window panes are interdependent. Changing the size to one pane forces the size of corresponding panes to change also. In the previous examples, when you reduced the size of the Blind Spot or Facade panes through giving and soliciting feedback, you increased the size of the Arena pane.

In the process of giving and asking for feedback, you may tend to do much more of one than the other. This creates an imbalance between giving and asking for feedback. This imbalance may affect your effectiveness in the group and the group members' reactions to you. The amount of feedback shared and the ratio of giving versus soliciting feedback affect the size and shape of the Arena.

Study the four windows below. Each characterizes extreme ratios of soliciting and giving feedback. Think how a person described in each window might appear to you in a small group.



The Ideal Window

The Ideal Window in the first example reflects a high degree of trust in the group or in any relationship significant to the person. If you are in this window, the size of your Arena increases because of your increased trust level in the group. The norms developed by your group for giving and receiving feedback facilitate this kind of exchange. The large Arena suggests that much of your behavior is open to your group members. Because of your openness, other group members do not need to interpret (or misinterpret) or project more personal meanings into your behavior. They understand your actions and words, and they know you are open to soliciting and giving feedback.

You do not need a large Arena with everyone. Your casual acquaintances may see this kind of openness as threatening or inappropriate because of the relationship you have with them. The more open you are in dealing with others, the fewer games you play in relationships.

The Large Facade Window - The Interviewer

Window number two suggests a person who characteristically participates by asking questions but not giving information or feedback. If you are in this window, the size of your Facade relates to the amount of information you provide to others. You may respond to the group norm to maintain a reasonable level of participation by asking for information. You intervene by asking questions such as: "What do you think about this?" "How would you have acted if you were in my shoes?" "How do you feel about what I just said?" "What is your opinion of the group?" You want to know where other people stand before you commit yourself. You do not commit yourself to the group, making it difficult for them to know where you stand on issues. At some point in your group's history, other members may have confronted you with a statement similar to this one: "Hey, you are always asking me how I feel about what's going on, but you never tell me how you feel." This style, characterized as the Interviewer, may eventually evoke reactions of irritation, distrust, and withholding.

The Blind Spot Window - Bull-in-the-China Shop

Window number three suggests a person who characteristically participates primarily by giving feedback but soliciting very little. If you are in this window, you tell the group what you think of them, how you feel about what is going on in the group, and where you stand on group issues. You may lash out at group members or criticize the group as a whole and view your actions as being open and above board. For some reason, you either appear to be insensitive to the feedback you get or do not hear what group members tell you. Either you may be a poor listener or you may respond to feedback in such a way that group members are reluctant to continue to give you feedback. Members get angry, cry, threaten to leave. As a consequence, you do not know how you are coming across to other people or what impact you have on others. Because you do not correct your actions when you receive group feedback, you appear out of touch, evasive, or distorted. You continue to behave ineffectively because of your one-way communication (from you to others). Since you are insensitive to the group's steering function, you do not know what behaviors to change.

The Unknown Window - The Turtle

The fourth window suggests a person who characteristically participates by observing. If you are in this window, you do not know much about yourself, nor does the group know much about you. You may be the silent member in the group who neither gives nor asks for feedback. The "soliciting" and "giving feedback" arrows are very short. Group members find it difficult to know where you stand in the group or where they stand with you. You are the mystery person. You appear to have a shell around you, insulating you from other group members. If group members confront you about your lack of participation, you may respond with, "I learn more by listening." While you may find it painful to participate actively, you will learn considerably more than you would if you choose to participate passively Your shell keeps people from getting in and you from getting out. You will expend a considerable amount of energy maintaining a closed system because of the pressure which group norms exert on your behavior.

The goal of soliciting feedback and self-disclosure or giving feedback is to move information from the Blind Spot and the Facade into the Arena, where everyone accesses it. The process of giving and receiving feedback moves new information from the Unknown into the Arena. You have an "Aha" experience when you suddenly perceive a relationship between a here-and-now transaction in the group and a previous event. You gain insight and inspiration from these experiences.

It takes practice to give nonthreatening feedback. You must develop sensitivity to other people's needs and be able to put yourself in another person's shoes. Be accepting of yourself and of others to make your feedback more valuable to others.

THE MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR®

The MBTI is a nonjudgmental, self-report instrument that identifies a person's preferred information gathering and decision-making style. It helps people understand their own behavior and why others behave differently. It also identifies orientations that influence their energy and life style.

The authors: Katherine C. Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers developed the MBTI as a means of helping people understand themselves, make informed career choices, and survive in organizational settings. Since the early 1940's there has been a constant and systematic research and development process to improve the MBTI; expand the scope and validity of applications; and promote the constructive use of type differences.

Psychological Types: Carl Jung hypothesizes that much apparently random behavior is actually quite orderly and consistent, based on the way people prefer to use their perception and judgment. Perception involves the ways of becoming aware of things, people, happenings, and ideas. Judgment involves the ways of making decisions about what has been perceived. The means of perception are sensing and intuition. The means of judgement are thinking and feeling. Further, our attitudes toward the world and others are based on a preference for extroversion or introversion. Our life styles are associated with our preference for judgment or perception. As people differ in these preferences, they correspondingly differ in their interests, motivations, perceptions, interactions, and value judgments. Likewise, they differ in the way they learn, communicate, solve problems, contribute to a team, and select a leadership style.

Based on psychological type studies, the MBTI provides a constructive and objective way to examine behavior differences in groups and organizations. For example, the MBTI is used to help leaders understand subordinate behavior and apply appropriate leadership styles. It is used to select project teams with sufficient diversity to solve problems creatively and use their type differences constructively. It is used to improve communications and build teams by helping individuals understand their strengths and weaknesses. In training settings, it helps instructors understand and meet the needs of individuals with different learning styles.

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LEARNING STYLES

The Learning-Style Inventory (LSI) identifies the way people deal with experiences in their lives. Experiences are processed differently by each individual generating varied learning results. How we process information, from identification of problems to how to resolve these problems, and what to do with the results, is largely based on our perception and application of the information.

Without planning, information may be presented via one media, i.e., print, or speech. However, with an understanding of how people process information - what media enhances their learning, and what motivates them to do something with the information presented - may change how the information is presented.

Although a learning-style inventory provides insight into how one learns, there is no single mode that describes ones learning style. How you learn is a combination of modes and requires personal insight into the stages of the learning cycle. The Self-Scoring Inventory and Interpretation Booklet (McBer and Company), provides information on the stages of the learning cycle below.

Concrete Experience (CE)

This stage of the learning cycle emphasizes personal involvement with people in everyday situations. In this stage, you would tend to rely more on your feelings than on a systematic approach to problems and situations. In a learning situation, you would rely on your ability to be open-minded and adaptable to change.

Reflective Observation (RO)

In this stage of the learning cycle, people understand ideas and situations from different points of view. In a learning situation you would rely on patience, objectivity, and careful judgement but would not necessarily take any action. You would rely on your own thoughts and feelings in forming opinions.

Abstract Conceptualization (AC)

In this stage, learning involves using logic and ideas, rather than feelings, to understand problems or situations. Typically, you would rely on systematic planning and develop theories and ideas to solve problems.

Active Experimentation (AE)

Learning in this stage takes an active form-experimenting with influencing or changing situations. You would take a practical approach and be concerned with what really works, as opposed to simply watching a situation. You value getting things done and seeing the results of your influence and ingenuity."[14]

The self-scoring inventory and interpretation booklet also provides the following information on the four learning-style types.

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[14] *Learning-Style Inventory, Self-Scoring Inventory and Interpretation Booklet*, McBer & Company, Training Resources Group, 116 Huntington Ave, Boston, MA 02116.

Converger

Combines learning steps of AC and AE. People with this learning style are best at finding practical uses for ideas and theories. If this is your preferred learning style, you have the ability to solve problems and make decisions based on finding solutions to questions or problems. You would rather deal with technical tasks and problems than with social and interpersonal issues. These learning skills are important for effectiveness in specialist and technology careers.

Diverger

Combines learning steps of CE and RO. People with this learning style are best at viewing concrete situations from many different points of view. Their approach to situations is to observe rather than take action. If this is your style, you may enjoy situations that call for generating a wide range of ideas, as in brainstorming sessions. You probably have broad cultural interests and like to gather information. This imaginative ability and sensitivity to feelings is needed for effectiveness in arts, entertainment, and service careers.

Assimilator

Combines learning steps of AC and RO. People with this learning style are best at understanding a wide range of information and putting it into concise, logical form. If this is your learning style, you probably are less focused on people and more interested in abstract ideas and concepts. Generally, people with this learning style find it more important that a theory have logical soundness than practical value. This learning style is important for effectiveness in information and science careers.

Accommodator

Combines learning steps of CE and AE. People with this learning style have the ability to learn primarily from "hands-on" experience. If this is your style, you probably enjoy carrying out plans and involving yourself in new and challenging experiences. Your tendency may be to act on "gut" feelings rather than on logical analysis. In solving problems, you may rely more heavily on people for information than on your own technical analysis. This learning style is important for effectiveness in action-oriented careers such as marketing or sales.[15]

KEIRSEY TEMPERAMENTS

David Keirsey states, "... people are different from each other, and that no amount of getting after them is going to change them. Nor is there any reason to change them, because the differences are probably good, not bad.[16]

Keirsey relates behavior to temperaments. Based on the theory of Psychological Types of Carl Jung[17], consistent behavior, identifiable early in life, gives credence to the ability to predict or measure traits, categorized as temperaments. Motivation, ambition, structure, behavioral latitudes, learning

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[15] Same as 14.

[16] *Please Understand Me*, David Keirsey and Marilyn Bates, Prometheus Nemesis Book Company, Del Mar, CA.

[17] *Psychological Types*, Carl Jung, Harcourt Brace, New York.

capabilities and attitudes will follow patterns. The importance of these patterns is not that they are observable, but that they are different among individuals and valued precisely for that difference.
The usefulness of Keirsey's temperaments is that by understanding the differences among individuals, and accepting this as being a behavioral fundamental, we can present information configured to meet the varied individual requirements. Conceptual frameworks compared to concrete specifics; visual stimuli compared to stark black and white print, free time self-study compared to mandated classroom exercises may be examples of information presented dynamically through a variety of media to meet learners' requirements.

CHAPTER 6

SMALL GROUP INSTRUCTION:

THEORY AND PRACTICE

SMALL GROUP INSTRUCTION: THEORY AND PRACTICE[18]

INTRODUCTION

Objectives. The use of small groups for instructional purposes is widely practiced in a variety of contexts, ranging from conventional educational institutions to the armed forces and training within business and industry. However, despite this wide usage, concrete information and practical guidance concerning instructional methods suitable for use with small groups have been difficult or impossible to find. The purpose of this volume is to provide such information and guidance.

Contents.

The Small Group Rationale. The fundamental goal of every instructor is to create a conducive learning environment. Small-group methods of instruction are one approach to the creation of such an environment.

Regardless of the particular method used, the rationale for small group instruction rests upon the premise that learning is partly a function of attitudes, and education or training is a matter of overcoming resistance to change. This can be accomplished by discussing issues or problems and, in some instances, arriving at decisions about how they might be handled. Because the group resolves problems with each student participating, members are committed to solutions through the functioning of group norms endorsing the new ideas or behaviors. Under this rationale, two purposes are assumed to be accomplished: (a) students get new insights into problems by hearing different viewpoints and by having their ideas critiqued, and (b) they learn and commit to new behaviors from group discussion and decision.

For maximum learning to occur, a group must possess a common goal for learning, a reasonable degree of cohesiveness, norms conducive to learning, and patterns of effective communication - in effect, a learning culture. In permanently structured groups, these ingredients may already be present. However, in most instructional situations, where students usually meet for short periods spread over weeks or months, instructors must create and develop the required structure and processes of the group. The various methods used in small-group instruction are devices for accomplishing these purposes.

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[18] Chapter Six has been adapted from: Small-Group Instruction: Theory and Practice, Joseph A. Olmstead, Human Resources Research Organization, Alexandria, VA, 1974.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Small-group methods are founded upon a rationale which is more elaborate than those for most other teaching methods. With the exception of programmed instruction, most methods have evolved through trial and error and their rationales are unsystematic. On the other hand, like programmed instruction, the rationale for small-group methods has been more or less systematically derived from an already existing body of scientific knowledge. It is the result of a rather sophisticated melding of learning theory with the techniques of group dynamics.

IMPORTANCE OF INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Clear and explicit instructional objectives are a critical requisite for the effective use of small-group methods. The methods differ in terms of outcomes, requisite instructors, skills, and students' expected reactions. Accordingly, effective use of the methods requires instructors to know precisely what they are trying to accomplish.

An example involving leadership training will illustrate the importance of clearly conceived objectives. Both research and experience have confirmed that an important leadership function is to develop high motivation levels in subordinates.

However, if the exceedingly important issues concerned with the nature of this motivation are ignored, a number of questions important for training design still remain. Is it sufficient for students to be made aware of the fact that other people have motives and needs which must be considered in leadership decisions and actions? Should they be drilled in techniques of "motivating" subordinates? Should they be trained in the ethics of "group-centered leadership?" Would it be desirable to teach something about the psychology of motivation? Answers to methodological questions such as these can be determined only when course objectives have been carefully derived.

The implications of course design are crucial. The purpose of education or training is to achieve change. If change is to be achieved, the instructor must be able to control and manipulate his/her inputs into the course. This is difficult if the instructor is unclear on what is intended to be accomplished. For example, is the result of instruction to be a cognitive change based on the acquisition of information, an attitudinal change brought about by the additional information and experiences gained through the course, or a behavioral change - an improvement in specified skills? If trainers are not clear relative to the specific changes and learning expectations, valid instruction becomes virtually impossible to develop.

The principal task of course designers is to devise suitable strategies for eliciting, controlling, and channeling student behavior. Instructional method selection is based on a theory about the relation of the method to certain desired behaviors. The instructor has a hypothesis about the kind of behavior he/she anticipates following a given treatment, and he/she proceeds to test it - to apply the method and manipulate the inputs in accordance with theory.

Thus, it is clear that an explicit conception of the desired behavior is essential. An instructor who has objectives clearly in mind and, in addition, has made a careful analysis of the available instructional methods may effectively design a course to achieve genuine change.

THE USE OF SMALL-GROUP METHODS

For certain objectives, small-group methods are the techniques of choice. In other instances, they are valuable options that can provide an educational system with needed flexibility. When used properly, the methods are invaluable for increasing student motivation through greater involvement and participation. Under certain conditions, they even make it possible to ease the loads of overburdened instructors by reducing the time required to prepare formal presentations.

In general, it is feasible to use small-group methods in courses to:

1. Increase understanding and grasp of course content.
2. Enhance motivation and generate greater student involvement.
3. Develop positive attitudes toward later use of presented material.
4. Develop problem-solving skills specific to the course content.
5. Provide practice in the application of concepts and information to practical problems.
6. Generate ideas among students concerning ways of applying acquired knowledge.
7. Develop student commitment to recommended ways of handling problems.
8. Emphasize an important issue.
9. Proceed with instruction when content experts are scarce or not available.

Despite these benefits, small-group methods are not always used in the best possible ways. One reason may be that their flexibility and relative ease of administration can lead to the belief that the methods are foolproof. Like all instructional methods, the success of small-group techniques depends largely upon the care with which they are designed and used. For this reason, it is important to state several important cautions with regard to the most effective use of the methods.

First, it is essential that methods be selected and used with the instructional objective clearly in mind. Thus, the time, effort, and thought expended in accurate definition of objectives, in selection of proper methods, and in use of the methods appropriate to the objectives will usually be well-repaid in the quality of learning that is achieved.

Second, although small-group methods are effective for certain purposes when used alone, they are most successful when students are also equipped with background information concerning the topics or problems under study. The foundation for small-group methods is discussion, but instructive discussion cannot be accomplished unless students have some informational basis from which to talk.

Finally, groups in which members work together over periods of time are, in general, likely to be more efficient and effective vehicles for learning. Therefore, where small-group methods are used repeatedly throughout the duration of a course, it is usually advisable to assign students permanently to groups and allow them to remain together whenever group sessions are considered desirable. An exception is the case where a stated objective is the stimulation of students through exposure to a wide range of ideas and viewpoints. With such an objective, periodic realigning of groups may be advisable.

REQUIREMENTS FOR INSTRUCTORS/SGLs

It is axiomatic that no instructional method is better than the person who uses it. This statement is especially true with respect to small-group methods of instruction. However, the requirements for effective use of the methods are somewhat different than those for other instructional techniques. For example, it is not essential that leaders be content experts although preparation and expertise contribute to the quality of learning. Since responsibility for most of the learning rests with the students and since guides for discussion leaders can be prepared by experts, complete mastery of content is not an essential requirement for instructors.

On the other hand, solid grounding in the rationale and uses of small-group methods is necessary for their maximum effectiveness. Thus, it is important for instructors to be well-trained in use of the methods. This includes not only skill in conducting group sessions but also familiarity with the purposes of the various methods. Understanding of purposes is necessary because they determine which techniques should be selected and how they should be used.

Finally, it is important for an instructor to understand, accept, and be comfortable with the premises embodied in the rationale for small group instruction. Principal among these are the premises that (a) a group of reasonably capable adults can learn on its own if the instructor will let it, (b) it is not essential for an instructor to control every input into a discussion in order for it to be an effective learning experience, and (c) maximum learning occurs when a group breaks its dependence upon its instructor and assumes responsibility for learning.

SELECTION AND USE OF METHODS FOR SMALL-GROUP INSTRUCTION

Scope Of Reference

The focus of this reference is small group methods of instruction. For the present purpose, the term "small group refers" to not more than 16 students. This is an arbitrary definition; however, experience strongly supports the view that instructional effectiveness is reduced when groups consist of more than 16 students, while any number less than 16 can be readily managed in most learning situations.

Furthermore, this reference is concerned with methods that are specifically designed to use the social-psychological forces inherent in small groups for learning purposes. The mere reduction of class size to less than 20 individuals does not constitute use of a small-group method for instructional purposes. Small-group methods are specific techniques. Accordingly, the term "small-group methods of instruction" is restricted to techniques through which group processes are used to stimulate learning.

Approach

Fundamental to all small-group methods is use of the social-psychological forces in small groups to enhance and maximize the conditions under which learning occurs.

Conditions necessary to learn (overcome attitudes that are resistant to change) include (a) a learning climate that provides emotional support to students, (b) opportunity for them to practice an analytical attitude through controlled observation, (c) opportunity to experience varied and realistic learning situations, (d) opportunity for experimentation with new concepts, and (e) opportunity for the student to obtain feedback concerning others' reactions to his or her newly developed ideas.

These conditions can be provided best within the context of a small group which possesses (a) a common goal for learning, (b) a reasonable degree of cohesiveness, (c) norms conducive to learning, and (d) patterns of effective communication - in short, a learning culture. Small-group methods are designed to systematically use these group forces to influence and increase learning.

Producing a Master Instructional Plan

After objectives have been identified and a method has been tentatively chosen, it is useful to assemble all of the principal variables that are involved in a master instructional plan. Here, a master plan is a broad outline of the activities that must occur, the sequence in which they must occur, and other variables, such as instructors, facilities, and so forth, that are required.

Once a plan has been determined, it is useful to test the plan against the following criteria:

1. Relevance for Student Needs. The proposed instruction should be aimed at meeting genuine needs of students. If relevance cannot be demonstrated, consideration should be given to discarding or modifying the plan.

2. Real World Relevancy. The proposed activities should help students to link events in the training situation to "real-world" requirements. Further, the proposed activities should

encourage and support the learning on the job. Preplanning activities is recommended for effectiveness and proficiency.

3. Instructor's Range of Competence. Instructors should not try methods in which they lack the required proficiency. On the other hand, some insecurity is natural, and much skill can be rapidly developed through practice.

4. Maximize Motivational Impact. The instructional procedures should stimulate active interest and participation.

5. Multiple Learning. Proposed activities should provide intellectual, attitudinal, or skill types of learning, or combinations of these.

6. Remediation. A good instructional activity should contain provisions for additional help, continuing evaluation, and self-correction.

7. Validation. Evaluation of every session by both instructors and students permits rapid identification of instructional problems and prompt correction of defects.

Unless the master instructional plan measures favorably on all seven criteria, it should be modified until it meets each criterion to the planner's satisfaction.

Planning in Detail

The selection design should be planned in sufficient detail so all participants know what to do. The critical danger here is that plans will become so rigid that modifications cannot be easily accomplished as instruction progresses. No plan can ever anticipate all events that may occur nor can it ever predict the precise atmosphere that will develop in any particular learning group. Therefore, some modification, however slight, is almost inevitable. The most effective training designs have sufficient flexibility built into them so that adjustments can be made easily without serious trauma to either the plan or the personnel.

Conducting the Instruction

Specific procedures for conducting instruction appear in the discussion of each method later in the handbook. However, several suggestions of a general nature are relevant for all methods.

The first time a method is used with a group, it is important to provide a brief overview of the procedures to be followed so that all group members have a common perspective and understand what will be required of them.

In general, an instructor should almost never intervene in a group's deliberations unless it is revealed that serious misunderstandings of the procedures are involved. It is important, however, for the instructor to periodically monitor the activities of each group for which he or she is responsible in order to ensure that members understand and stay on the task.

All of the methods presented in this reference include at least one discussion period of some sort. In development of the training plan, it will be necessary to allocate definite periods of time for the

discussion sessions. However, group discussion should continue only so long as interest and participation are high; these will vary significantly according to topic, group composition, and task. For this reason, time allocated for discussion periods should never be frozen into the training design. Experience with discussions of the topic by two or three groups will give a good indication of time required, and adjustments in the design should be made accordingly.

Evaluating and Replanning

Evaluation is a process of determining whether certain actions have led to desired consequences. Usually, one must (a) specify the desired objectives of instruction, (b) devise ways of measuring the extent to which the objectives have been achieved, (c) conduct the instruction, (d) collect the desired information, and (e) analyze and interpret it before replanning the next instructional effort. Evaluations may have differing standards of precision, and highly rigorous evaluation may not always be possible. However, the point of this discussion is that some systematic evaluation should always be performed and program modifications and replanning should be based upon the information so obtained.

COMMONLY USED METHODS FOR SMALL GROUP INSTRUCTION

On the following pages, a number of methods of small group instruction are described. It is recognized that many instructional situations include peculiar conditions which may place limitations upon the ability to use a given method in the most effective way. As one example, the time allocated for training might preclude use of certain methods. As another, the number of available instructors in relation to projected number of students might prevent use of methods requiring small instructor-student ratios. Perusal of the requirements for each method will assist in determining the capability of the method for achieving desired objectives under such limitations.

Figure 1 is presented to assist in identification of small group methods that will accomplish desired instructional objectives. To use Figure 1, select the desired objective from among those listed, and note each method for which an "X" appears in the row for that objective. Then, refer to the discussion of the indicated methods for details as to requirements and procedures for their use.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES ACCOMPLISHED BY SMALL GROUP METHODS

METHODS:

A. Conference
B. Brainstorm
C. Incident-Process Case Discussion
D. Abbreviated Printed Case Discussion
E. Abbreviated Dramatized Case Discussion
F. Topic Discussion
G. Buzz Session
H. Committee Problem Solving
I. Role Playing

	METHOD								
INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVE	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
1. Increased awareness of issues and problems.		X	X	X	X	X	X		X
2. Insight into possible problem solutions.	X	X	X	X	X				X
3. Cognitive learning of course content.						X		X	
4. Increased skill in problem solving.			X	X	X		X		X
5. Increased awareness of diversity of viewpoints.	X	X	X	X	X				
6. Positive attitudes toward course content.	X								
7. Positive attitudes toward use of course content.	X								
8. Increased skill in group decision making.								X	
9. Increased skill in fact finding.			X					X	
10. Increased knowledge about specific topics or problem areas.						X	X	X	
11. Skill in diagnosing interpersonal situations.									X
12. Skill in acting effectively in interpersonal situations.									X

Figure 1

Conference

The conference method involves a series of carefully planned meetings with specific goals, in which leader and students discuss topics or problems relevant to the overall purpose of the instructional program. The method rests squarely upon group discussion but, in contrast with the Leaderless Discussion, is dependent upon the trainer's manipulation of the discussion process so that it is always directed toward specific program goals.

Usually the conference leader does not present theory, principles, doctrine, or ways of handling problems. Rather, the group is presented with a topic or problem and members speculate about possible ways of handling it. Solutions may be suggested by members and evaluated by the group through a free exchange of experiences and opinions. The group may evolve ideas that become the accepted solutions, or the leader may guide the discussion along some particular course toward a predetermined solution of his/her own. Thus, in its purest form, the conference method is a highly practical approach to education or training. Students are not exposed to theory, principles, doctrine, or expertise. Rather, discussions and solutions are derived from their own experiences or ideas and are applied to real-life problems.

In this connection, it is important to distinguish between the "free" conference and the "directed" conference. The free conference involves a completely unguided discussion and is usually problem-centered. The agenda is developed by taking a problem-census in which participants suggest potential topics. Solutions are those freely evolved through discussion.

The directed conference is more frequently used for training purposes. Here, the conference leader uses a predetermined agenda and each topic on it is discussed. The discussion may be relatively free; more frequently it is guided by the leader who makes sure certain points are covered. In some cases, the discussion is "directed" to the extent that the leader actually manipulates it to reach a predetermined conclusion.

The conference method has much to recommend it, especially with reference to training management. For example, relatively inexperienced personnel can be trained to lead conferences. Subject-matter experts are not necessary although such specialists are certainly able to improve the quality of a program. Conference leaders' guides can be prepared by experts to provide complete instructions with regard to steering a discussion. If needed, a step-by-step outline can be developed to include all points to be covered, the actual words to use in opening and closing each session, conclusions to be reached, and similar materials. The method thus permits conduct of training with whatever personnel may be at hand. Furthermore, a skillful leader can control the discussion, thus making sure that school solutions are developed by the group.

On the other hand, if the leader is not a content expert, there is much greater risk of superficiality in the discussions. Because of lack of expertise among students discussions tend to skirt issues unless the conference leader can skillfully probe relevant points and raise questions which will give students insight into underlying problems.. In order to accomplish this well, the leader must be sufficiently knowledgeable in content areas to identify both superficial diagnoses and critical issues so that the group can be guided into more meaningful discussions.

Learning from the conference method appears to be mainly cognitive, with heavy emphasis upon insight into practical problems gained through the exchange of viewpoints. Although, as its adherents claim, the method possesses potential for changing attitudes, genuine change seems to depend more upon the competence and skill of individual conference leaders rather than upon the method itself. Because the method rests almost solely upon discussion, no opportunity is provided for skill practice. Thus, students get no experience with real behavior under either experimental or practice conditions. Some trainers attempt to overcome this limitation through the auxiliary use of role playing.

Leaderless Discussion

The term "leaderless discussion" refers to a group discussion for which a formal leader has not been designated and in which an instructor does not participate. Instead, the influence of the instructor is limited to assignment of a topic, problem, or issue to be discussed. In this way, the content and course of the discussion are determined almost completely by the students.

Most commonly, leaderless discussion is used in conjunction with large-group sessions to introduce issues, to generate involvement among participants, and to provide opportunity for the exchange of ideas. When used in this way, the leaderless discussion groups are, in effect, sub-groups of the larger classes. The usual procedure is for the instructor of a large class to divide it into small groups that are then required to discuss some topic, problem, or issue for a specified period of time. The discussion may occur either before a formal presentation (to introduce issues or generate involvement) or following it (to exchange ideas). In either case, the purpose is to generate more effective learning by overcoming the formalities inherent in large classes through subgrouping and spontaneous discussion.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming was initially developed in the U.S. advertising industry in the 1950's. The purpose of brainstorming is to generate ideas or solutions that will help to solve a problem. It works best with 6-15 people, a recorder and a group leader. The brainstorming method separates idea generation from idea evaluation. Judging ideas halts idea generation and discourages contribution. Therefore, in the idea generation stage phrases like "that will take too much time," "it would cost too much," "would never work," "we've done that before" are not allowed. Screening and evaluation of ideas comes later.

The rules for brainstorming are:

- No critical remarks allowed during generating phase.
- "Piggybacking" is OK. Piggybacking is building on a team members ideas.
- Far-fetched ideas are helpful. They are easier to modify than more practical ideas, and they keep the group going.
- Volume is wanted. Many ideas make a solution more likely.
- Evaluation comes after idea generating.

The following suggestions will make your brainstorming sessions more successful:

- State the purpose of the brainstorming session clearly.
- Have the group members give one idea at a time.
- Move at a quick pace. Don't get bogged down in discussion.

- Praise the number of ideas only. Praise for good ideas will suppress idea flow.

Buzz Sessions

A "buzz session" is a brief but intensive discussion held among a small number of participants without advance preparation and with a minimum of formality. In this procedure, a question or issue is posed to a class. Members are then asked to turn to one or several neighbors (or to form convenient groups) and to engage in discussion for several minutes.

Buzz sessions appear to be most useful for introducing issues and problems, and thus, laying groundwork for learning to be achieved from later formal presentations or guided class discussions. Some evidence exists that buzz sessions result in both improved problem solving and participation in class discussions. They do not appear to exert much effect upon attitudes.

Topic Discussions

Another type of leaderless discussion is the "topic discussion." In this form, the instructor assigns a specific topic or issue for discussion and allows a fairly lengthy period of time, such as 30 minutes or an hour, for completion. Advance readings may be assigned to prepare students for the discussion. The instructor may also provide students with a list of issues for discussion, guidance as to questions to be answered, and so forth. In all instances, however, responsibility for the nature and quality of the discussion rests with the students.

The topic discussion is useful for identifying issues or for introducing a problem to students. When students discuss a problem prior to a formal presentation such as a lecture or film, their attention becomes focused upon critical issues, and their involvement with formally presented material is greater. Another use for topic discussions is to develop solutions to problems. Here, a limitation is that clear-cut solutions are sometimes difficult to obtain because of lack of the direction that could be provided by a discussion leader.

Learning achieved through topic discussions appears to be mainly in the form of increased sensitivity to issues and problems and, in better groups, perhaps a fairly superficial insight into solutions to specific problems.

Case Method

In general, the case method involves the exposure of students to accounts of concrete situations with some temporal and developmental span in which a variety of factors are at work. The cases are descriptions (printed, tape-recorded, or filmed) of actual situations from real life. Students discuss them with the objectives of discovering underlying principles, if any, and applying the principles to diagnosis and solution of the problems. Although case discussions may be held with large classes, much of the effectiveness of discussion is lost as size of class increases; the greatest learning seems to be achieved when discussion groups are small. For this reason, the case method is included in this analysis of small-group instructional methods.

Several approaches to the study of cases have been developed. In fact, some practitioners consider role playing and even sensitivity training to be derivations of the case method. However, for this report,

the distinction will be retained. Here, discussion of the case method will be limited to the Incident-Process method and the abbreviated case.

A Case Discussion allows a group to review a printed case which describes an actual situation, together with all surrounding facts, contributing factors, and incidental conditions.

Cases are presented to students for considered analysis, open discussion, and final decision as to the action that should be taken. Because cases are lengthy and complex, they must be assigned for reading and analysis prior to the class meeting. At the option of the instructor, written analyses of the cases may be required prior to the class discussion. The instructor plays an active but nondirective role in stimulating discussion and encouraging mature analysis.

Composition of the case is a highly important and critical determinant of success with this method. Although single case-discussion sessions may be beneficial, maximum learning occurs from repeated exposure to analysis and discussion of a variety of cases.

NOTE: The quality of the printed case is critical to this method. A teaching case is a carefully designed description of a problem situation, written specifically for the purpose of provoking systematic analysis and discussion. As such, it does not necessarily represent a complete description of all facts and events. The case must be composed with the objective of creating a challenging problem for the student and the outcome is never revealed - the case is brought to a point requiring decision and action, then it stops. Success of the method requires that cases be structured so as to challenge mature analysis and stimulate discussion.

Abbreviated Case (Printed)

When an unabbreviated case method is strictly followed, lengthy advance preparation by students is inevitable. The requirement for full access to all facts and information in the case usually results in a fairly comprehensive printed document. Accordingly, mastery of the case requires students to engage in extensive preparation for in-class discussions. In some instances, such preparation may be desirable and, certainly, intensive analysis of a complex case should be conductive to learning. However, there may be situations when caliber of students or other demands upon student time may preclude extensive preparation. One means for providing students with full access to necessary information and still avoiding the long preparation is the printed abbreviated case.

The most important advantage of the abbreviated case is its brevity. Reading seldom requires more than 15 minutes. If desired, cases can be assigned at the beginning of each class period, thus assuring that all participants are adequately prepared. Furthermore, since the abbreviated case presents only major points in the reported situation, it becomes easier to keep discussions focused on central issues. This also simplifies the task of discussion leaders.

The principal disadvantages of the abbreviated case are that unimportant facts are eliminated and the minimal information which appears is presented in such a straightforward manner that students have no opportunity to practice sifting out essential elements from those that are not important. Thus, analysis may become too simple as compared with real situations where an individual may have to weigh and discard a number of secondary factors before arriving at a solution of the central problem.

Abbreviated Case (Dramatized)

One modification of the abbreviated case, which should be mentioned, is the dramatized case. In this form, a short case is presented through the medium of either tape recordings or film The cases are usually open-ended; that is, they reach a critical point of conflict and end without resolution of the problem. The group then discusses possible issues and solutions.

The principal advantage of the dramatized case is that it communicates important facts without preliminary reading and with heightened dramatic effect. On the other hand, its effectiveness is usually confined to the presentation of dialogue situations. Thus, the oral form of presentation mainly restricts cases to human relations problems. Cases dealing with nonhuman aspects such as planning, organization, and technical problems are difficult to portray.

Incident-Process Method

A modification of the case study is the Incident-Process method. In this method, a brief incident requiring adjudication and decision is presented to students. Then, the group must decide what additional information is required. The discussion leader, usually but not necessarily an instructor, has background and factual material that he/she furnishes only as the members of the group request specific items of information. If the information is not requested, the discussion leader never provides it. Thus, students may finally be required to decide a case on the basis of only partial information because they failed to ferret out everything needed to make a valid decision. After obtaining the desired information, each trainee writes his/her decision and the supporting reasons for it. The decisions are presented publicly and debated with pressure by the leader toward arriving at a common conclusion. Another potential limitation is the traditional emphasis in role playing upon behavior. Unless modified, role playing is weak in teaching about other elements such as decision making. By combining case study with role playing so that the most desirable elements of both are available, the student has the opportunity for learning in both the interpersonal and decision-making aspects of leadership. The students then hear the real decision and analyze the adequacy or inadequacy of their fact finding and decision making in contrast with it. Thus, over time and numerous cases, students learn to analyze brief incidents in terms of relevant facts and also to become skillful in obtaining these facts.

The Incident-Process method appears to be restricted to development for diagnostic skills. Although students seem to interact more realistically in trying to reach group decisions, there are no opportunities for studying and trying the actual skills of implementation in situations similar to those studied.

Role Playing

There is no limitation to the case method that has special significance for leadership or human relations training. Although cases often describe relationships between people, they are not capable of portraying the more dynamic aspects of human interaction or of generating very intensive involvement with the problem situation. Because cases are inadequate to communicate the numerous and varied behavioral cues available to a person who is actually involved in the face-to-face situation, some of the flavor is lost. In an effort to overcome this limitation, many instructors have turned to role playing.

Use in Instruction

Role playing is a method of portraying human interaction in imaginary situations in such a manner that realistic behavior is elicited. This rather general description implies that role playing can be used for many purposes, and, indeed, such is the case. Developed originally as a psychotherapeutic technique, role playing has also been used successfully for problem illustration, problem diagnosis, and training evaluation. Its greatest training value is in leadership and human relations situations.

For instructional purposes, a situation is presented to the group, and some members are asked to assume roles and to enact the situation toward some resolution. Other students observe the behavior of the actors. The scene may be carried to a resolution, or the instructor may stop it at some critical point in the action. Following the scene, observations, as well as thoughts and feelings of the actors, are reported and discussed by the group. In this way, faulty diagnoses, alternative actions, and discrepancies between diagnoses and action can be identified. Alternative ways of handling the situation may be tried by replaying the scene.

Role playing provides students with opportunities to observe, experience, and practice actual behavior in contexts somewhat similar to reality. Of particular importance in leadership training is the fact that the full significance of learning is only in a minor way related to the problem solution, if any. Rather, focus is upon relationships and impacts of the actors upon the situation. Therefore, analysis is concerned with actual behavior rather than concepts.

Emphasis upon experienced behavior is the characteristic that mainly distinguishes role playing from the methods discussed earlier. Because most leadership problems occur when two or more people interact, the basic approach is to create realistic interpersonal situations, use various methods of collecting information, and endeavor to draw generalizations from the analysis. Generalizations and hypotheses, in turn, are tested in action as students try out new skills. Thus learning is more than verbal. Because the learning grows out of experience and because it deals with the observed behavior of individuals and groups in a public way, role playing is quite different from instructional situations in which behavior is talked about but never examined and in which students never actually experience the problems which are discussed.

Rationale

The rationale for role playing starts from the conviction that the problem of training is not solely to transmit facts or viewpoints but to help the student translate knowledge so that it becomes meaningful in his/her own experience. Therefore, role playing has the objective of student awareness of the implication of his/her actions and of the actions of other people for him/her. The purpose is also for him/her to become skillful in diagnosing and taking actions in ongoing situations. One requirement for the development of this awareness is opportunity for the student to actually experience functioning in realistic situations. Role playing provides this opportunity.

The opportunity to experience realistic situations is an essential requirement. However, experience alone never teaches anything. The important factor is whether the student learns from the experience. Such learning can be instructors' guides that point out the important issues in each case and the directions the discussions are likely to take. The trainer is thus furnished with a ready-made course in supervisory relations. Similar manuals could easily be devised for any course, or instructors could be furnished with

rationale and instructions together with materials covering a variety of problems and situations to be used as needed.

Emphasis upon spontaneity and the nature of the instructor role make external control of instruction difficult. While it is easy to obtain uniform presentation of problems across classes, it is virtually impossible to ensure that discussions will be identical. From the viewpoint of spontaneity theory, such uniformity is undesirable for learning. However, regardless of the validity of this view, responsibility for quality and content must rest more with the individual instructor than with training managers.

The fact that role playing is usually limited to portraying close interpersonal behavior is something of a handicap for courses in higher-level leadership where organizational dynamics may be an important topic for study. Some instructors have overcome this problem by designing large role-playing situations so as to enact an entire organization in the process of solving some important problem. Under these conditions, students will fill all of the key roles in the organization and remain in role for longer periods, as much as a day or more at a time. Through the use of observers, students receive data relative to their own behaviors well as to the problems occurring between organizational components. Thus, there is an opportunity provided for learning about individual, group, and organizational relationships simultaneously.

Committee Problem Solving

In committee problem solving, real or hypothetical problems are assigned to small groups of students who work together toward a final group product. Whereas the case method emphasizes analysis by individual students followed by discussion, committee problem solving stresses discussion and joint effort from the beginning.

The problems assigned may be such that they can be completed within one class session, in which case they are selected so as to parallel or illustrate on-going instruction. On the other hand, problems may require much research and work on them may extend over weeks or even a term or semester. In either event, all facts and information relevant to the problems must be available to the students or accessible through research.

Although solving a problem should certainly help students to learn more about its content, the major learning to come from this method seems to be in the area of problem-solving techniques. Students learn how to attack problems, gather data, weigh alternatives, and derive solutions. Furthermore, in committee problem solving, students learn how to reconcile differing viewpoints in order to arrive at a group decision.

Committee problem solving is especially useful for training groups of people who are required to work together on a daily basis. Thus, staffs, departments, or sections whose missions involve daily cooperative effort may benefit greatly from jointly attacking and solving assigned problems.

SMALL GROUP INSTRUCTOR TRAINING COURSE (SGITC)

STUDENT GUIDE

JUNE 1998

Small Group Instructor Training Course

Student Guide

Overview

Introduction

This student guide supports the Small Group Instructor Training Course (SGITC). It contains note-taking handouts and class handouts for the 10 lessons of the SGITC. Become familiar with this guide.

Note-taking handouts

Note-taking handouts are used by the student to follow the instruction. The note-taking handouts are replicas of slides by the instructor in the delivery of the class with one exception. Many of the slides have blank spaces requiring you to fill in the blank. There is also room for your own notes. These handouts are particularly useful for taking notes when the course is delivered over videoteletraining.

Delivery of student guide

The student guide may be sent to the students in the advance package as part of the Student Handbook, or presented to the student at the start of the course.

Training Proponent

The training proponent for the SGITC is:

Commander
U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC)
ATTN: ATTG-CD
Fort Monroe, VA 23651-5000

Course Comments

Forward comments on this course to:

Commander
U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC)
ATTN: ATTG-CD
Fort Monroe, VA 23651-5000

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

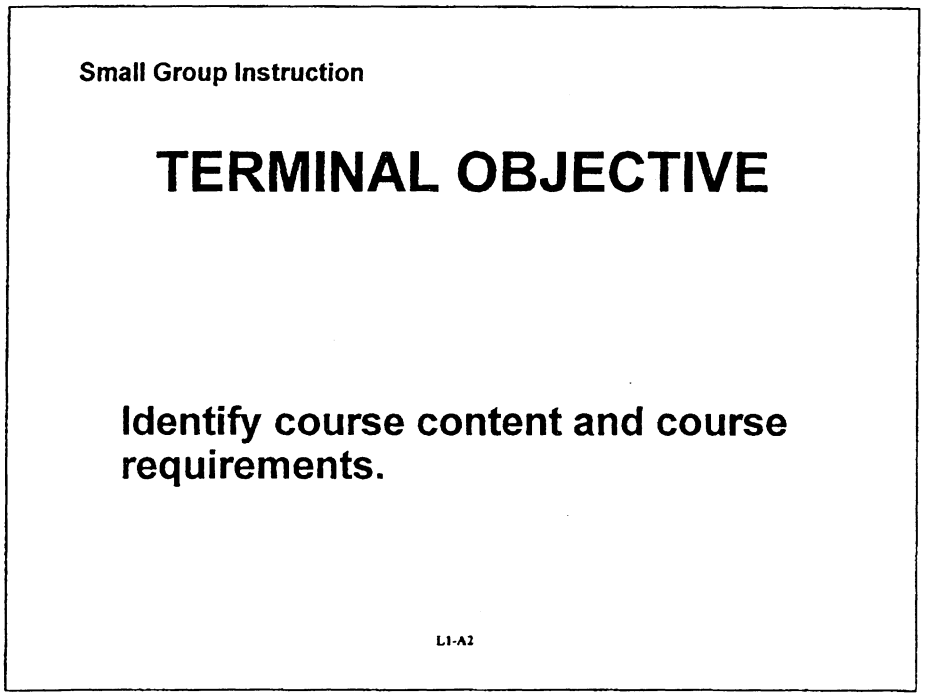
LESSON 1

ORIENTATION

L1-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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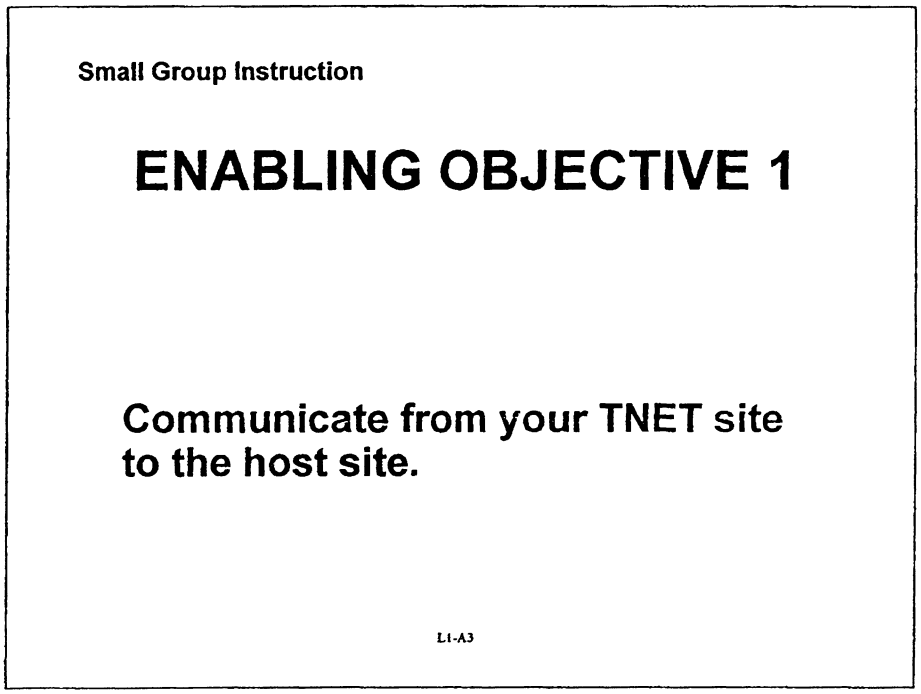

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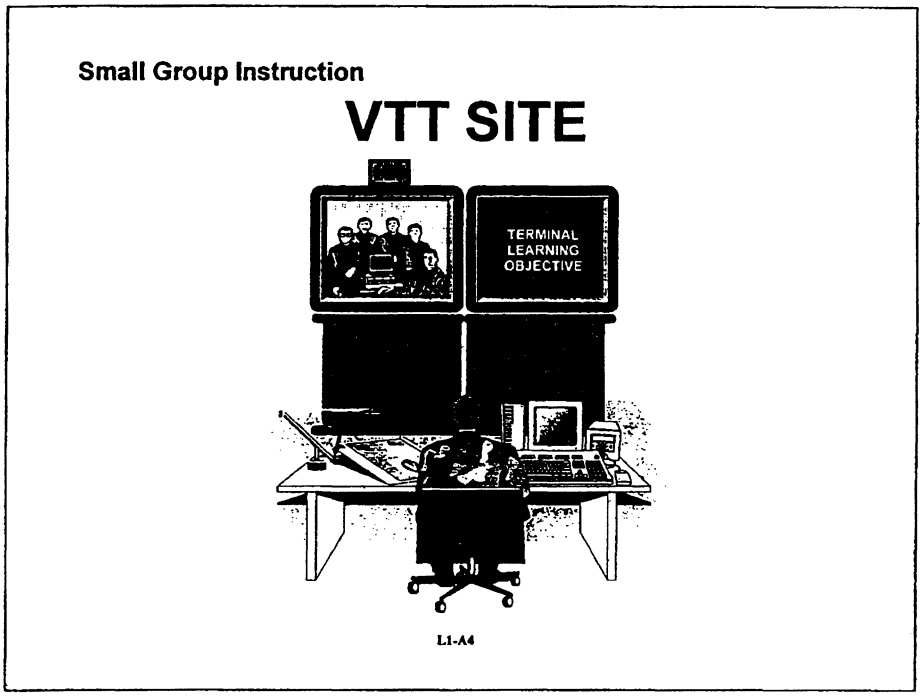

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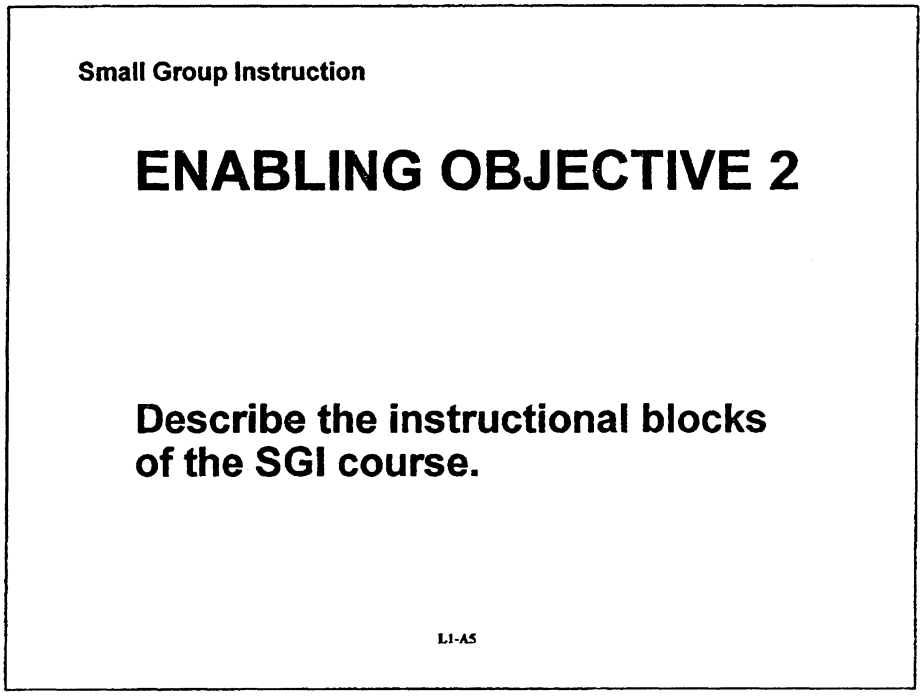

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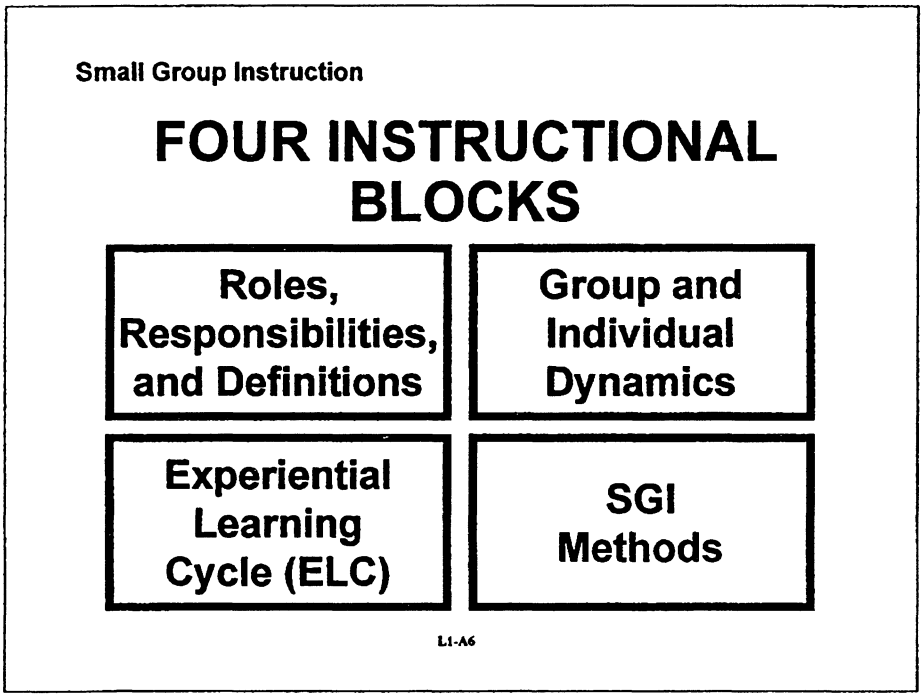

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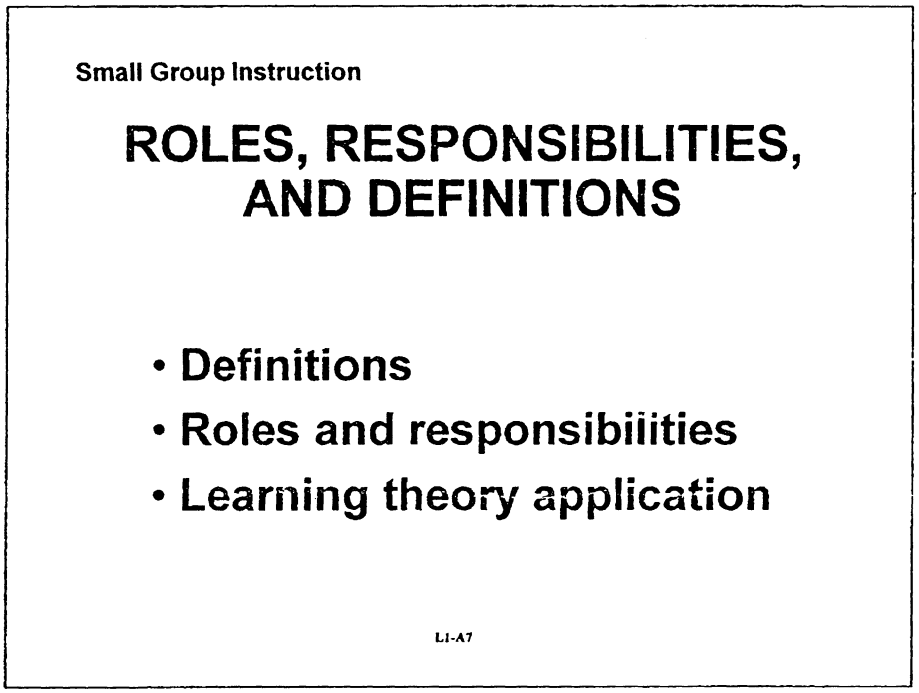

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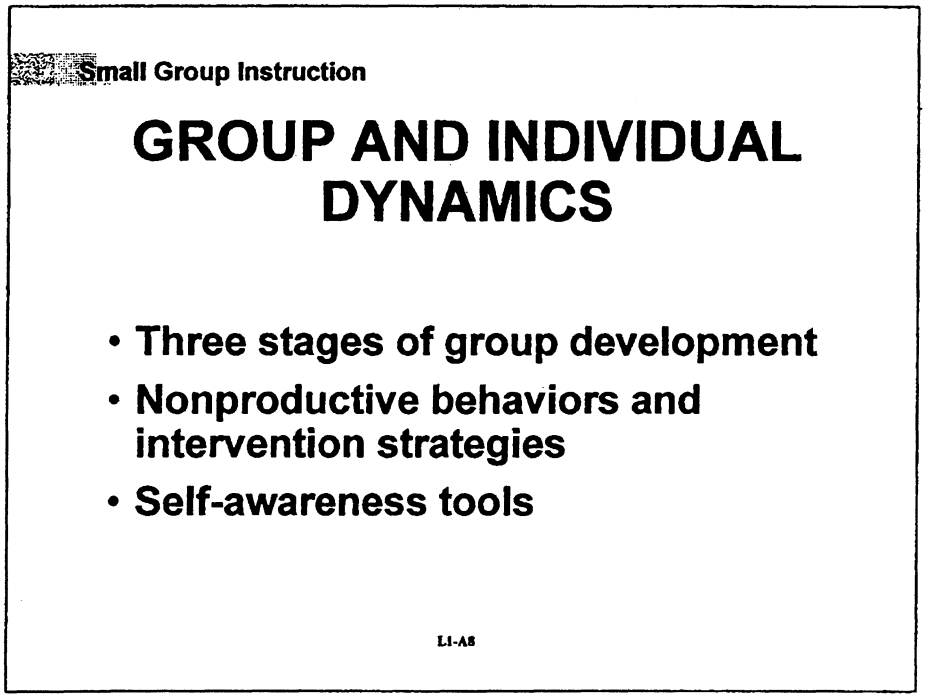

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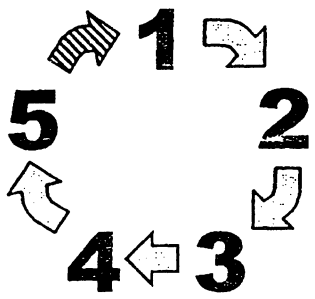
TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE (ELC)

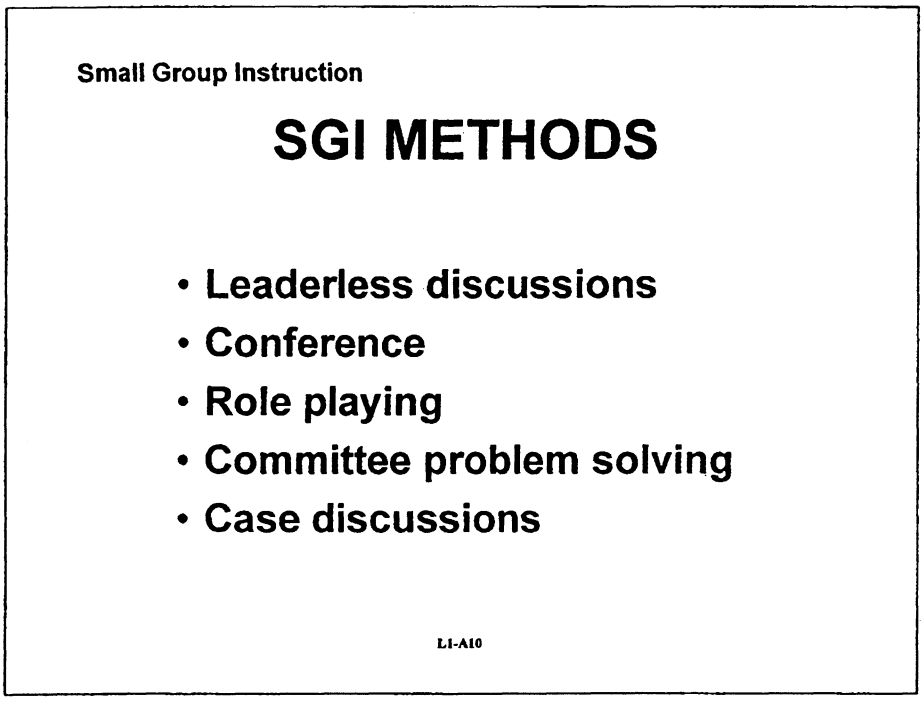


- Process-Content model
- Five phases of adult learning

L1-A9

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

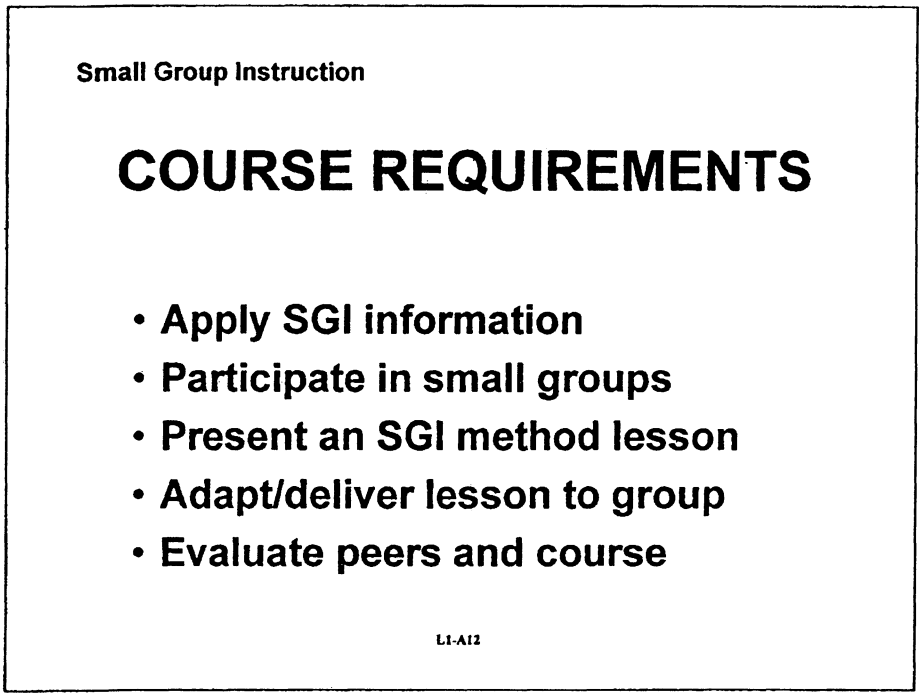
ENABLING OBJECTIVE 3

Identify the course requirements.

LI-AII

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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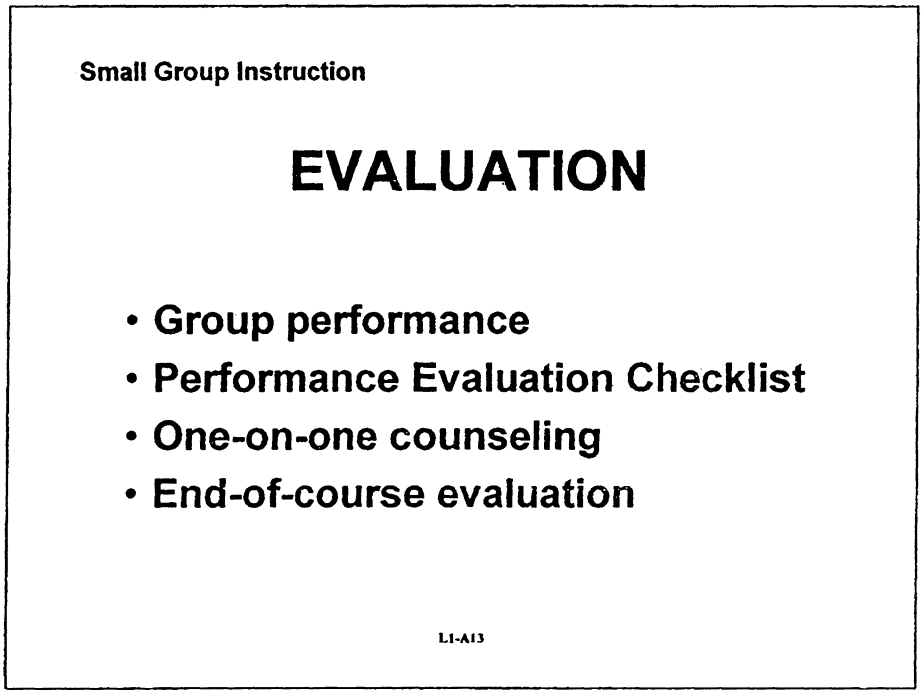

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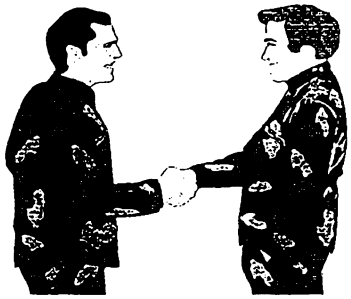
TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

INTRODUCTIONS



- Job/duty position
- Family status
- How to address
- Special likes
- SGI experience

L1-A14

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

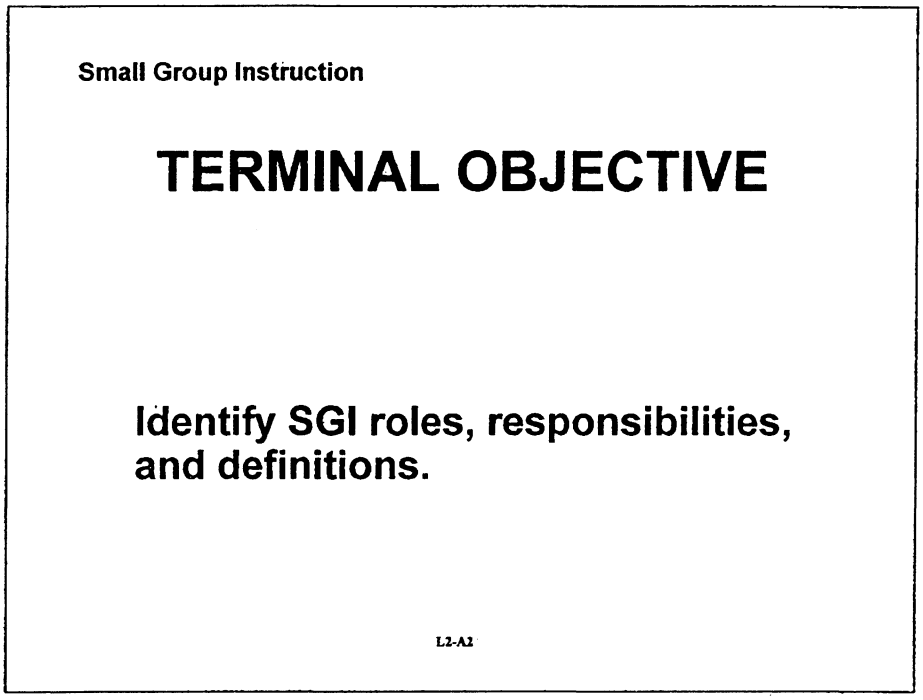
LESSON 2

ROLES, RESPONSIBILITIES, AND DEFINITIONS

L2-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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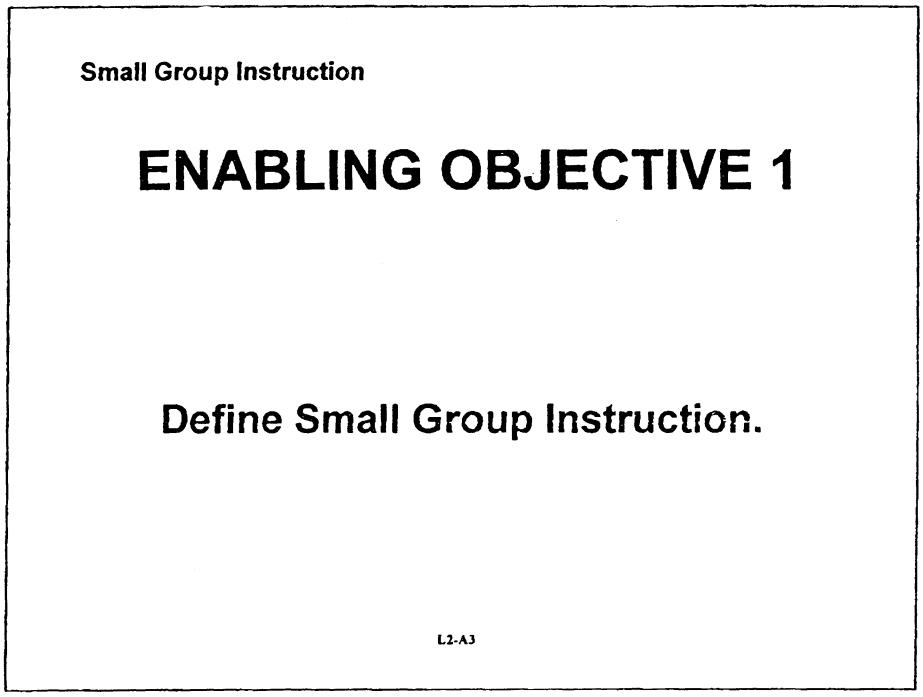

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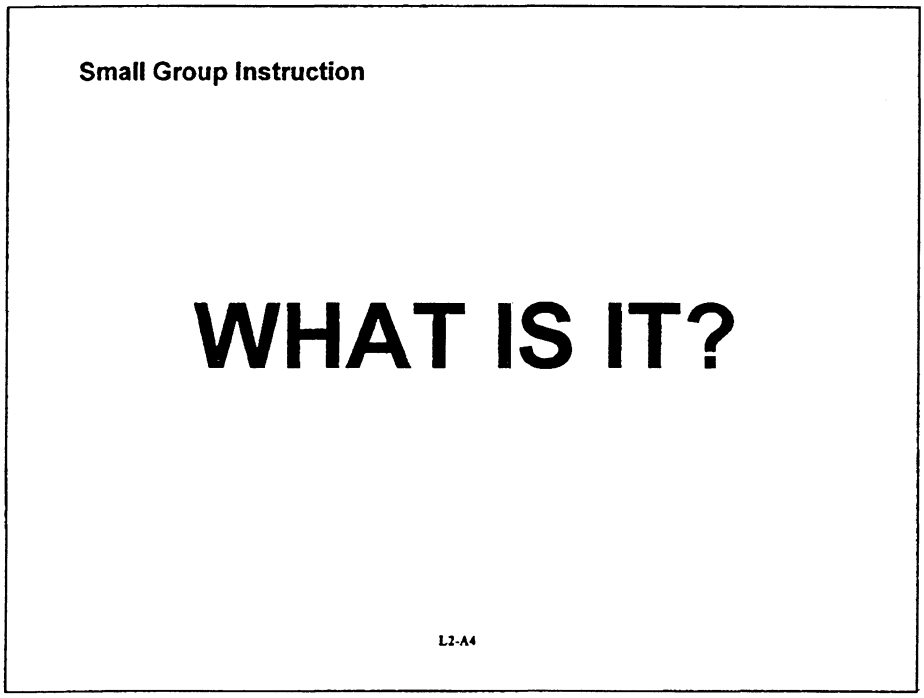


NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

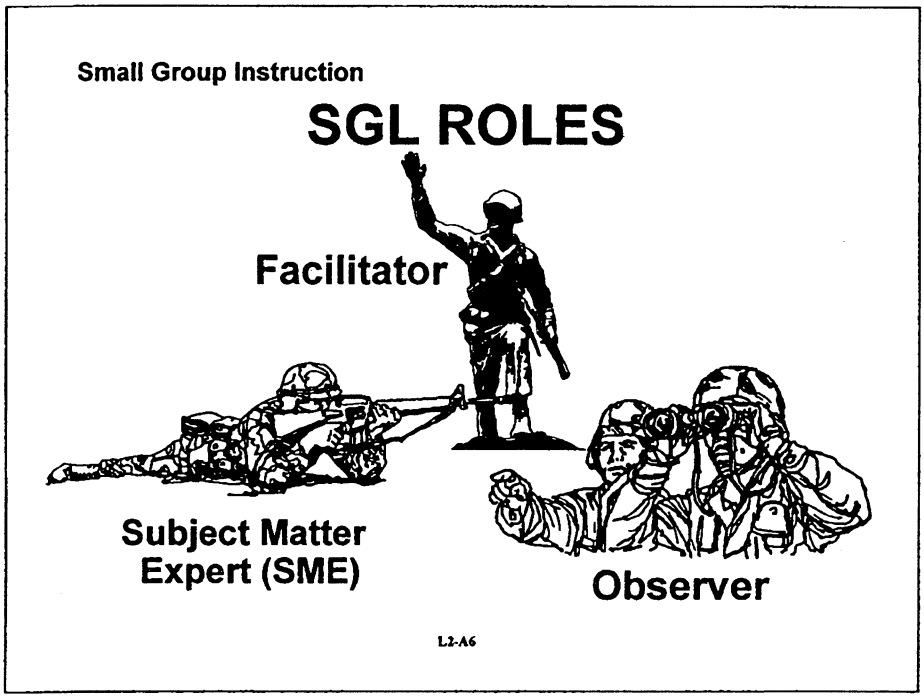
ENABLING OBJECTIVE 2

Describe an SGL and the three roles of the SGL.

L2-A5

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

SME ROLE

- Prepares material
- Selects group method
- Influences content

L2-A7

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

FACILITATOR ROLE

- Stimulates group interaction
- Assists group functioning
- Expands group participation and development

L2-A8

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

OBSERVER ROLE

- Observes group interaction
- Serves as base for involvement as SME or facilitator

L2-A9

NOTES

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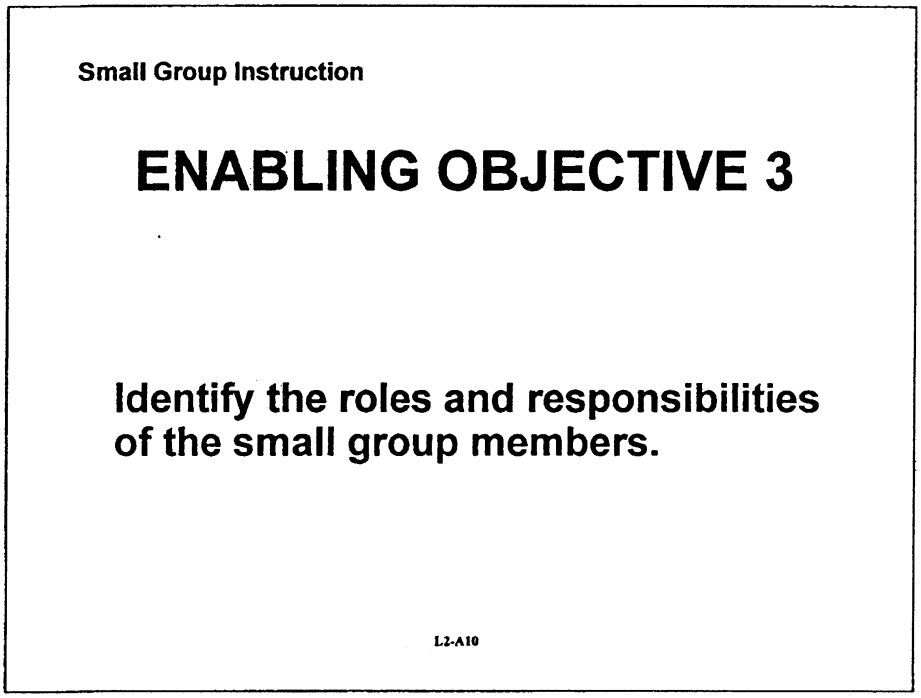

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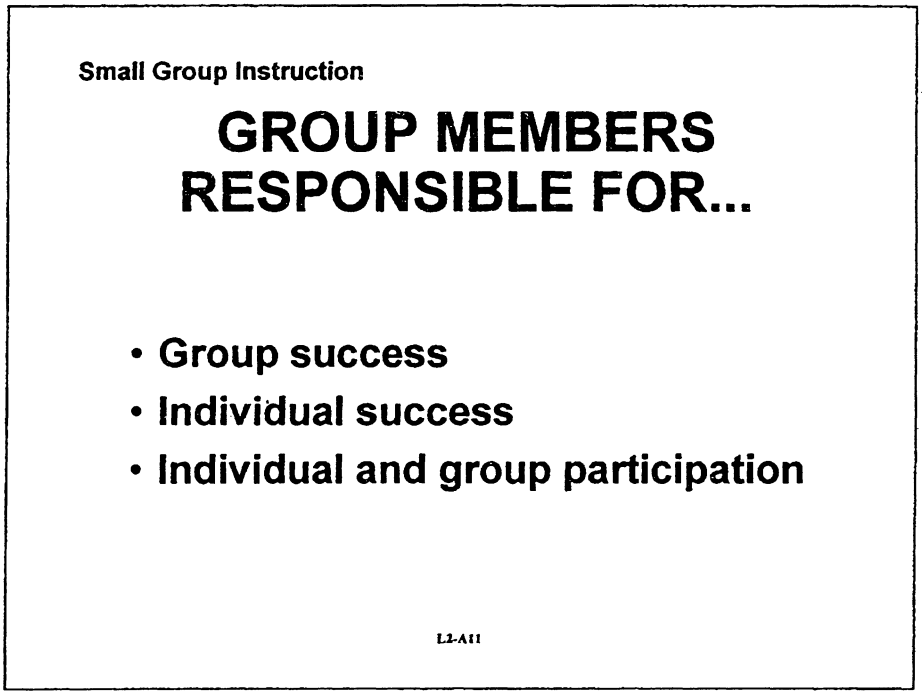


NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

GROUP ROLES

Group member

Student Discussion Leader (SDL)

Recorder

L2-A12

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

SDL ROLE

- Assigned lesson by SGL
- Delivers lessons
- Keeps group focused

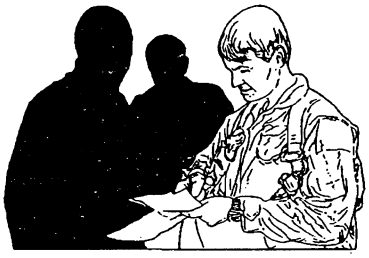
L2-A13

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

RECORDER ROLE



- Documents group proceedings
- Verifies accuracy of notes

L2-A14

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

GROUP MEMBER ROLE

- Participates in discussions
- Expresses facts, feelings, and opinions
- Focuses on mission accomplishment

L2-A15

NOTES

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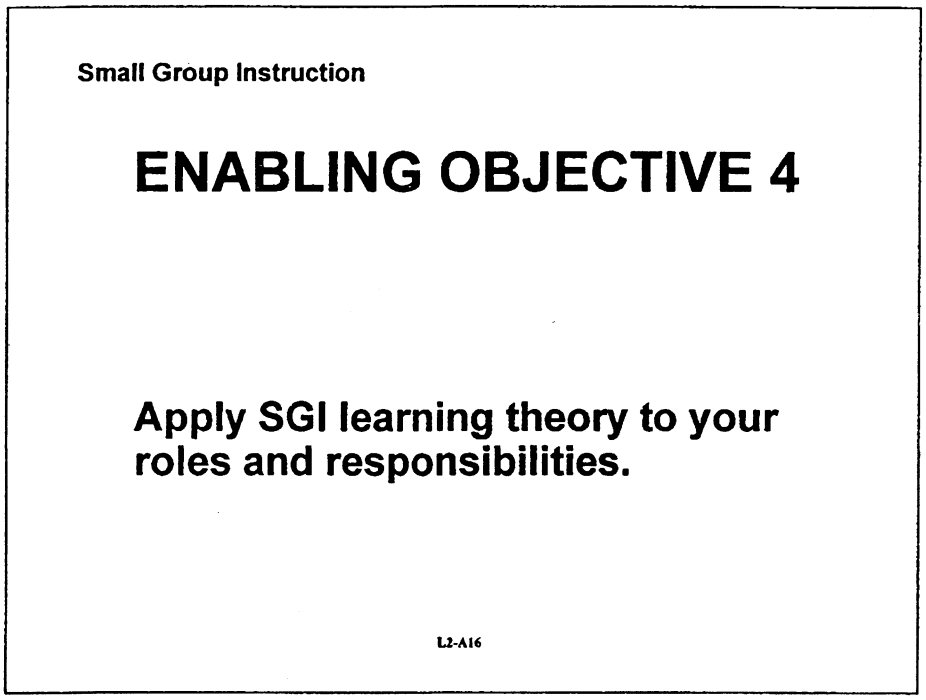

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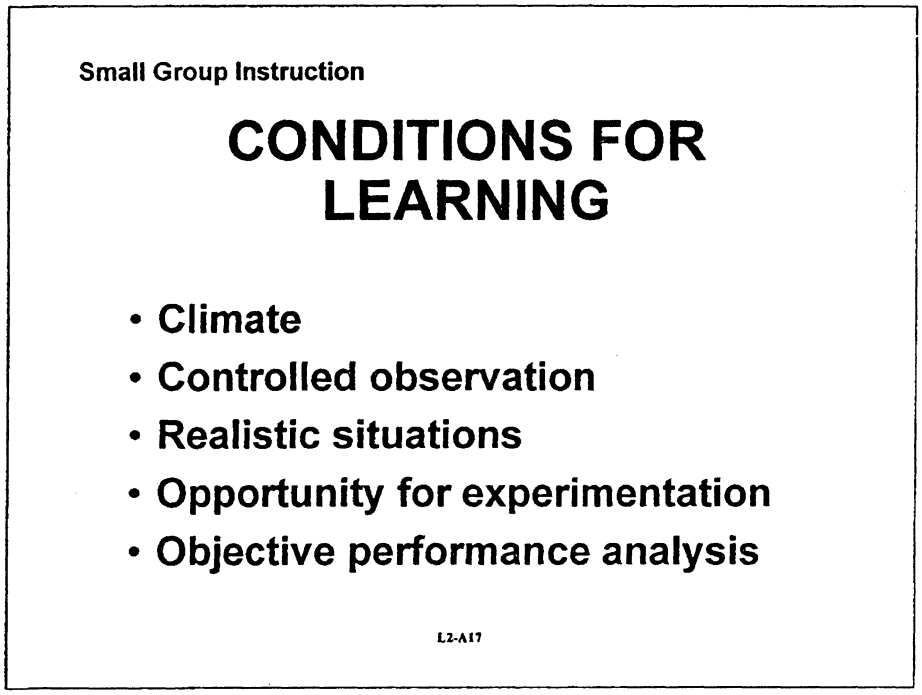

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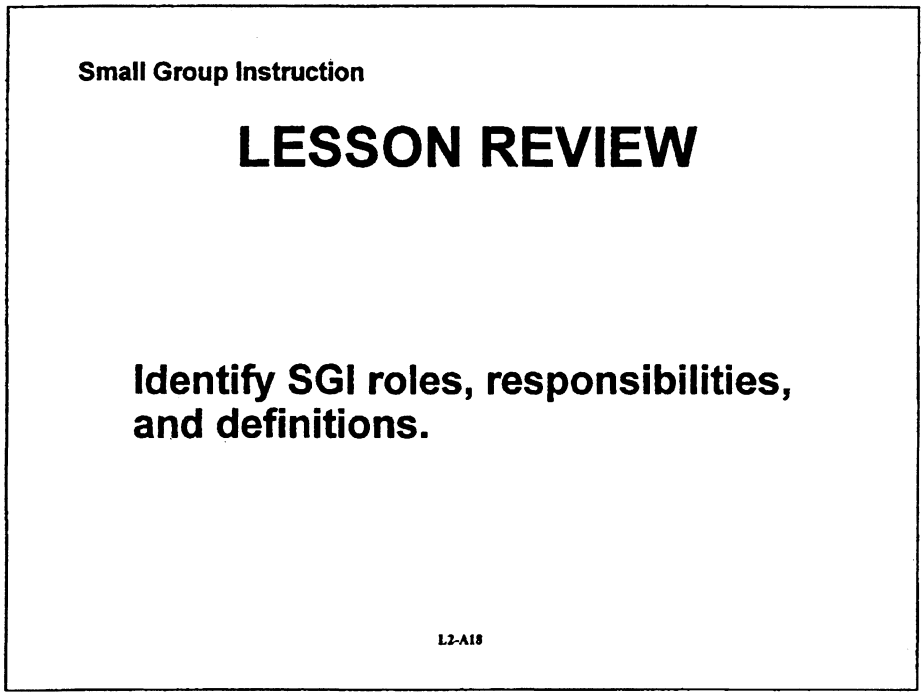


NOTES

LESSON 2

Student Handouts and Exercises

Group Consensus Exercise (Problem with SGI)

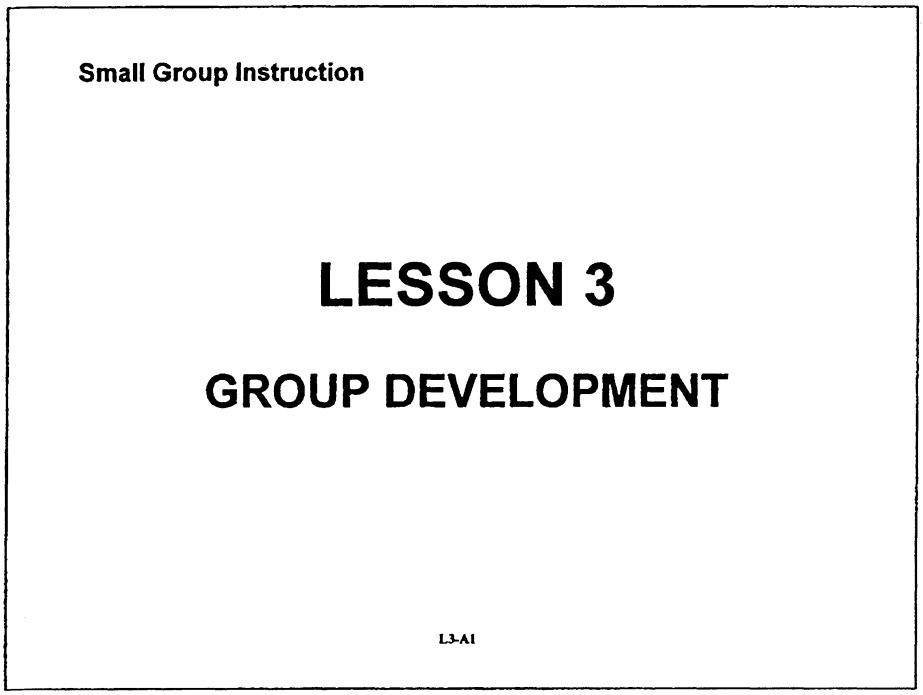
Instructions

a. Break into small groups (4 to 6). Conduct an abbreviated Topic Discussion on what is the biggest problem with small group instruction.

b. Discuss the topic for approximately 10 minutes, then record your top/number 1 problem with SGI.

c. Ensure the group comes to consensus.

TV DISPLAY



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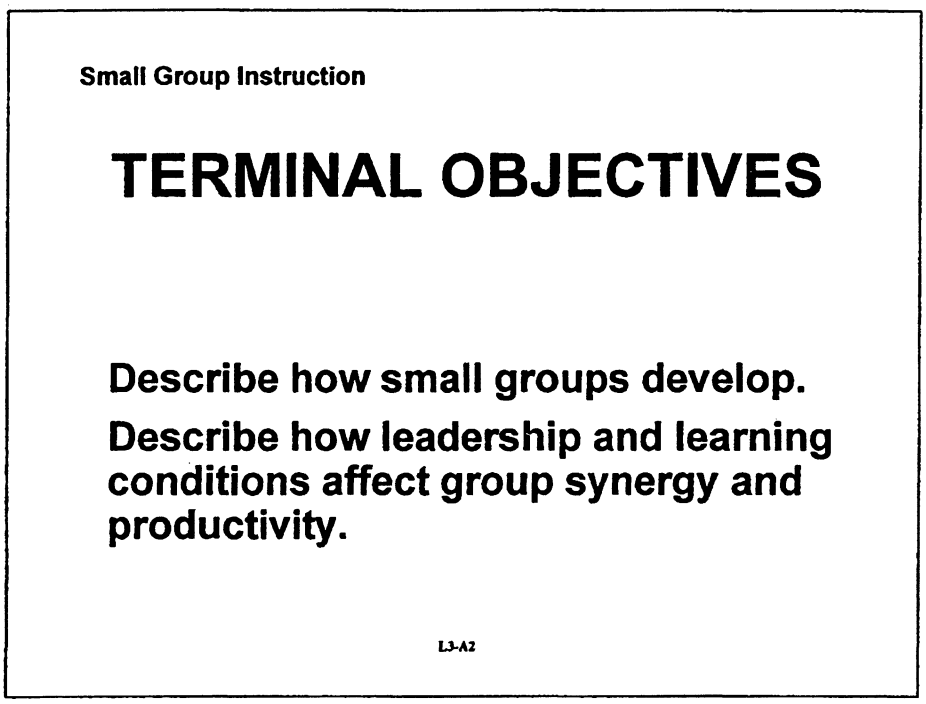

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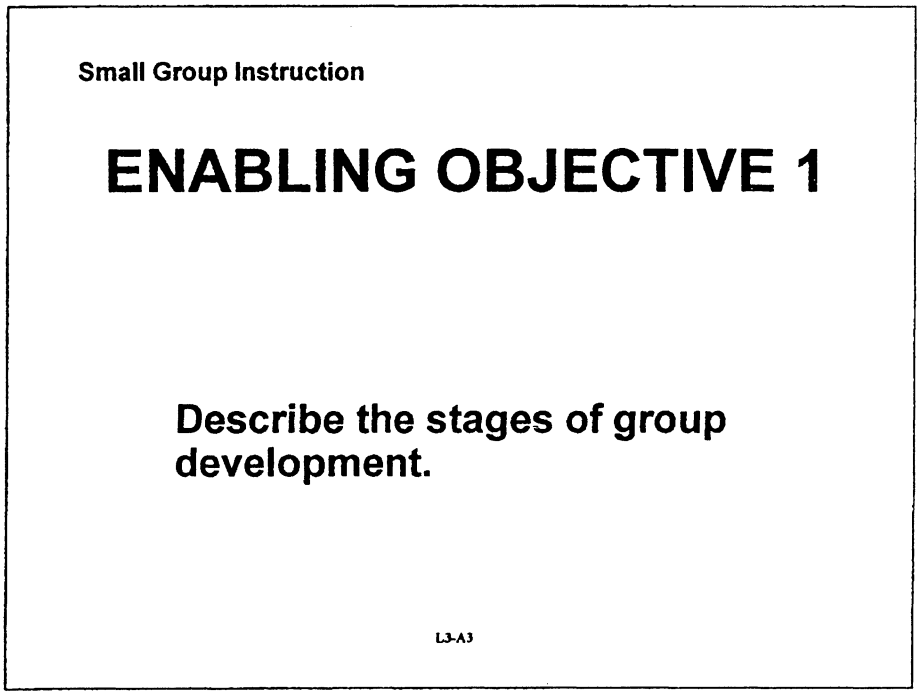


NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

DEPENDENT/INCLUSION/ ACCEPTANCE STAGE

- Polite
- Seek instructor guidance
- Seek instructor approval

L3-A4

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

INDEPENDENT/CONTROL/ INFLUENCE STAGE

- Argumentative
- Challenges SGL
- Forces group decisions

L3-A5

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

INTERDEPENDENT/ COHESION/AFFECTION STAGE

- Highly productive
- Cooperative
- Solves problems

L3-A6

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

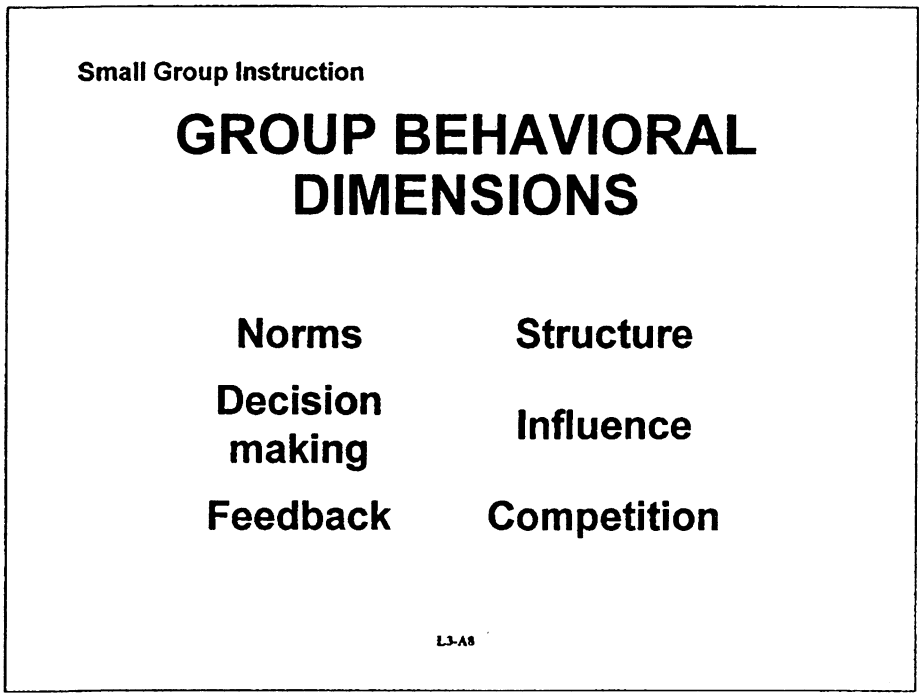
DEVELOPMENT PRINCIPLES

- Groups vary
- SGL adheres to roles
- No short cuts

L3-A7

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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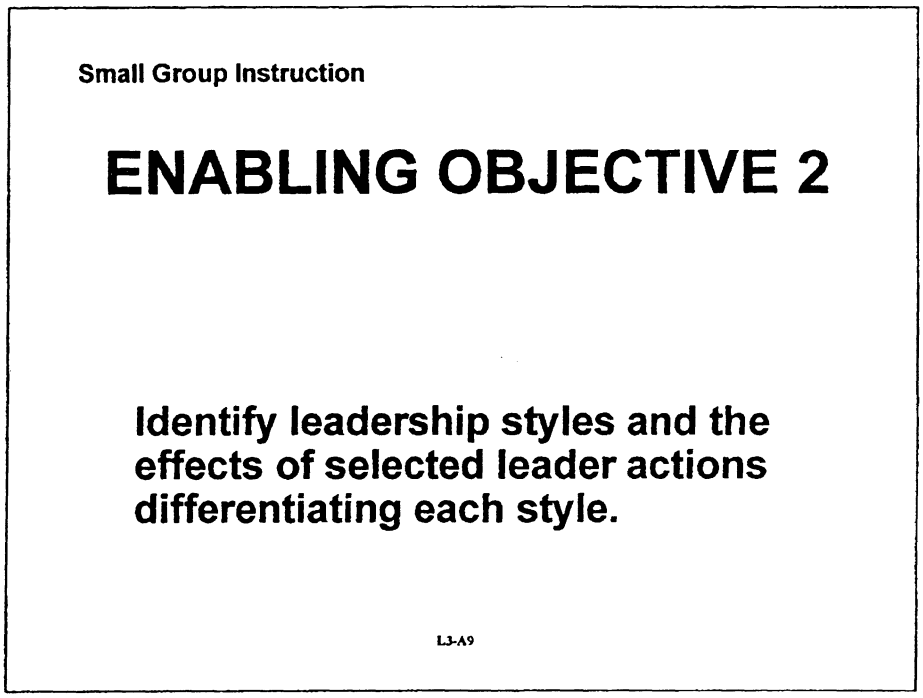

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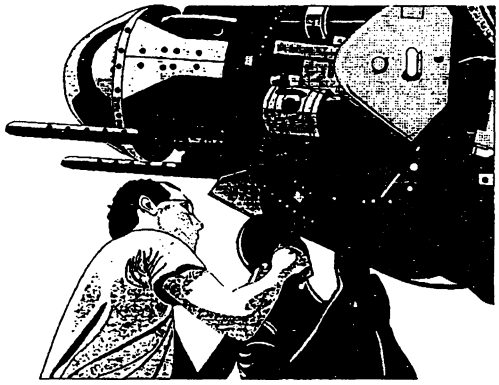
Small Group Instruction

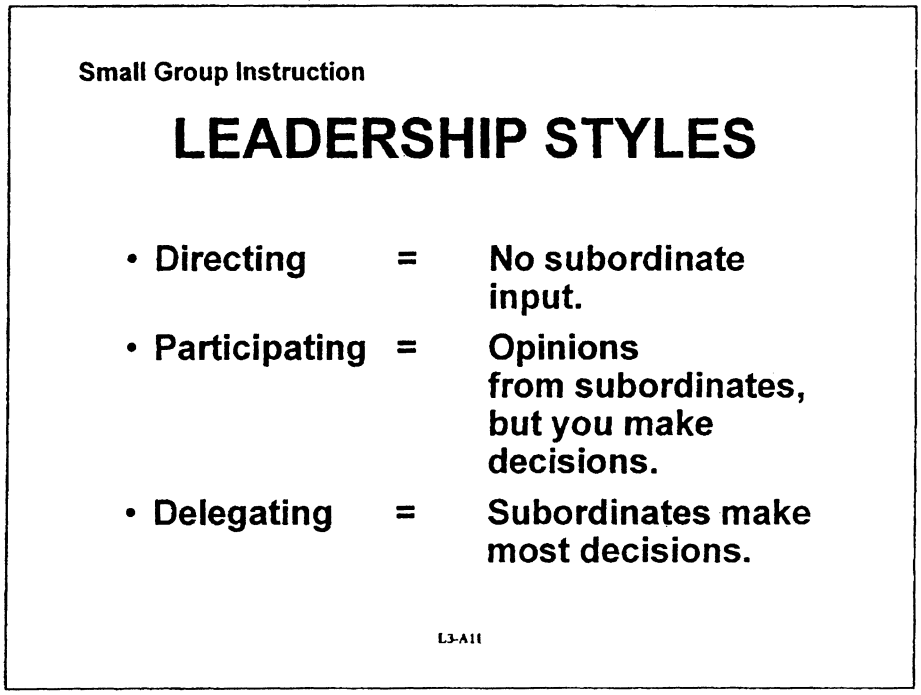


PRACTICAL EXERCISE

L3-A10

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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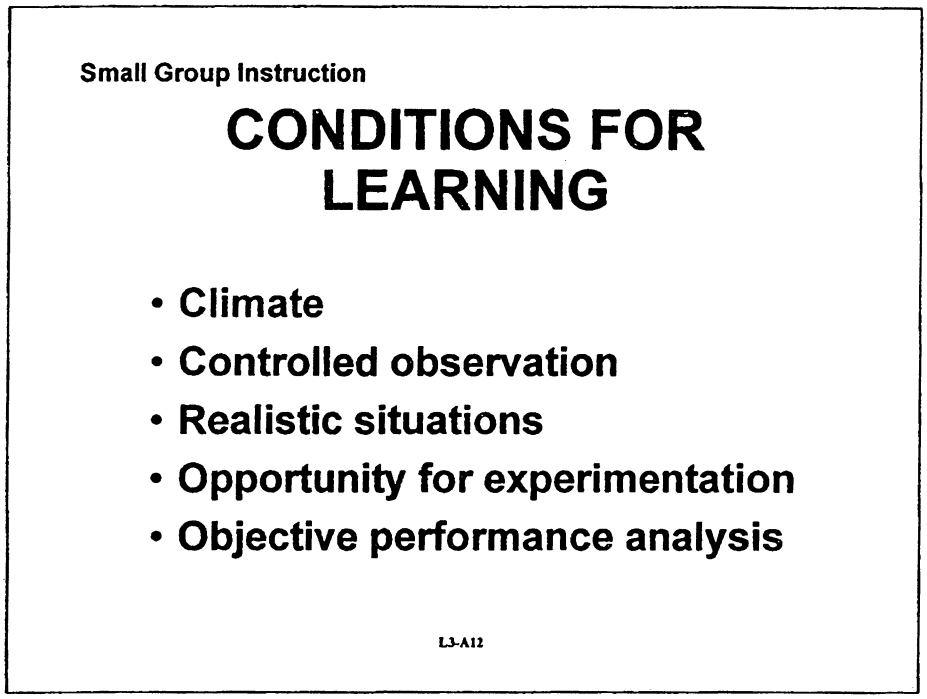

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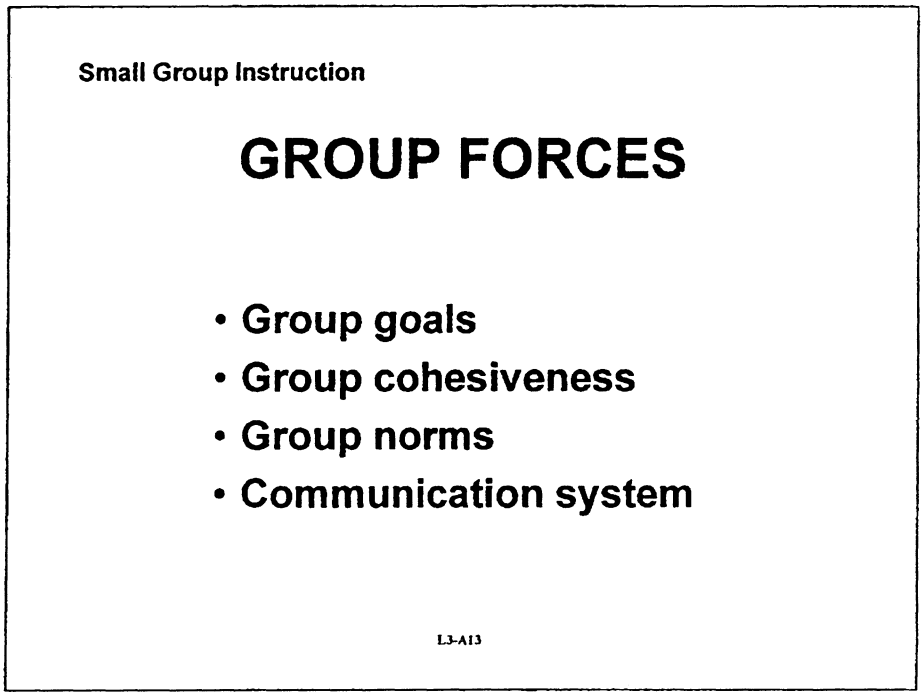
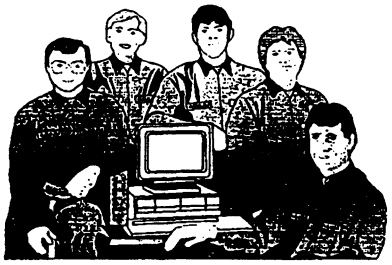


NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

GROUP FUNCTIONS

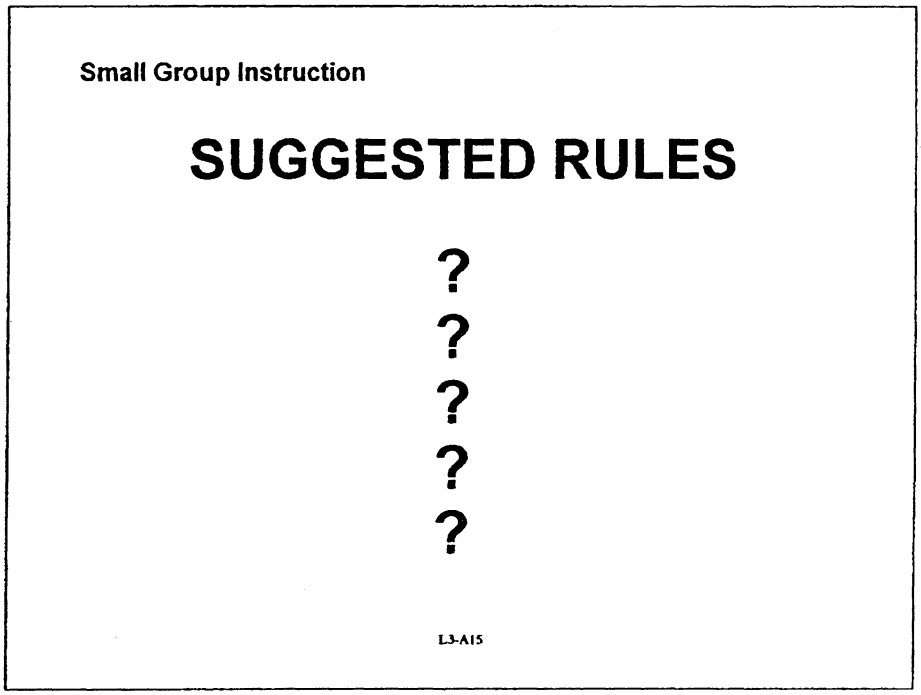


- Resource integration
- Social motivation
- Social influence

L3-A14

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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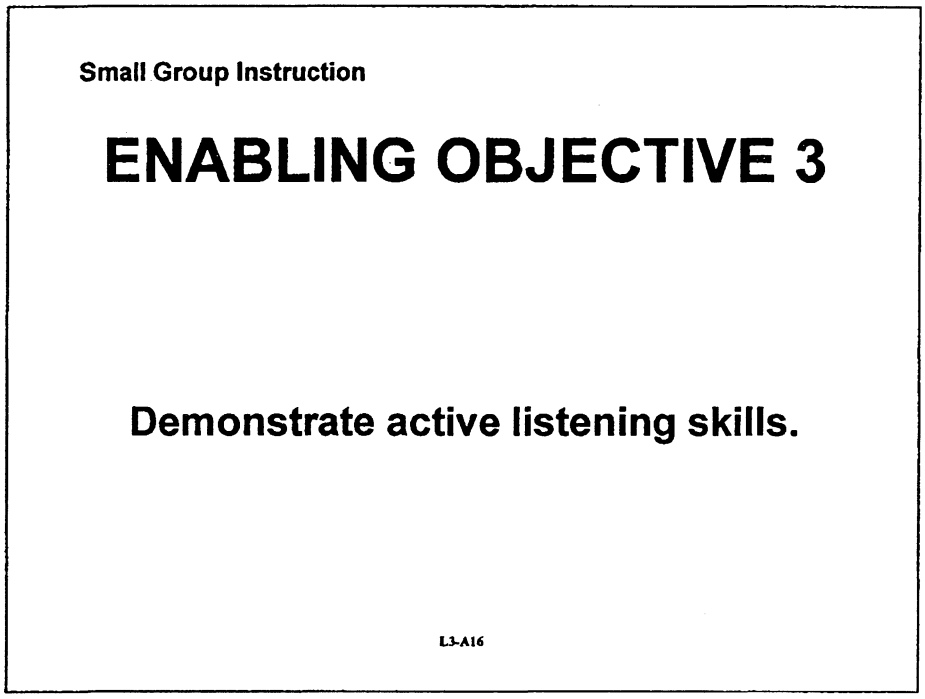

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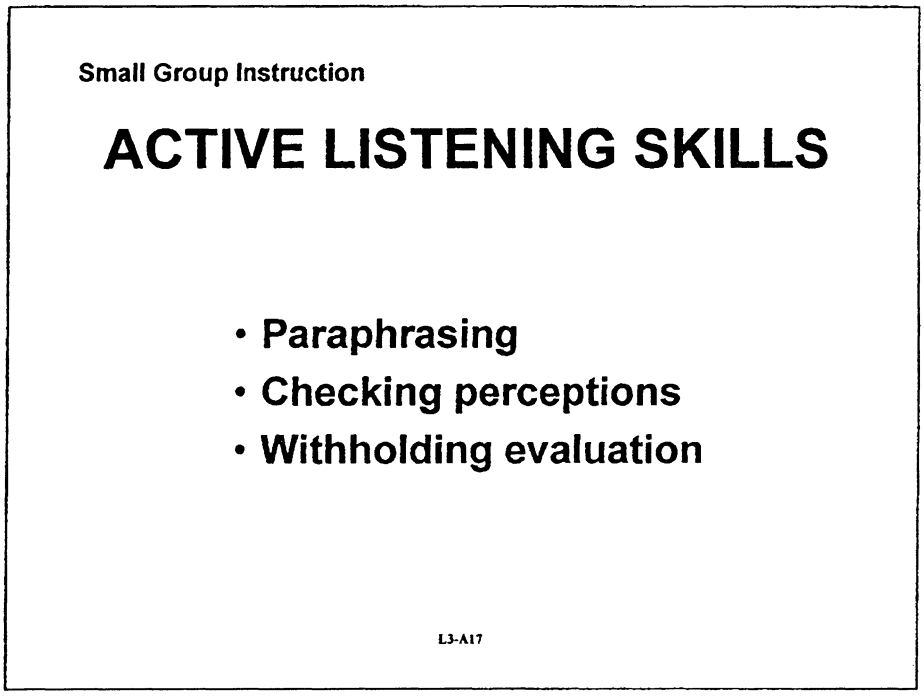

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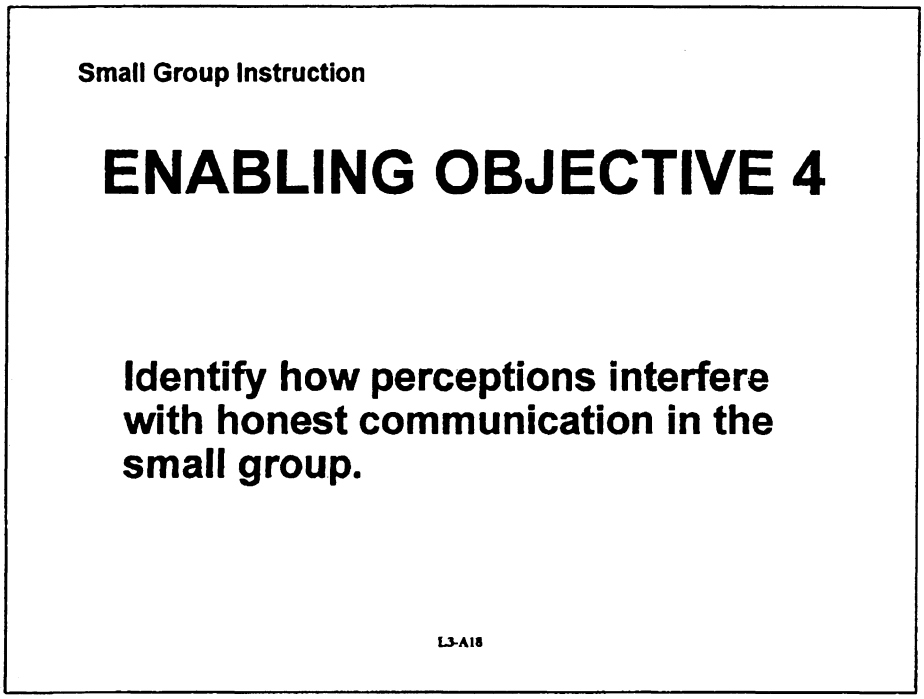

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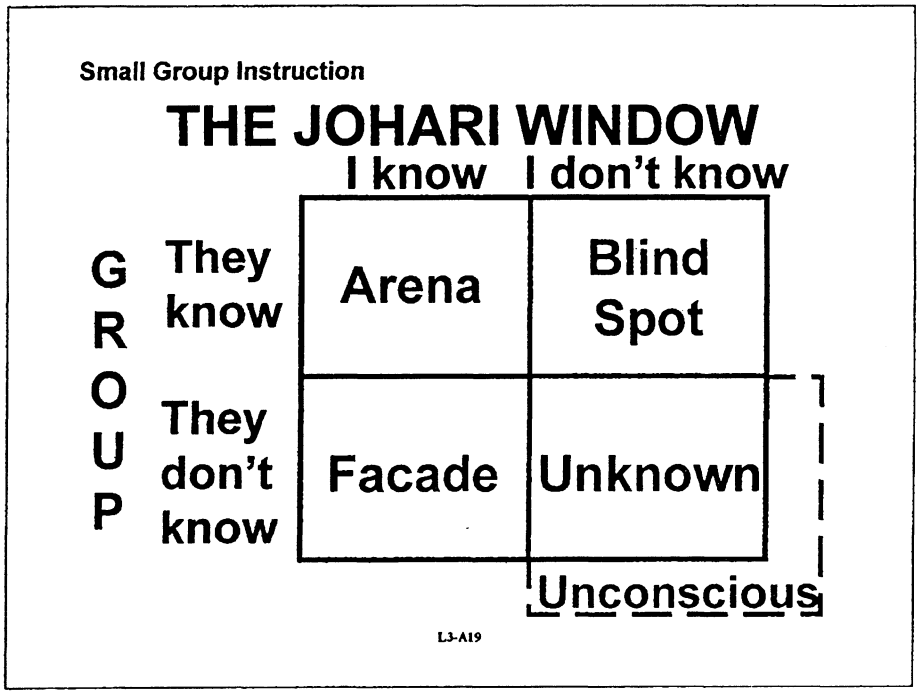

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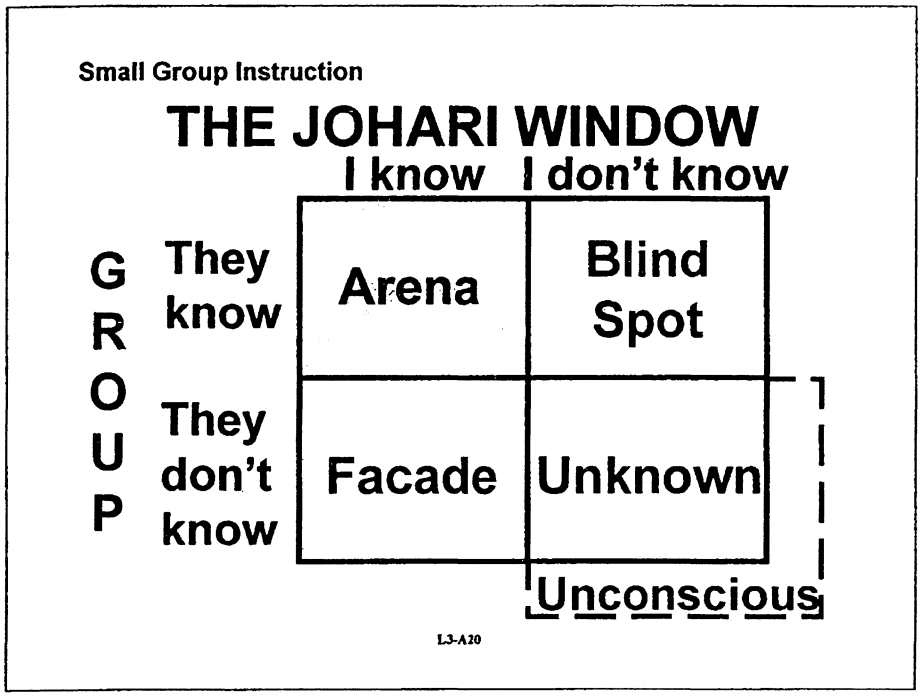

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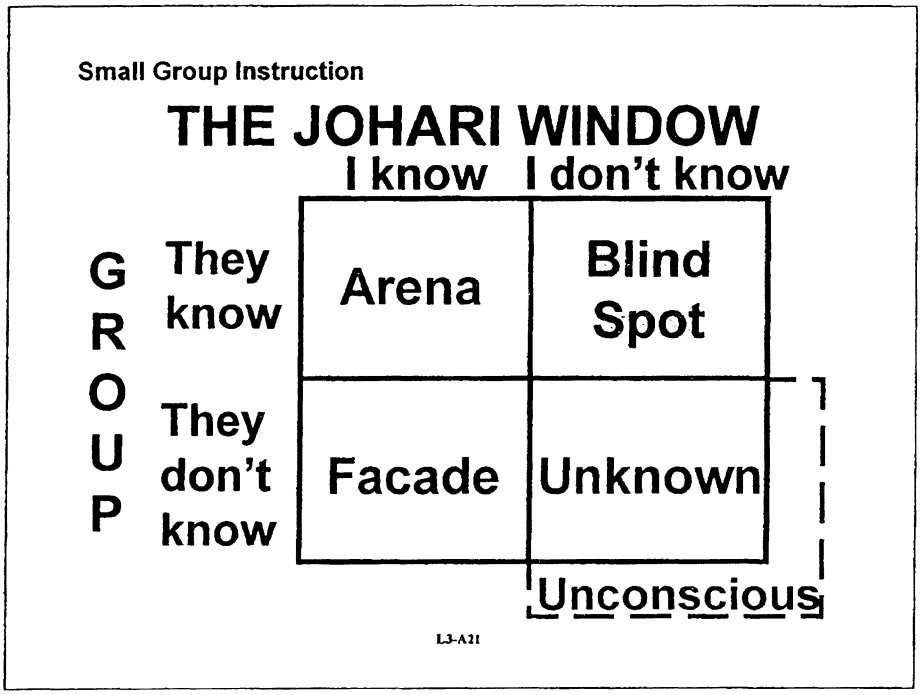

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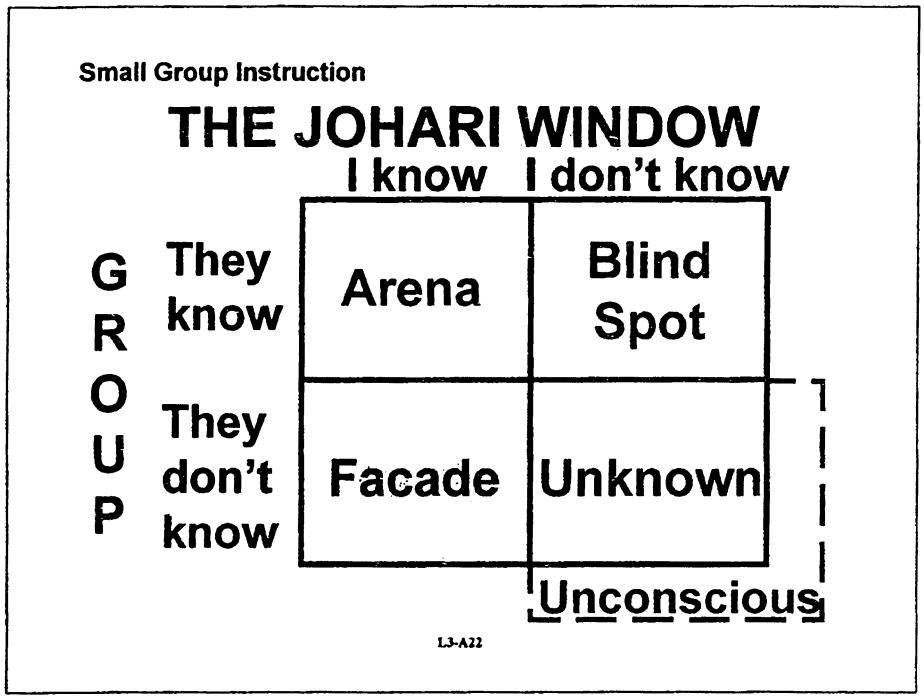

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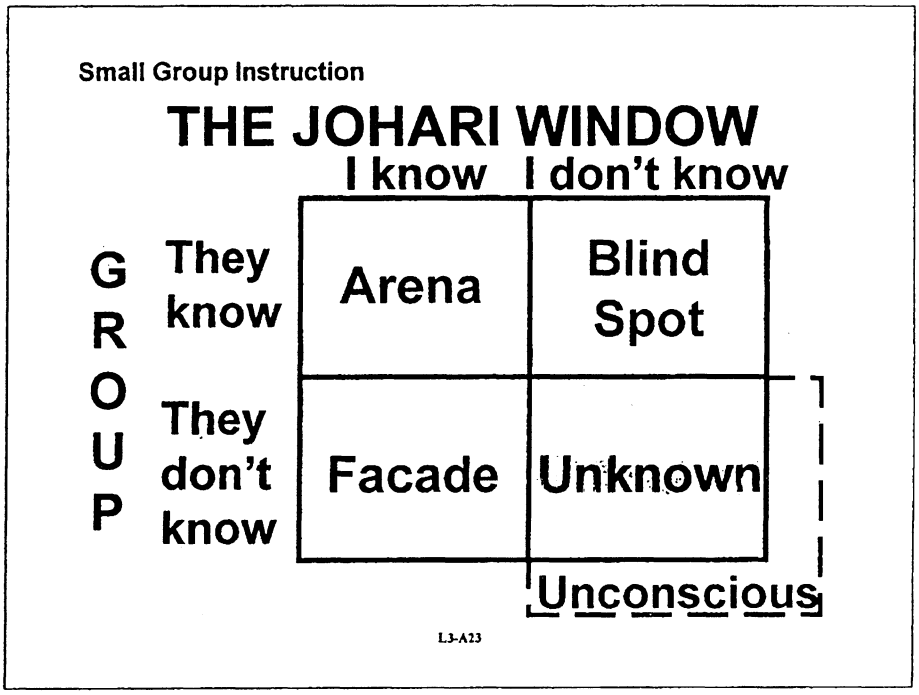

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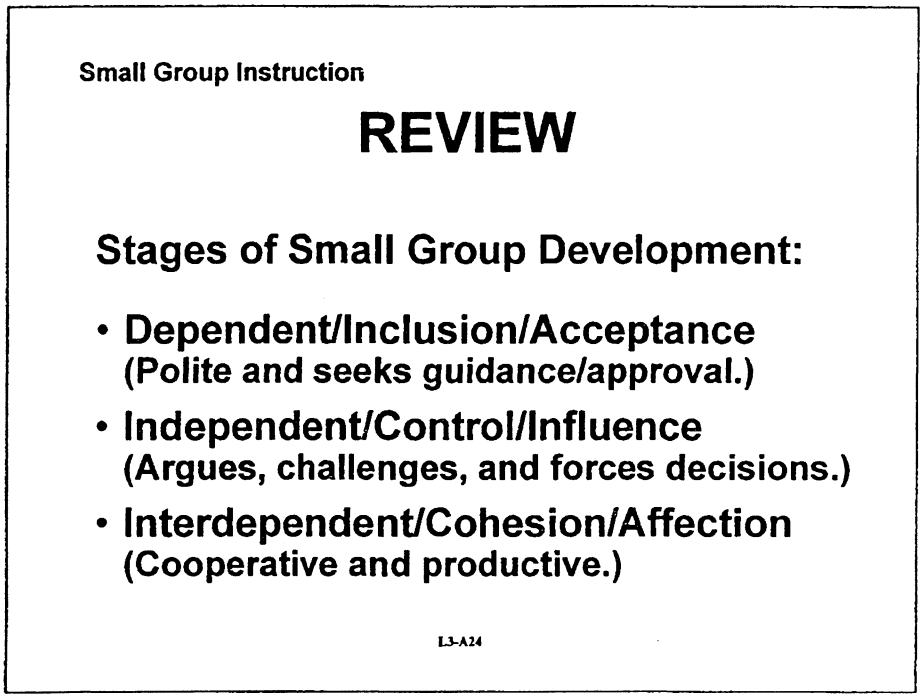

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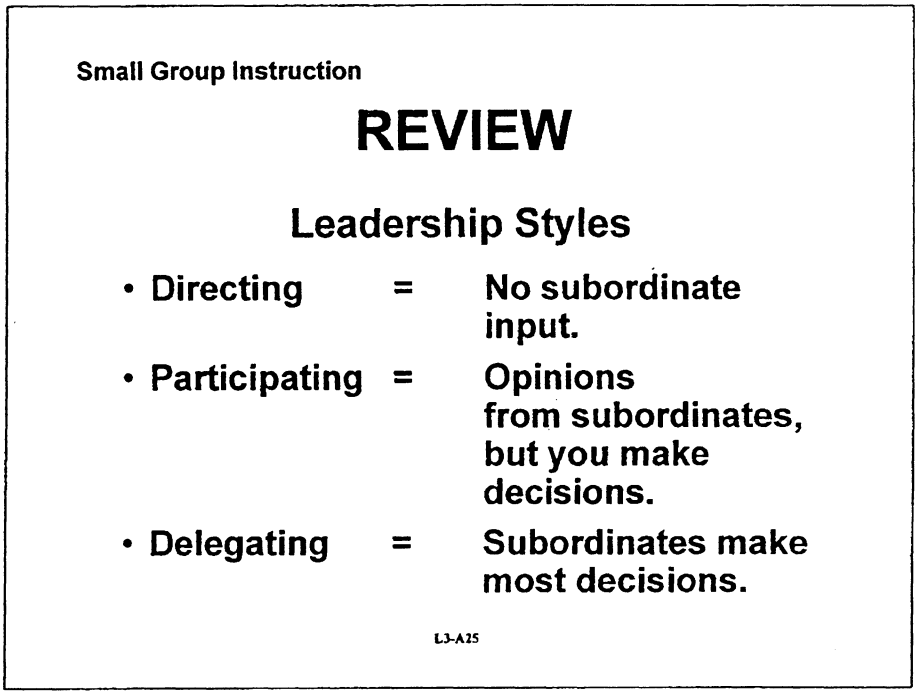

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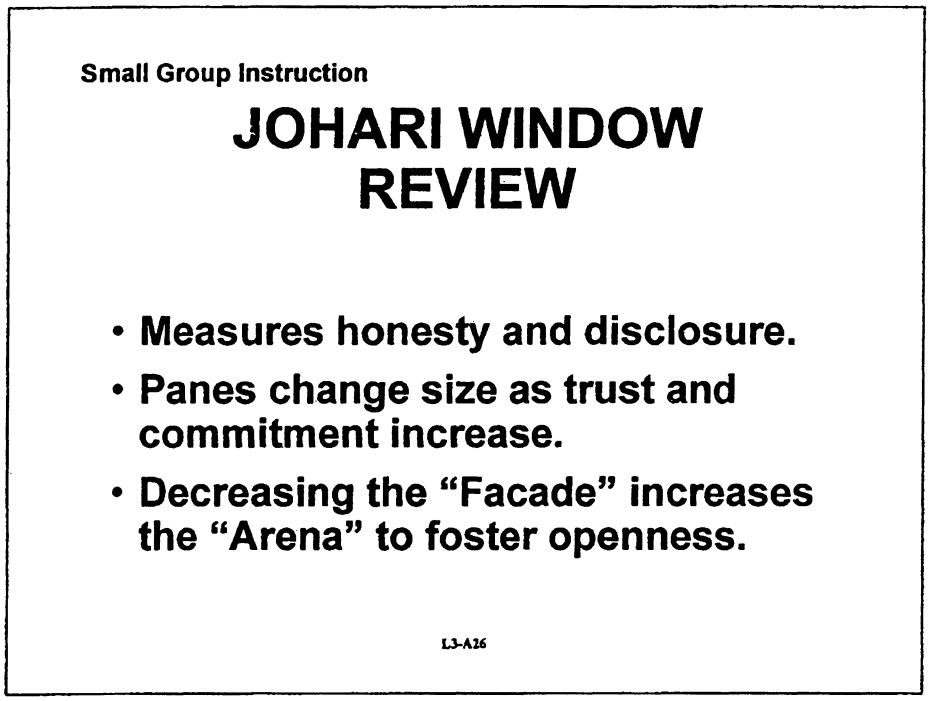
TV DISPLAY



NOTES

LESSON 3

Student Handouts and Exercises

Behavioral Change Chart

Use of this chart Use this chart to determine the stage of group development by observing the behaviors of the group.

Chart This chart compares six group behaviors with the stage of group development.

Behavior	D/I/A Stage	I/C/I Stage	I/C/A Stage
Norms	Norms are developed.	Norms are broken.	Norms are examined as a group.
Structure	Group looks to instructor.	Imposed on group by student or students.	Group looks to themselves.
Decision Making	Autocratic and minority.	Autocratic, minority, and majority.	Consensus.
Influence	Covert, reference to authority.	Overt, arguments.	Shared, goes to student for task at hand.
Feedback	Little or none.	Some, but doesn't conform to rules.	Give and receive. Conforms to rules.
Competition	Can't win. Avoidance attitude.	Must win. Belligerent attitude.	All win. Cooperative attitude.

Exercise B: Leadership Decision Matrix Handout

Instructions

Select the style of leadership to use in the following situations in the small group environment. Select only one answer. Come to consensus and report back in 15 minutes. Be prepared to discuss your answers.

Check one answer only

Situation	Dir	Par	Del
1. Morning of the 1st day, group asks questions.			
2. Conference style of SGI delivery.			
3. Midway through class, group becomes unruly.			
4. New student joins class after 3d day of 2 week class.			
5. Mature group off track on task completion.			
6. AAR or ELC after lesson delivery.			
7. One student does not participate during several group exercises.			
8. Afternoon of last day of class.			
9. Group performs hazardous task.			

Exercise C: Active Listening

Step 1 A list of controversial topics follows. Assign one per group member. Abortion, Bosnia, Concealed Weapon Law, Buying American, Gay Teachers, Smoke Breaks, Standing for the National Anthem, Baseball Strike, Football Teams Moving.

Step 2 Each person in your group will have a turn being the speaker. The speaker will talk for 3 minutes, selecting a topic from the list you prepared or choosing one of his/her own.

Continued on next page

Exercise C: Active Listening Exercise, Continued

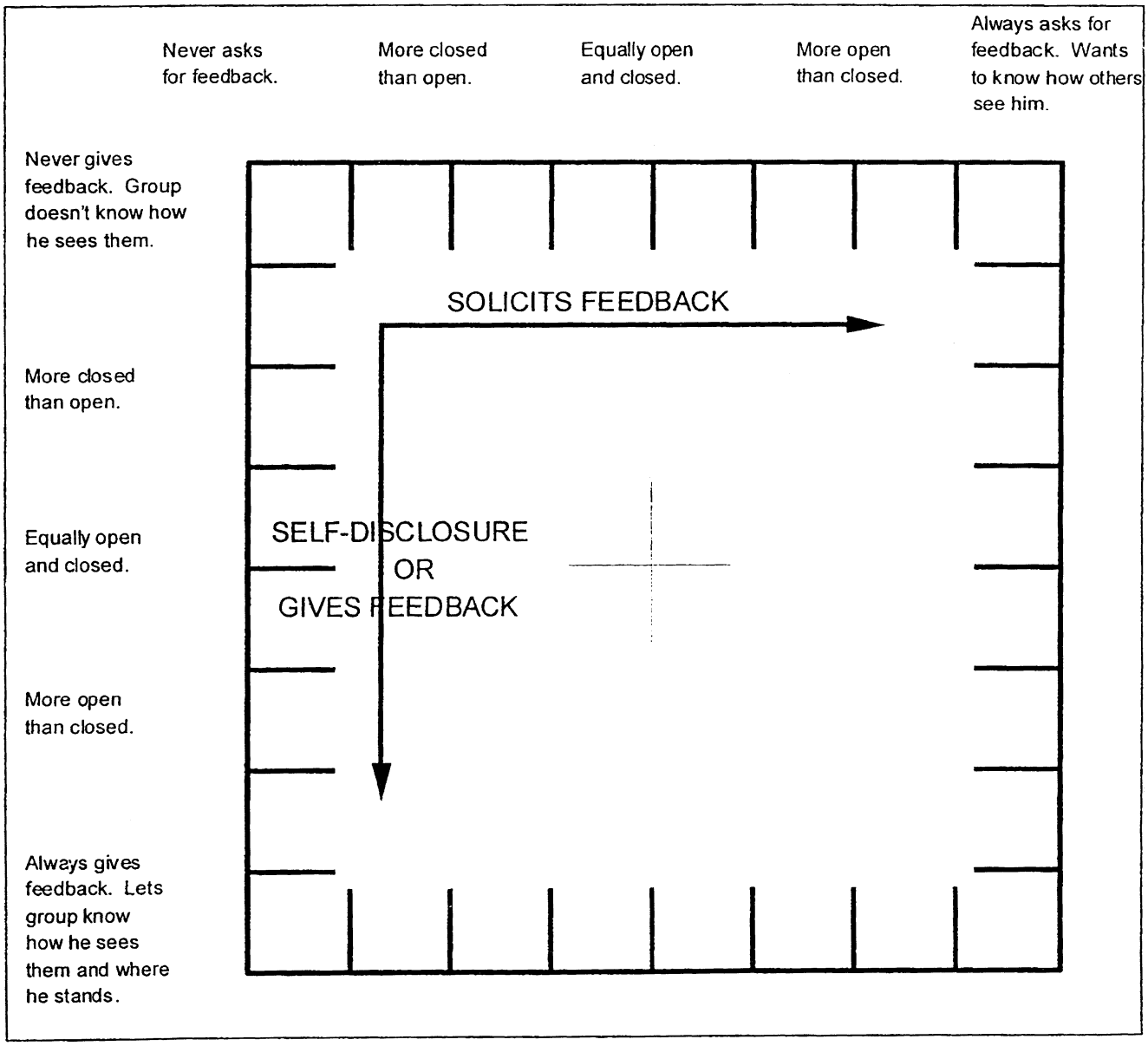
Risk of communicating nonacceptance

The communication of mutual acceptance is vital to developing and maintaining work and personal relationships. However, various ways of responding to situations run the risk of communicating nonacceptance. To understand another person's point of view effectively, you must show your openness to that communication. According to author Gordon, most people, during a listening situation, commonly respond in one or more of the following twelve ways:

1. Ordering, Directing: "You have to . . . "
2. Warning, Threatening: "You better not . . ."
3. Preaching, Moralizing: "You ought to . . ."
4. Advising, Giving Solutions: "Why don't you . . ."
5. Lecturing, Informing: "Here are the facts . . ."
6. Evaluating, Blaming: "You're wrong . . ."
7. Praising, Agreeing: "You're right . . ."
8. Name-calling, Shaming: "You're stupid . . ."
9. Interpreting, Analyzing: "What you need . . ."
10. Sympathizing, Supporting: "You'll be OK. . ."
11. Questioning, Probing: "Why did you . . ."
12. Withdrawing, Avoiding: "Let's forget it . . ."

Exercise E: Johari Window Self-Rating Sheet

Instructions Recall the last subgroup exercise and think of how much you solicited feedback from the group. Record this rating vertically on the form. Think about how much feedback about yourself (disclosure) you gave to the group. Record this rating horizontally on the form. The results are your windows. Share these rating with your group members.



Adapted from Group Processes: An Introduction to Group Dynamics by Joseph Luft. Used with permission of Mayfield Publishing Co., Copyright 1984, 1970, and 1963 by Joseph Luft.

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

LESSON 4

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE

L4-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

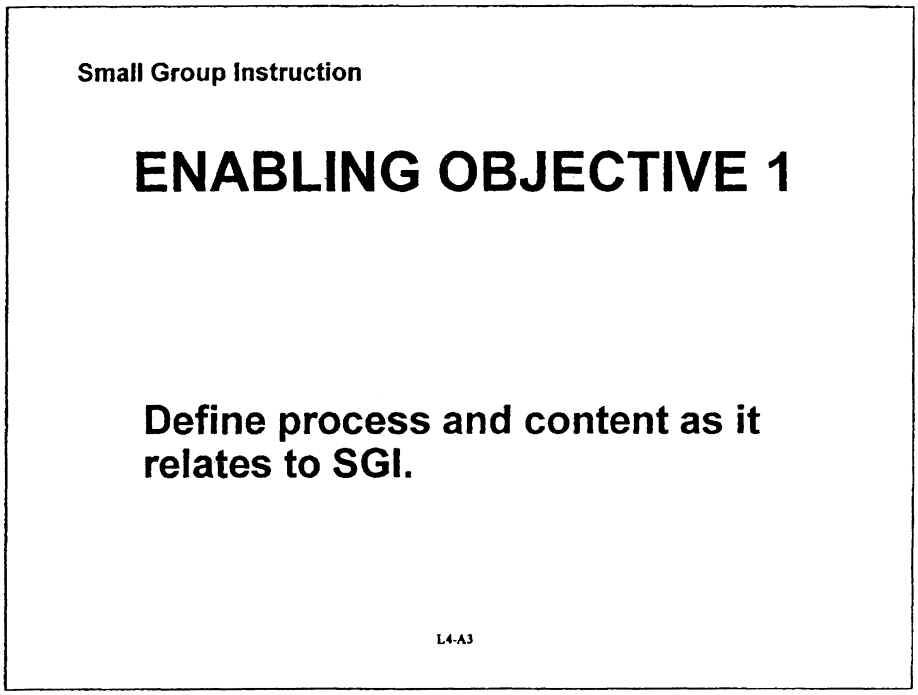
TERMINAL OBJECTIVE

Explain the Experiential Learning Cycle (ELC).

L4-A2

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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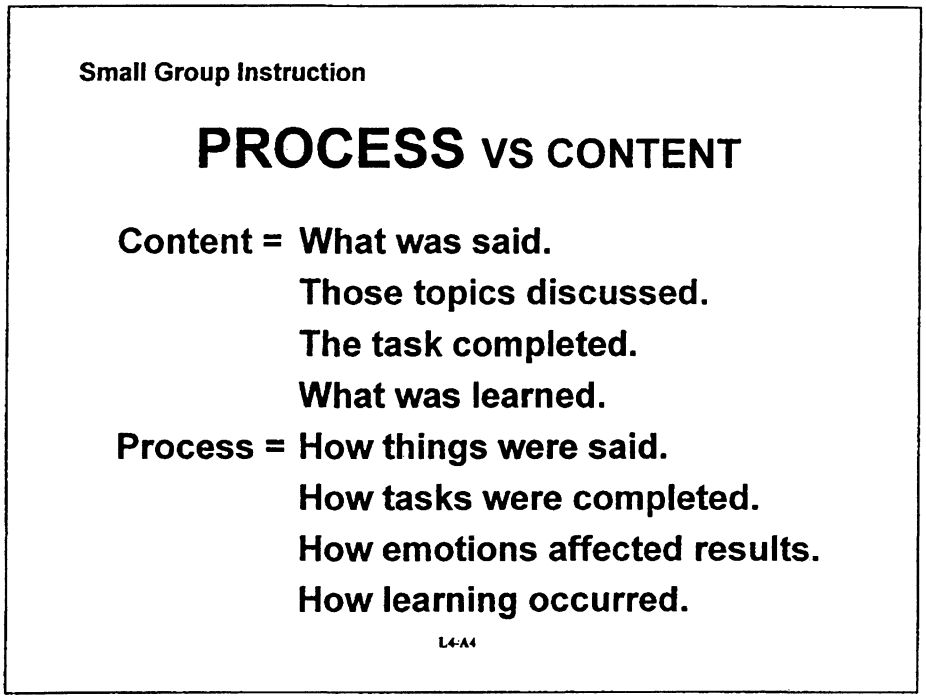

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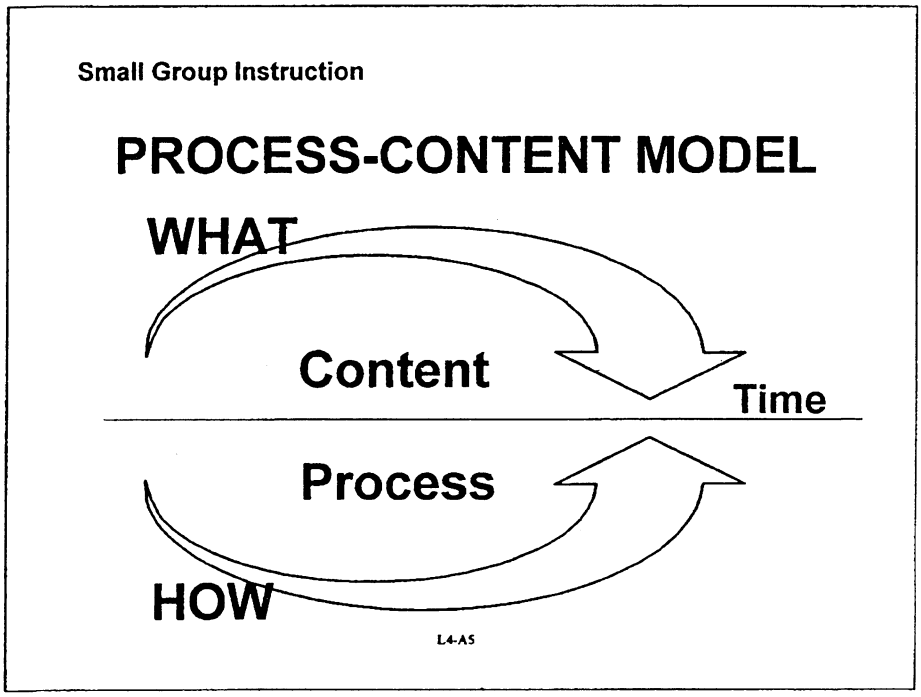

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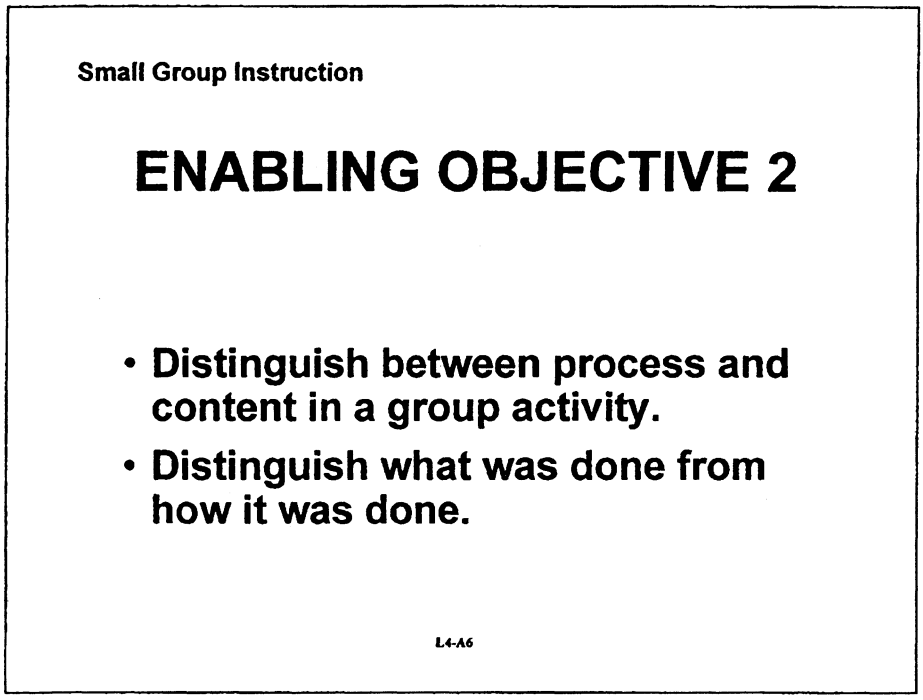

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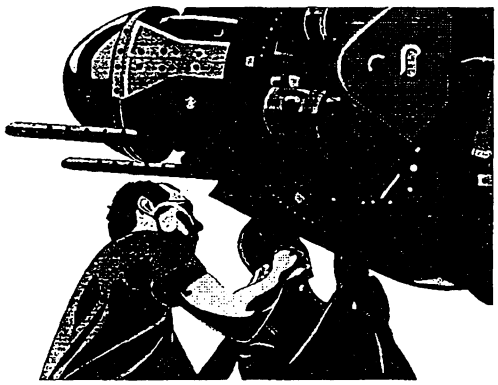
Small Group Instruction



PRACTICAL EXERCISE

L4-A7

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

ENABLING OBJECTIVE 3

Describe the five phases of the Experiential Learning Cycle.

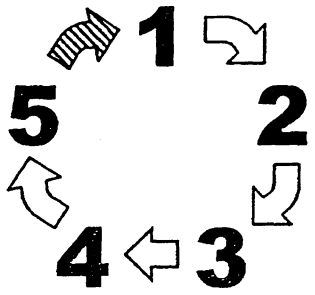
L4-A8

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING MODEL



L4-A9

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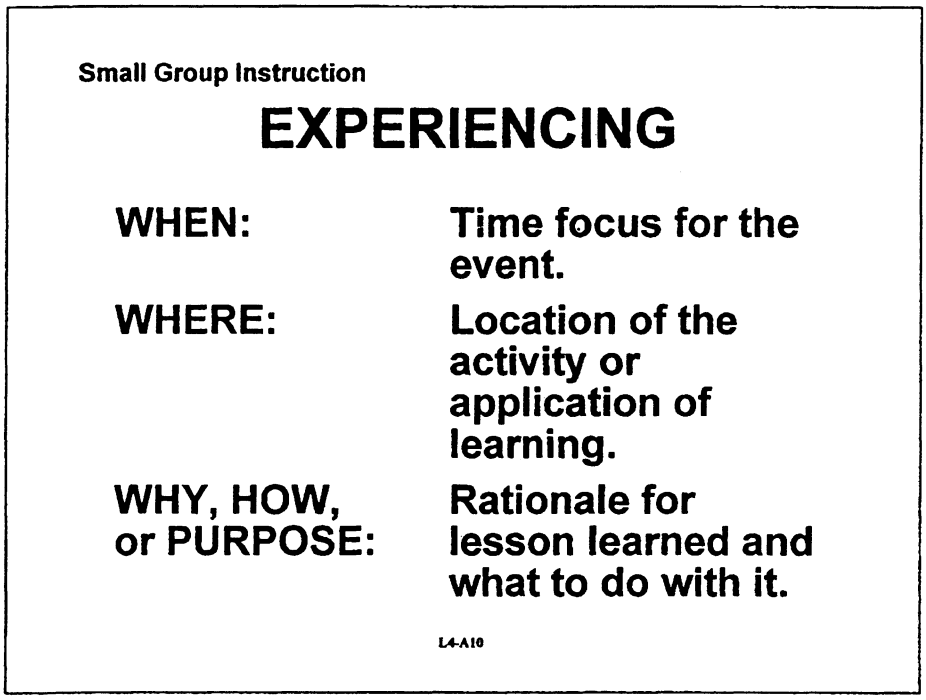


NOTES

TV DISPLAY

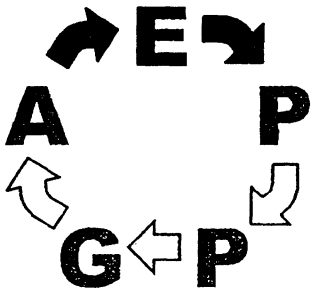
Small Group Instruction

EXPERIENCING

Here and now

In the group

Actions/tasks



L4-A11

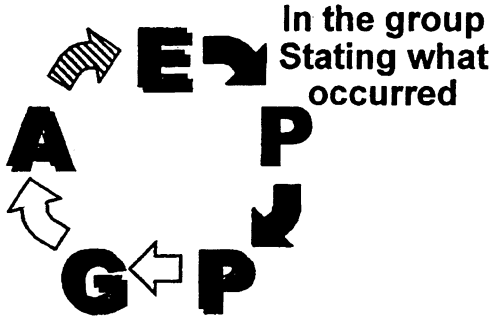
NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

PUBLISHING

Here and now
In the group
Stating what
occurred



L4-A12

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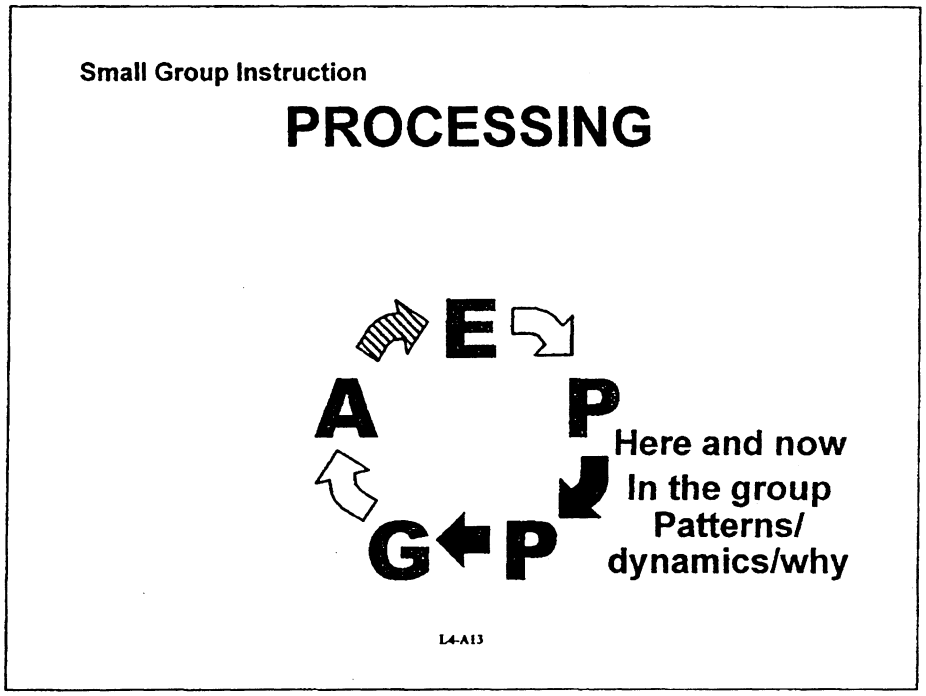
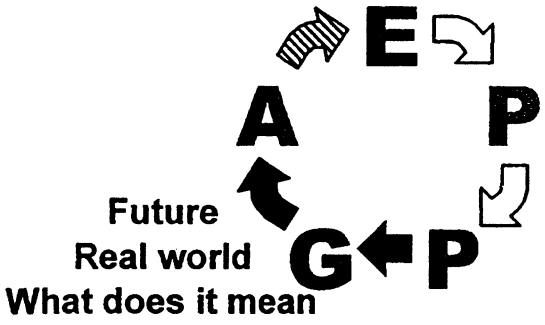


NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

GENERALIZING



L4-A14

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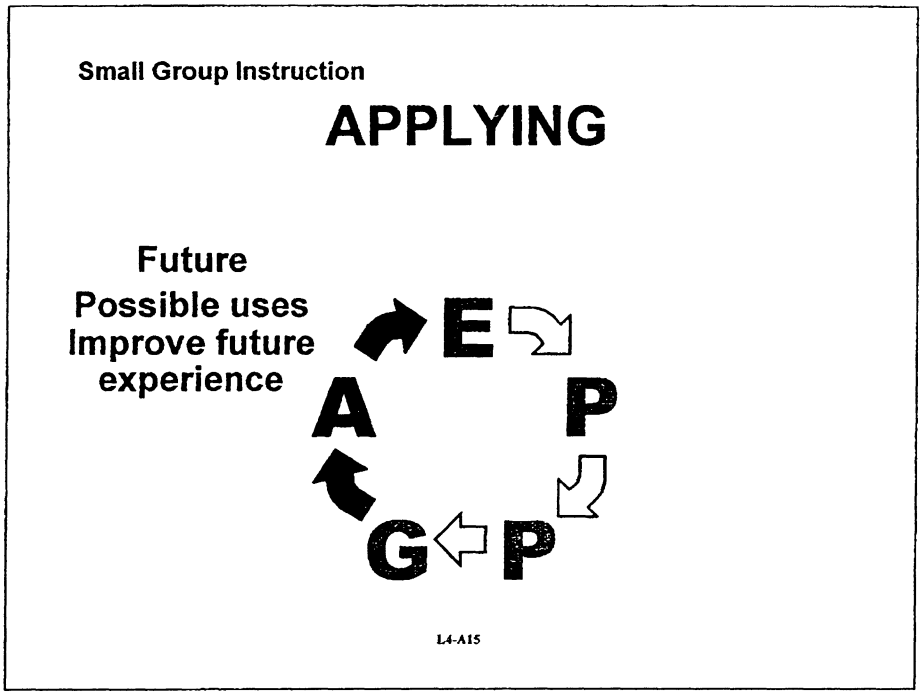


NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

TRANSITIONS

Content to process is usually most difficult.

L4-A16

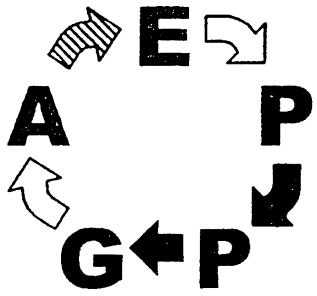
NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

TRANSITIONS

Individual reactions to group dynamics and here and now to real world.



L4-A17

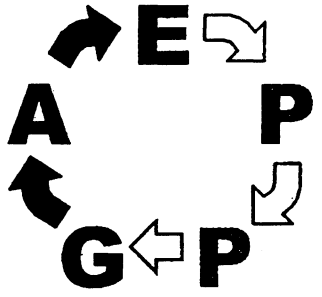
NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

TRANSITIONS

Transfer experience from real world to future or new activity to start cycle again.



L4-A18

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

ENABLING OBJECTIVE 4

Compare the ELC to the AAR.

Include each AAR phase and the ELC stage that corresponds.

L4-A19

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

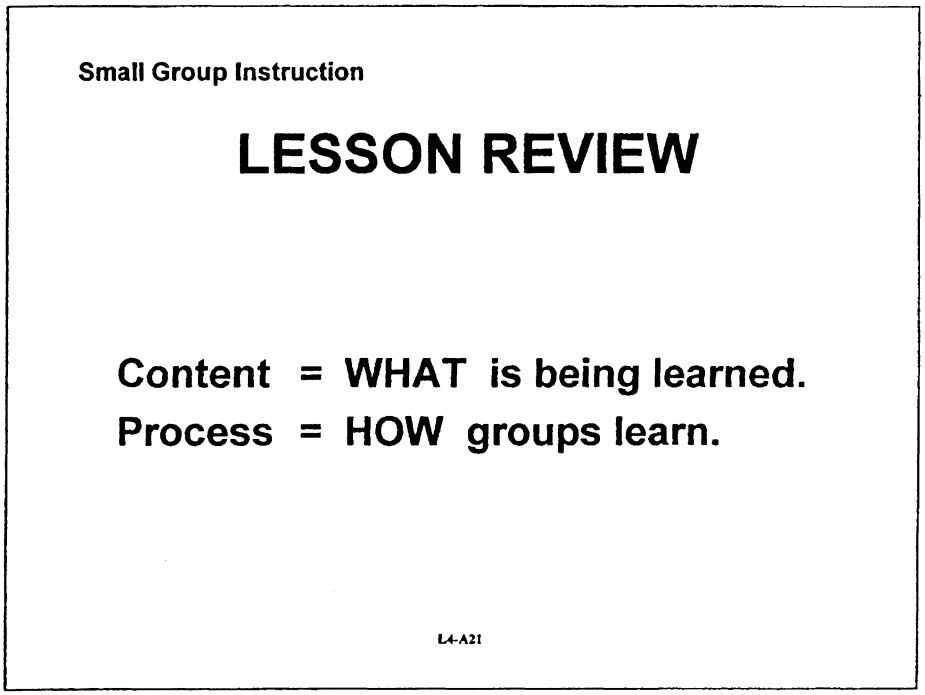
ELC/AAR COMPARISON

Experiencing	Training event
Publishing	What occurred
Processing	What was right
Generalizing	Next time
Applying	More training

L4-A20

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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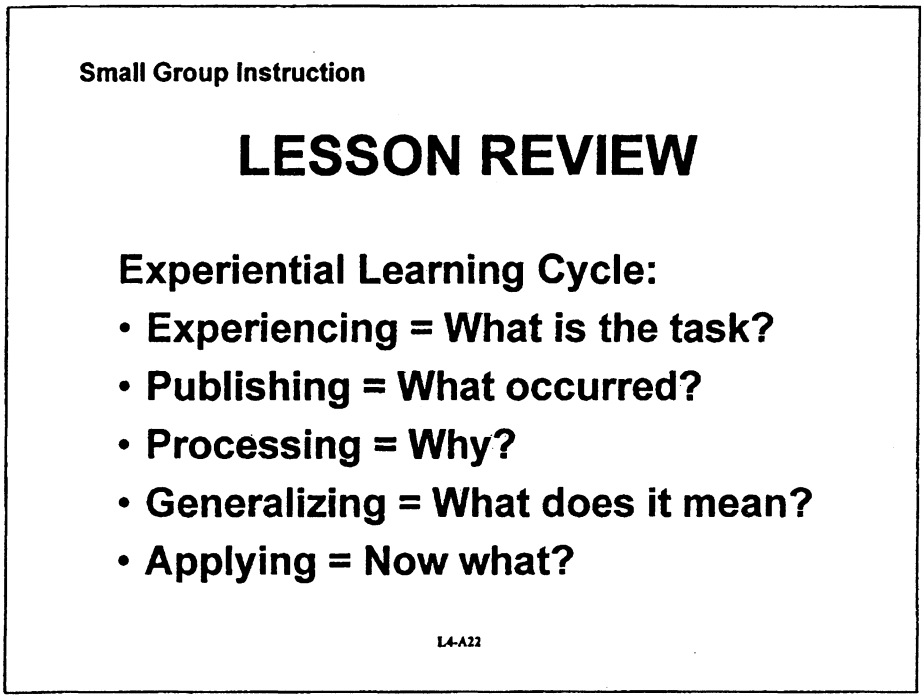

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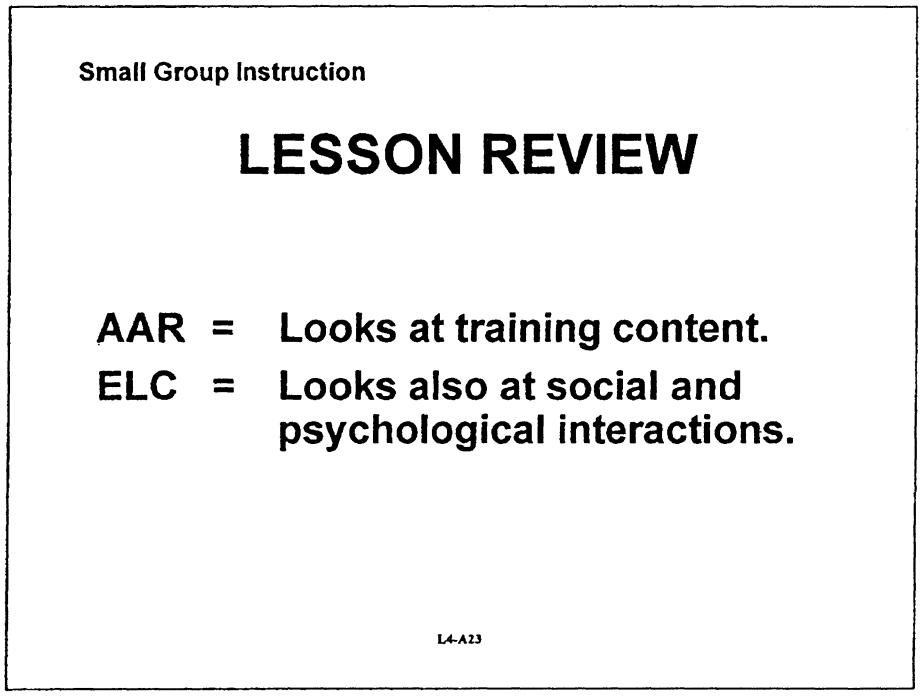


NOTES

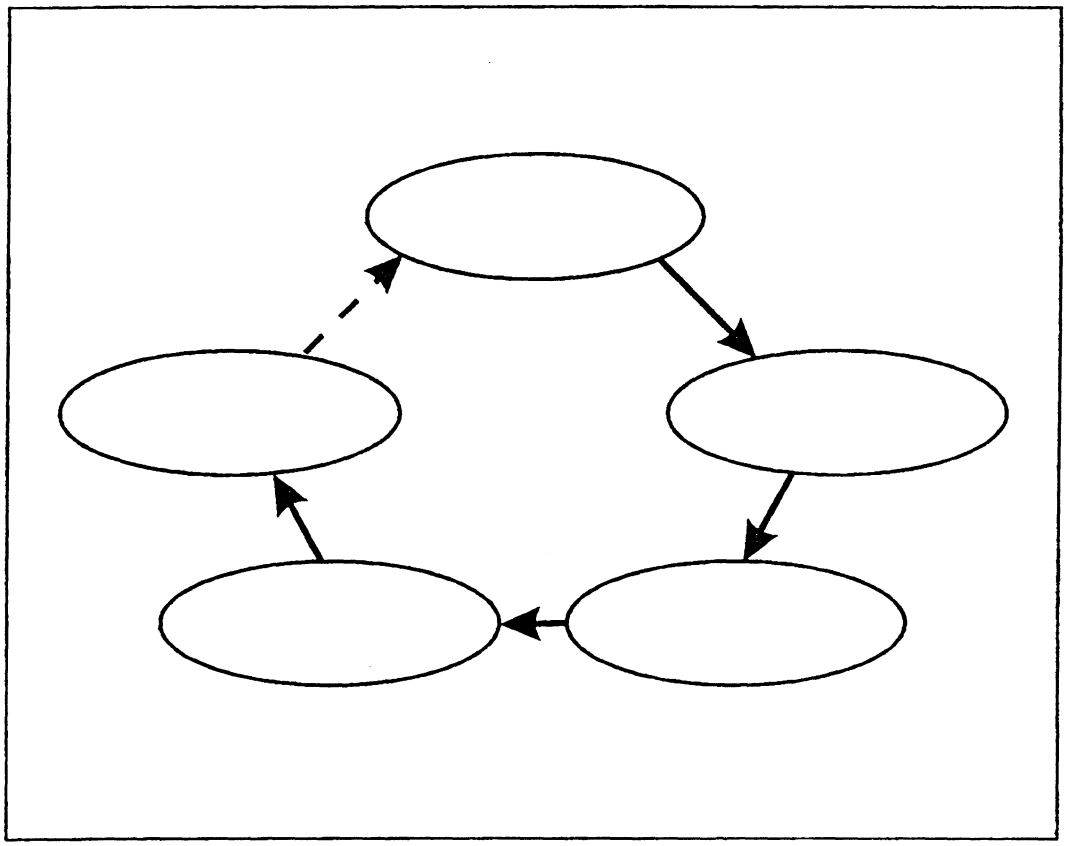
LESSON 4

Student Handouts and Exercises

Handout **Page**

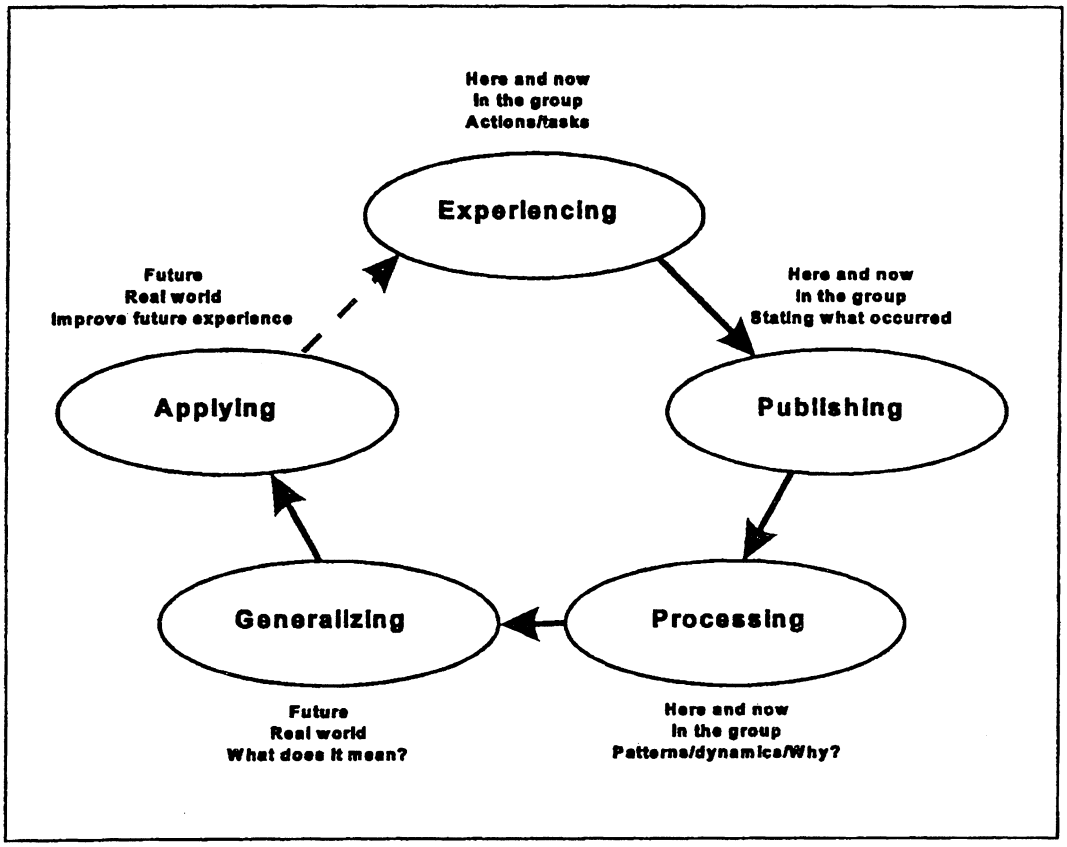
STUDENT HANDOUT

The Experiential Learning Model (Blank)



STUDENT HANDOUT

The Experiential Learning Model



ELC Questions Handout

PROCESSING QUESTIONS FOR EACH STAGE OF THE EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE

Usually in stage one, the experiencing phase, group members participate in an activity to generate data. Processing the data does not actually begin until the second (publishing) stage. However, since group members sometimes resist beginning and/or completing an activity, the group leader may find the following questions helpful in stage one. They are usually "no fail" questions because (1) they tend to break down the group members' resistance by encouraging involvement in the activity; (2) if they do not break down the resistance, then processing this resistance becomes the learning; and (3) we can use them at any stage of the experiential cycle. They are key questions, which the group leader can use along with summarizing and reflecting to help the group move either more deeply into the stage at hand or on to another stage.

- What is going on?
- How do you feel about that?
- What do you need to know to _____?
- Would you be willing to try?
- Could you be more specific?
- Could you offer a suggestion?
- What would you prefer?
- What are your suspicions?
- What is your objection?
- If you could guess at the answer, what would it be?
- Can you say that in another way?
- What is the worst/best that could happen?
- What else?
- Would you say more about that?

Stage Two-Publishing

In stage two, publishing, group members have completed the experience. Questions focus on generating data.

- Who would volunteer to share? Who else?
- What happened?
- How did you feel about that?
- Who else had the same experience?
- Who reacted differently?
- Were there any surprises?
- How many felt the same?
- How many felt differently?
- What did you observe?
- What were you aware of?

Stage Three-Processing

In stage three, processing, group members now have data. Questions focus on making sense of that data for the individual and the group.

- How did you account for that?
- What does that mean to you?
- How was that significant?
- How was that good/bad?
- What struck you about that?
- How do those fit together?
- How might it have been different?
- Do you see something operating there?
- What does that suggest to you about yourself/your group?
- What do you understand better about yourself/your group?

Stage Four-Generalizing

In stage four, generalizing, group members work towards forming principles, which they derived from the specific knowledge they have gained about themselves and their group. Questions focus on promoting generalizations.

- What might we draw/pull from that?
- Is that plugging into anything?
- What did you learn/relearn?
- What does that suggest to you about _____ in general?
- Does that remind you of anything?
- What principle/law do you see operating?
- What does that help explain?
- How does this relate to other experiences?
- What do you associate with that?
- So what?

Stage Five-Applying

In stage five, applying, group members discuss using what they learned in their real-world situation. Questions focus on applying the general knowledge they have gained to their personal and professional lives.

- How could you apply/transfer that?
- What would you like to do with that?
- How could you repeat this again?
- What could you do to hold on to that?
- What are the options?
- What might you do to help/hinder yourself?
- How could you make it better?
- What would be the consequences of doing/not doing that?
- What modifications can you make work for you?
- What could you imagine/fantasize about that?

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

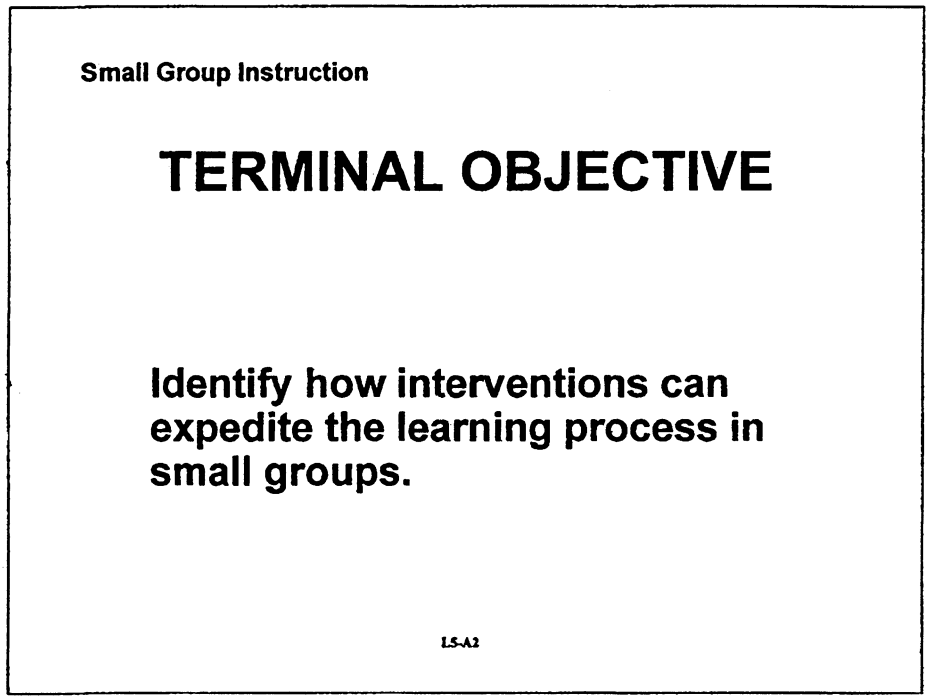
LESSON 5

INTERVENTION

LS-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

ENABLING OBJECTIVE 1

Identify the types of intervention and the objective, timing, and form of each.

LS-A3

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

INTERVENTION TYPES

- Conceptual-input
- Coaching
- Process-observation

LS-A4

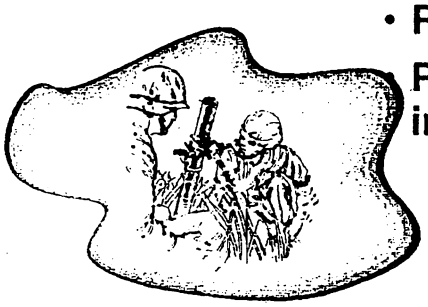
NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

- Guidance
- Positive reinforcement
- Protection of an individual



LS-A5

NOTES

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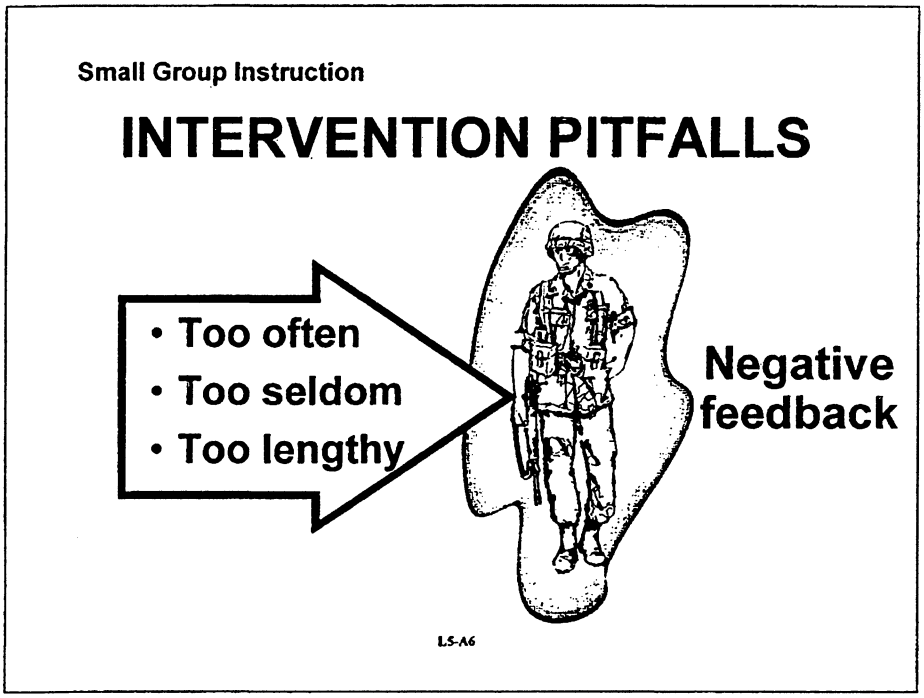


NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

SGL ACTIONS

- Step 1 - Diagnose.
- Step 2 - Identify role.
- Step 3 - Decide to act or to do nothing.

LS-A7

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

INFLUENCING CONTENT

- Be specific.
- Be brief.
- Move group off center.

LS-A8

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

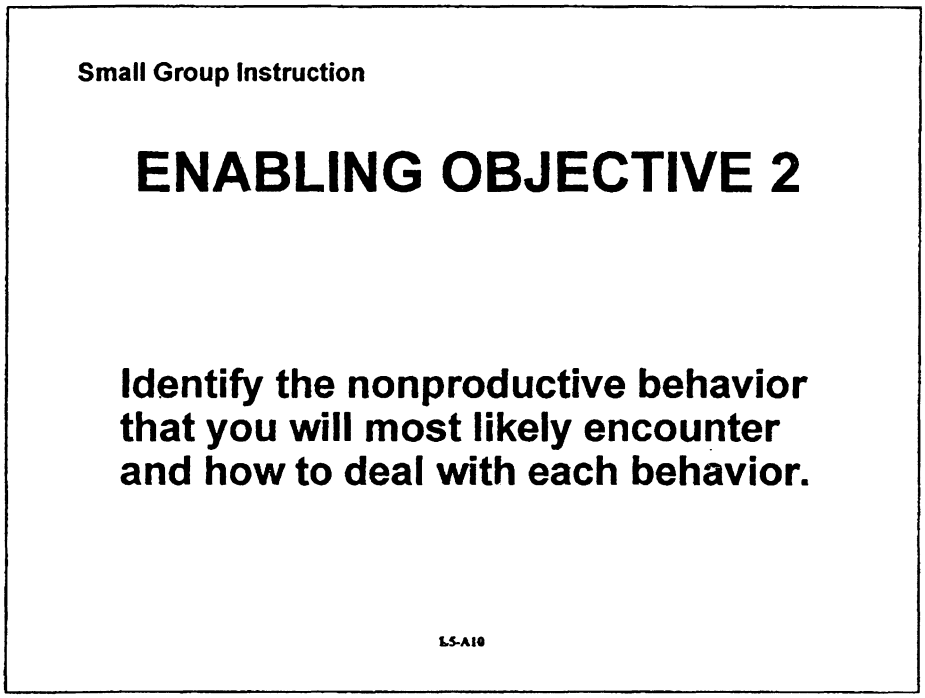
INFLUENCING PROCESS

- Mention observations.
- Focus on process.
- Stimulate group interaction.

LS-A9

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

REVIEW

- Three types of intervention
- Intervention strategies
- Intervention pitfalls
- Types of nonproductive behavior

L5-A11

NOTES

LESSON 5

Student Handouts

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 1 - Instructor Qualifications

Situation

It is the morning of the first day. The session has been in progress for approximately one and one-half hours. You are just processing one of the initial exercises in the session when a group member confronts you with the question of your qualifications to conduct this type of training. There is hostility in her tone of voice, and her demeanor indicates to you that there is more to her question than just a request for information. Even though it is only the first day, she has already expressed her displeasure with just about everything that has happened.

Question 1

Is the student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What would you do?

1. Nothing; ignore her behavior.
2. Reflect back on his question, and attempt to clarify her motivation.
3. Determine how other group members are reacting to her behavior.
4. Provide a structure wherein all group members can share their experience and qualifications in this area.
5. Describe this behavior as a form of resistance to authority of group leaders.
6. Confront her with your reactions to being challenged in a basically dishonest way.
7. Explain your qualifications and your authority to conduct the seminars.
8. Say "Questions about qualifications are trivial because they are not relevant to the here and now."
9. Comment that you are just one member of the group and that all members share the responsibility for making this a success.
10. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 2 - War Stories and "Bull Sessions"

Situation

The group has returned from lunch the first day. The group members are talking about their past experiences. War stories and "Bull sessions" are going on. They seem to want to get back to work, but one student is preventing this by bringing up extraneous material and comments/questions not related to the topic.

Question 1

Is the student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What would you do?

1. Nothing.
2. Participate in the discussion, and try to turn it back to the topic at hand.
3. Point out the irrelevancy of the current discussion.
4. Share your feelings on how the individual is acting.
5. Provide an activity that focuses the group back into the here and now.
6. State that you see the current group behavior as a means to avoid dealing with the here and now.
7. Share your reactions to an obvious violation of the "here and now" ground rules for the group and how this is affecting you as the facilitator.
8. Ask the group if they think the discussion is relevant to the goals of the course.
9. Ask group members how they feel about participating in this type of discussion.
10. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 3 - Nonparticipation

Situation 3 It is the morning of the second day. The session has been in progress for approximately 1 hour. You have just initiated a feedback exercise and notice that an individual has not participated in the exercise. The student appears to be elsewhere mentally and has repeatedly asked you to repeat questions/directions.

Question 1 Is the student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2 What would you do?

1. Nothing.
2. State that silence is often productive in groups of this nature.
3. Solicit other group members' responses to this student's prolonged silence.
4. Share your feelings as facilitator about the nonparticipation.
5. Structure an additional activity designed to encourage more participation.
6. Describe the avoidance behaviors you are currently observing in the group.
7. Question the student and solicit reasons for nonparticipation.
8. Re-emphasize that everyone is expected to participate in this activity.
9. Point out to the group in general that you are aware of how hard it is to share one's feelings.
10. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 4 - Late Student

Situation

It is the afternoon of the second day. The group has just reconvened after a one and a half hour lunch break. One group member returns to the group approximately 30 minutes late. He has been late before, and is habitually late returning from coffee breaks, but no one has said or done anything about it. He also has been talking while others are talking and asks questions in a hostile manner.

Question 1

Is the student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Nothing. Ignore the behavior.
2. Solicit other group members' feelings about the behavior of the late person.
3. Share your feelings about members coming late.
4. Suggest that the group member try to get to sessions on time.
5. Comment that lateness is often an attention getting ploy.
6. Share your anger, and describe the disruptive effect that lateness has on the activity now in progress.
7. Describe how this member's returning late seems to have affected the behavior of other group members.
8. Ask him how he feels about it being brought up that he is late.
9. Comment that his behavior is a violation of the ground rules and that perhaps he should not be in the course if he has so many other things that keep him from being on time.
10. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 5 – The "Angry Huff"

Situation 5

It is late in the afternoon of the second day. Two group members were just involved in a very intense confrontation, and one of them left the room quite suddenly in an angry huff. A third group member seems upset by the actions of the other two and attempts to smooth things over, apologizing for the actions of the student that left.

Question 1

Is the third student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Nothing.
2. Say that it's okay for them to be angry with you.
3. Invite the group member who has just apologized to you to work through the issue.
4. Say that the departing member is going to have to speak for himself.
5. Describe what is going on in the group and how this relates to the previous confrontation.
6. Question the group member about his reasons for dealing with you in this fashion.
7. Turn the group over to your teammate. Meet with the departing member and discuss the inappropriateness of his behavior.
8. Go and talk to the departing member, and use active listening to help him clarify the underlying issue.
9. Tell the remaining member involved in the original conflict that <u>he</u> has responsibility for resolving his conflict, and the group will wait for his return.
10. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 6 - Les Miserables

Situation

It is the morning of the third day. One of the members has said very little throughout the meeting and seems to be miserable. Several times this member has had a look of disgust or pain. Some of the others are beginning to question this member about the silence. The member remains quiet, and the group seems uncertain about how to proceed.

Question 1

Is this student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Even though they look to you for help, leave it to the group to deal with the situation.
2. Comment how the silent group member's behavior is affecting the operation of the group.
3. Ask others to share their feelings about the group member's silence.
4. Provide a structure that allows the group member to participate more actively in the group and share feelings.
5. Discuss the dynamics of low participation by commenting that silence is most likely a consequence of anxiety at being involved in this type of training.
6. Question the group member about why the member has not participated more freely in the group.
7. Facilitate the communications between the silent member and one of those confronting the silent member so that the silent member can be drawn into the group.
8. Intervene in the confrontation, and comment that silence is okay.
9. Intervene in the confrontation, and point out that one of the ground rules is that all are responsible for their own level of participation and that members will get out of the group what they put into it.
10. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 7 - The Filibuster

Situation It is now the afternoon of the third day and the conversation has been monopolized by one of the group members. His monologue and interruptions have interfered with the development of the group and blocked any kind of meaningful interchange. During this session, he has had the floor for approximately 1 hour.

Question 1 Is the student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2 What do you do?

1. Even though the group members seem to be frustrated and look to you for help, leave it to the group to deal with the situation.
2. Ask other group members to describe what has been going on in this session.
3. Ask group members how they feel about one person doing most of the talking.
4. Share your feelings about the monopolization of the group.
5. Direct your remarks to other group members in an attempt to increase their participation.
6. Describe what has been going on as primarily a two-party interaction, where one has monopolized the conversation while other group members have allowed this type of behavior.
7. Tell the member how much time he has been controlling the discussion and to give others a chance.
8. Confront him (using effective communications) with your feelings about his participation and then actively listen to his response.
9. Wait until you observe another member's agitation, and facilitate a confrontation between the two.
10. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 8 - The "Corrector"

Situation

It is the morning of the fourth day. Approximately one-half hour into the day, one of the group members announces that he is going to quit the group. He says that he cannot see how the training is of benefit to him since he has not learned anything he didn't already know. He has added to or corrected everything that has been said to this point, many times giving incorrect information. Other group members are upset by his announcement and try to talk him out of leaving.

Question 1

Is the student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Nothing.
2. Say that you have enjoyed his participation in the group and would be sorry if he left.
3. Ask group members what they should do about the situation.
4. Share your feelings about this group member leaving.
5. Remind the group member that he is there under orders and that before you allow him to leave he will have to state his reasons more fully.
6. Invite him to sit down and use active listening techniques to help him verbalize his feelings.
7. Provide a structure that will allow group members to voice their feelings about this member's actions.
8. Describe how this behavior seems to have everyone concerned and confused as to what to do.
9. Ask him to participate with an open mind until the end of the day. Then if he still wants to leave, he may.
10. Other: Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 9 - "I Agree"

Situation

It is the morning of the fifth day. The group is doing well, and members are taking responsibility for maintaining group effectiveness and the ground rules. One of the students has been participating regularly, but you are starting to notice that she never disagrees with anyone and seems to be avoiding any type of conflict. She is causing no problems, but you are concerned about her growth since she has given nothing but glowing feedback.

Question 1

Is the student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Continue the class, letting her take responsibility for her feelings.
3. Use active listening techniques to help her express her feelings.
4. Provide a structure, which allows other members to express how they feel about her lack of conflict.
5. Tell her that you want her to share all her feelings, not just the positive ones.
6. Ask members of the group to diagnose what state of group development this situation signifies.
7. So that she won't feel embarrassed, make a general comment to the group that expressing dissent and negative reactions is part of the group growing process.
8. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 10 - Critique

Situation

The workshop is drawing to a close and the participants are conducting a critique of it. You have requested feedback about its value to each individual member. One participant, who has been a low participator throughout, comments that it was a waste of time. He had interrupted you repeatedly throughout the class, trying to get you to reveal answers instead of figuring them out for himself.

Question 1

Which nonproductive behavior is this student displaying?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Remain silent.
2. Interrupt the student, and state that the purpose of the critique is for constructive feedback.
3. State that it is okay for people to have negative feelings about the workshop.
4. Ask other participants how they feel about the student's constant interruptions.
5. Ask the member why he feels he should have all his questions answered instead of first trying to figure them out himself.
6. Comment that this situation indicates that the group did not fully understand the ground rules and its self-control responsibilities.
7. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 11 - Attack

Situation

It is the morning of the third day. The group has worked through Stage 1 issues and is exhibiting Stage 2 behavior. At this point, one of the group members (who has continually blocked group process, withdrawn, baited another group member, and then withdrawn again) leads an attack against you, the facilitator, by accusing you of not doing your job. He thinks you should do more instructing and involve the nonparticipants.

Question 1

Is the student displaying a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Ask the group what it thinks.
2. Let the group take responsibility for policing itself.
3. Defend your role and style as a facilitator.
4. Do not attack the attacker. Provide him some feedback about his behavior and its effect on the group.
5. Do nothing. Who cares what he thinks.
6. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 12 - Delay

Situation

It is the end of the third week. The group is progressing well and accomplishing all tasks. One member is delaying all activities, however, because he tends to read complex theories into simple thoughts. He takes every word literally and tries to make sense out of everything. The rest of the group is beginning to resent his actions.

Question 1

What nonproductive behavior is this person exhibiting?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Take charge of the group and jump right in to the next task without allowing him to delay.

2. Allow the group members to take care of the situation themselves.

3. Take the member aside and counsel him on how his behavior is affecting the rest of the group.

4. Prior to the class, pick two of the best liked students of the group and ask them to take charge of preventing the individual from continuing.

5. Next time he becomes verbose, tell him to try to express himself in simpler terms (i.e., as a one sentence idea).

6. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 13 - Self-worth

Situation

It is the morning of the fourth day. The group is still in Stage 1 behavior, but members are starting to exert some initiative and independence. Exercises have been slow but completed with passable results. Students are starting to feel more at home in the group, interjecting as appropriate and actively participating in activities. One member is apparently having some self-worth problems and constantly begins each question or statement with an explanation/apology.

Question 1

What behavior is the student expressing?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Nothing.
2. Confront the individual in the group saying that he has contributed to the class and doesn't have to apologize every time he speaks.
3. Counsel the individual in private.
4. Say that you feel bad that the individual feels as though he must apologize every time he speaks.
5. Let the group deal with the issue if it bothers them.
6. Research the individual's background to see why he feels inadequate. Then try to structure an activity that will allow him to shine as the expert.
7. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 14 - Group Norms

Situation

It is the afternoon of day four. You learned at lunch, from a member of your group, that another member has some very deep feelings about the agreed upon group norms. The first member relates that during lunch the second member expressed negative feelings about the self-governing rules that were established. Because of the generalities he is using, you suspect that the first member may really be having those feelings himself.

Question 1

Is the first member expressing a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Nothing.
2. Tell the group what you have heard, and let them deal with it.
3. Counsel him (in private) and see if he is really the disgruntled member. Determine if the second member does have problems, or if both of them have problems.
4. Ask him why he is attributing his feelings to other people.
5. While in the group ask him, "Is that a statement from the group, or is it personal?"
6. Wait until there is a group impact.
7. Other. Explain.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Situation 15 - Adam Ant

Situation

It is the third day. You have subdivided the group into two smaller groups and given them a problem-solving task that requires them to reach group consensus. Voting and majority decisions are forbidden by the rules of the exercise. One of the members, a productive participant up to this point, has suddenly become adamant about an issue that the rest of the group cannot agree to. The allotted time has expired, and the group containing the member is not anywhere near a consensus solution to the task.

Question 1

Has anyone exhibited a nonproductive behavior? If so, which one?

Question 2

What do you do?

1. Give them more time to reach consensus and solve the problem.
2. Change the rules, and allow voting and majority decisions.
3. Stop what they are doing, and proceed to the next lesson.
4. Conduct an after action review.
5. Process the activity, both what they did and how they did it.
6. Other. Explain.

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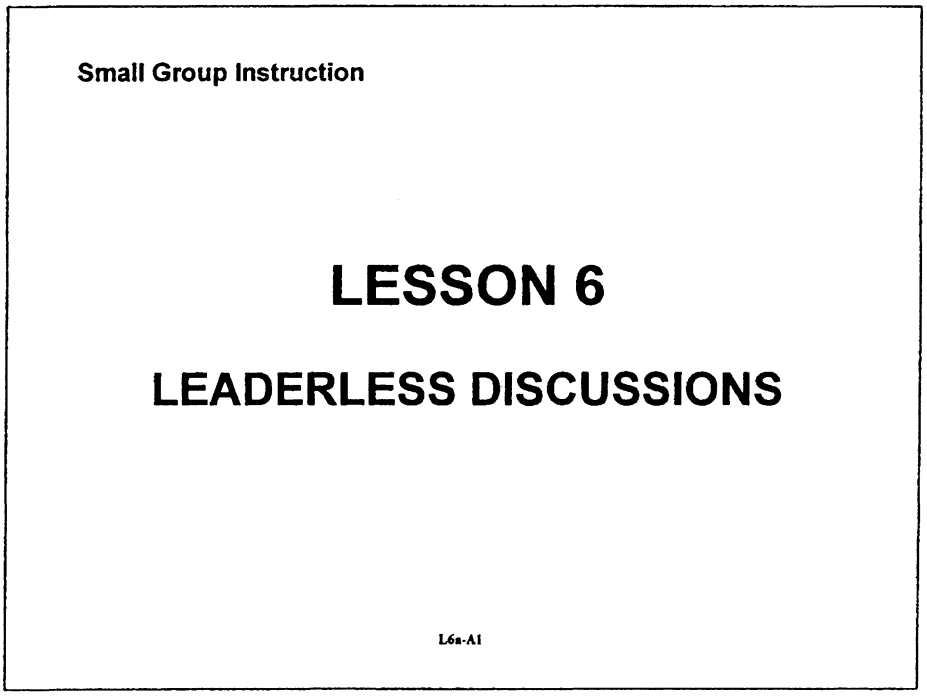

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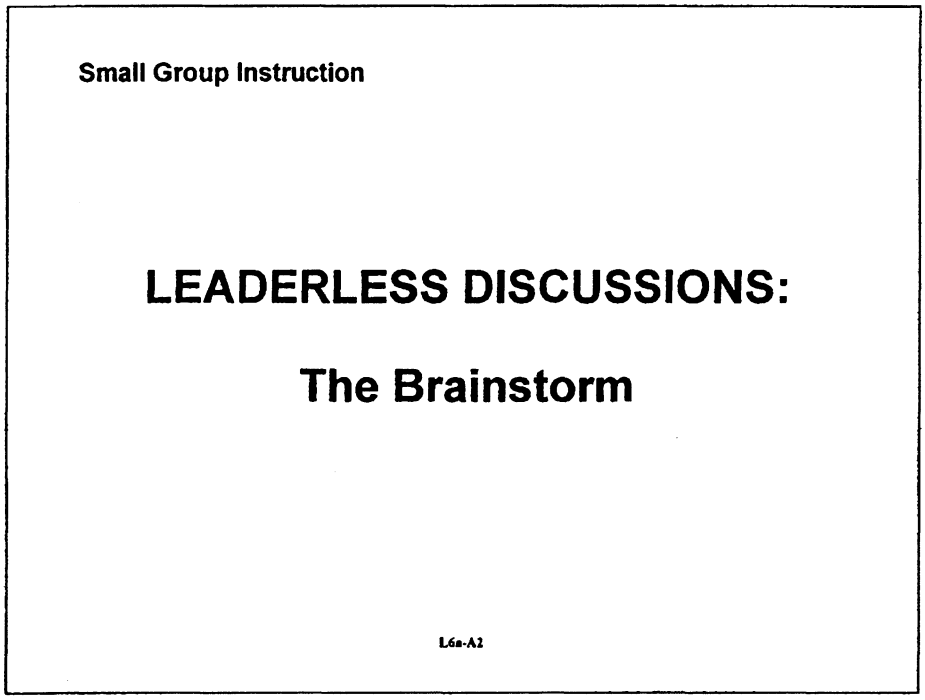

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TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

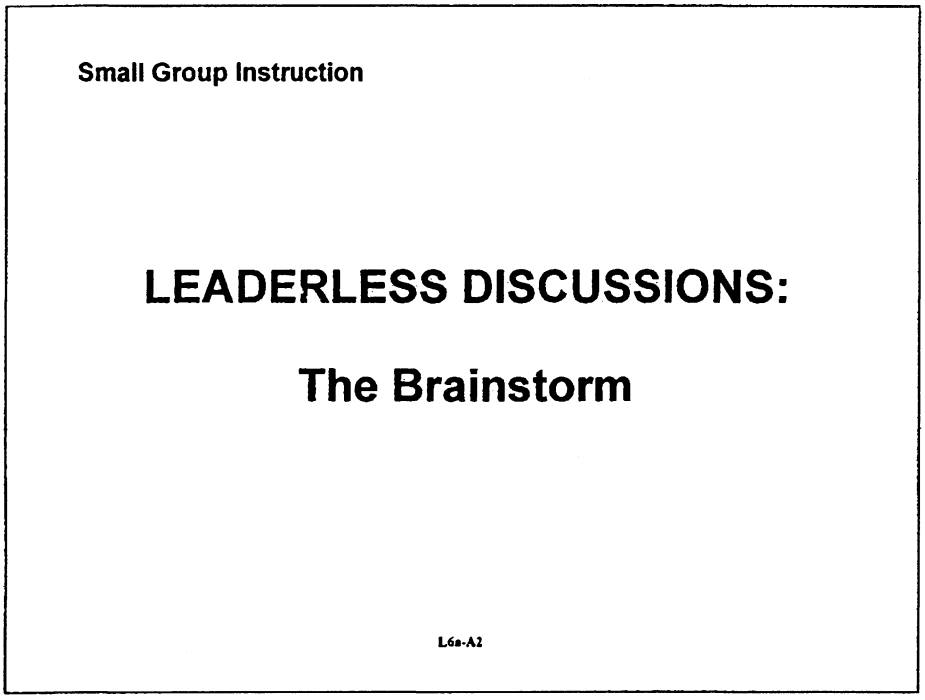
LESSON 6

LEADERLESS DISCUSSIONS

L6a-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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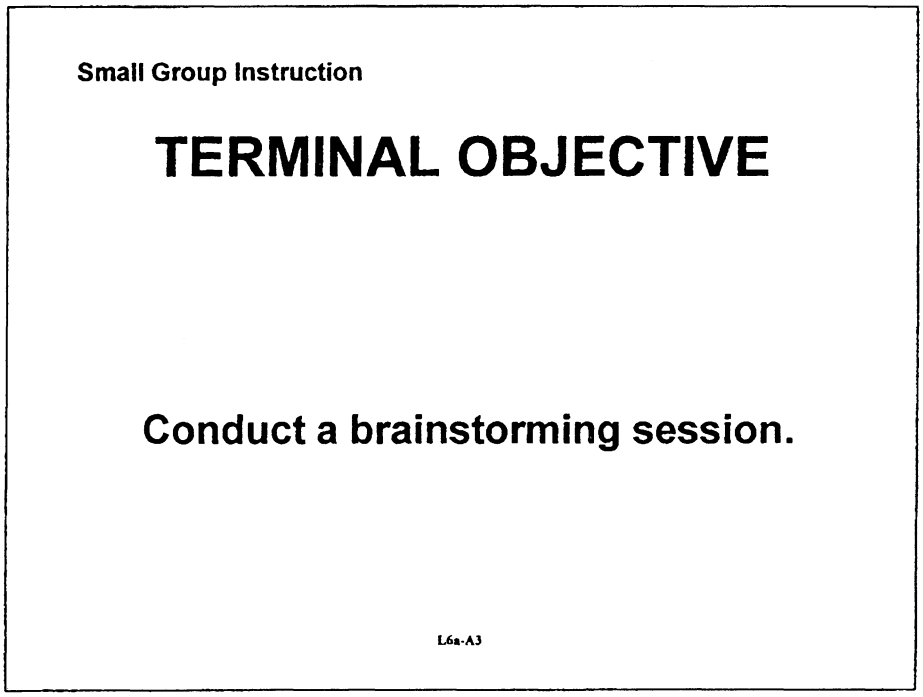

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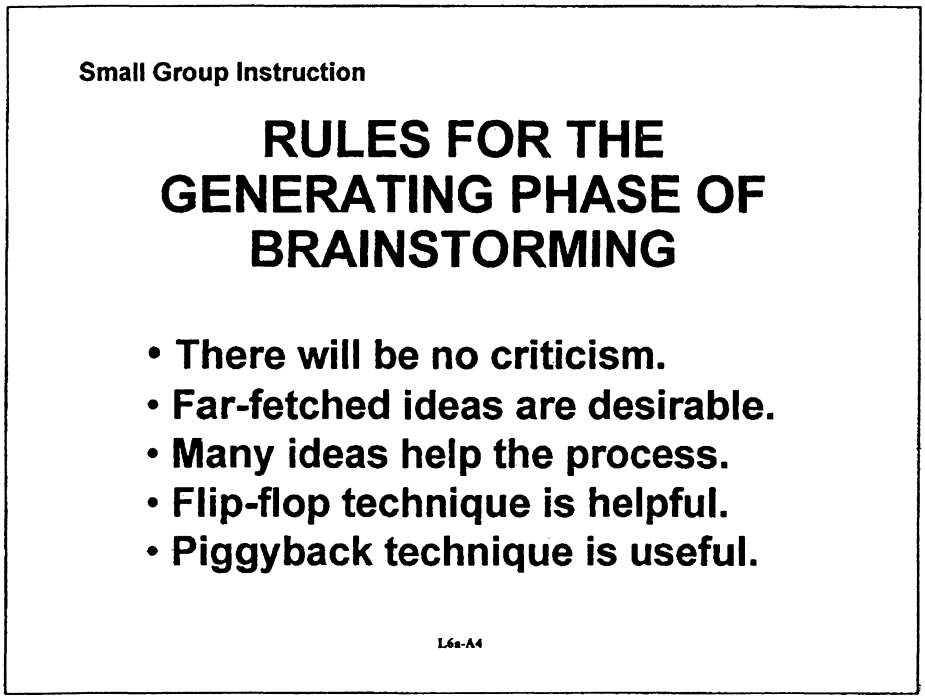

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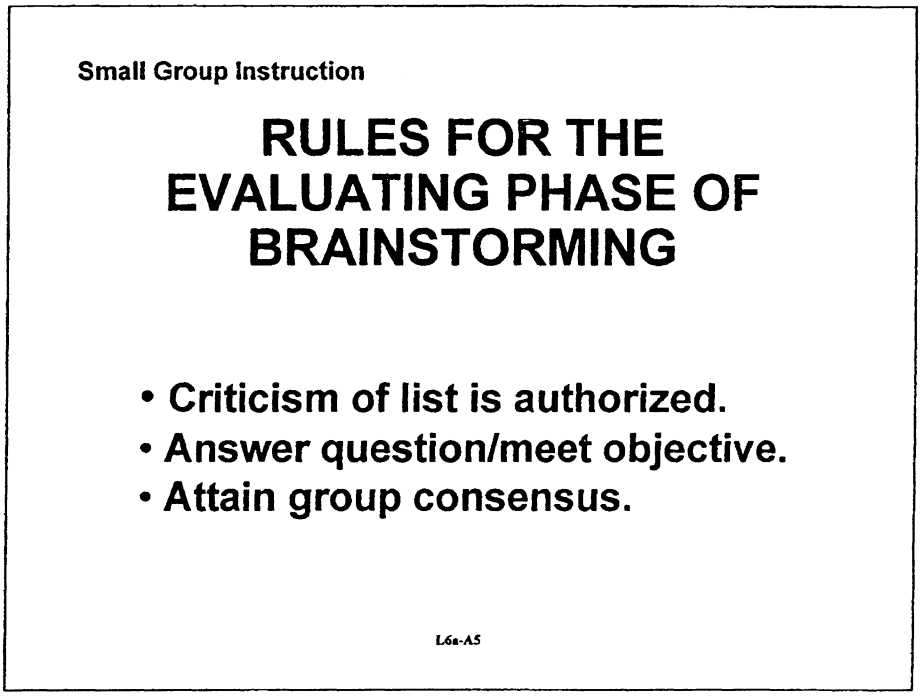

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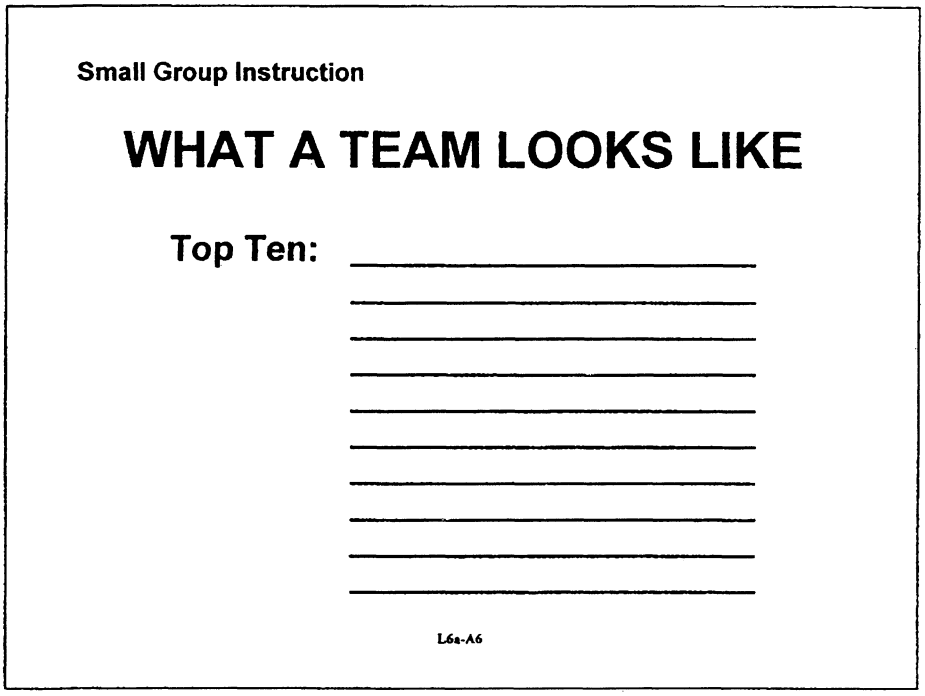

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TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

LESSON REVIEW

A Brainstorm:

- Generates creative solutions to problems
- Has two distinct phases
  - Generalizing
  - Evaluating

L6a-A7

NOTES

LESSON 6a

Student Handouts

STUDENT HANDOUT

Rules for the Generating Phase of Brainstorming

- No criticism of ideas during generation phase.
- Far-fetched ideas are helpful.
- Many ideas are desirable.
- Flip-flop technique is helpful.
- Piggyback technique is helpful.

STUDENT HANDOUT

Rules for the Evaluating Phase of Brainstorming

- Criticism of topic is authorized.
- Answer question/meet objective.
- Attain group consensus.

Performance Evaluation Checklist

Purpose

The PEC is used to assess the SDL and the small group during the SDL presentation of an SGI lesson and final exam.

Who uses this checklist

The following personnel use this checklist:

- Observing groups at the SDL site to rate the group and the SDL.
- SGL to rate the SDL and group performance.

How to use this checklist

a. Observing groups: Fill out one checklist for the group. Discuss your observations and come to consensus. Ensure your discussion does not disturb the SDL's presentation.

Look for positive and correctable SDL attributes and group dynamics. Try to link SDL roles, group process and content issues, and group dynamics to the success of the group meeting the training objective. Report out after the SDL reviews the ELC.

b. SGL: Fill out checklist based on your observations of group and SDL performance.

When to use this checklist

This checklist is used for student lesson presentations (lessons 6-10) and the final exam.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Student Discussion Leader Rating)

Student Name: _____ Date: _____

Evaluator: _____ Rating: _____

Instructions: Evaluate student delivered lessons (6-10) and the final examination with this checklist. Students must receive the number of "GOs" listed next to the evaluated section, i.e., Introduction, 3 "GOs" out of 4. Students must pass each section (Introduction, Body, Conclusion, and ELC) to pass the course. Circle a GO or NO GO for each element in a section and the corresponding rating for that section. Write student rating (a GO or NO GO) on the Rating line above.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
Introduction (3 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Focus group on task?	Go/ No Go	
Clearly state objective?	Go/ No Go	
Motivate/interest students?	Go/ No Go	
Tie SGI method to lesson objective?	Go/ No Go	
Lesson Body (3 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Display SGL roles: - SME? - Facilitator? - Observer?	Go/ No Go	
Involve all students?	Go/ No Go	
Display understanding of SGI method chosen?	Go/ No Go	
ELC (4 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Lead group in publishing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in processing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in generalizing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in applying stage?	Go/ No Go	
Conclusion (2 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Review lesson objective and SGI method relationship?	Go/ No Go	
Summarize lesson results?	Go/ No Go	
Achieve training objective?	Go/ No Go	

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Group)

Lesson: _____ Date: _____

SDL: _____ Evaluator: _____

Instructions: This checklist is used to evaluate group performance during student-led lessons (6-10). Observers within and outside the classroom use the checklist. The SGL uses this form to comment on group productivity and development.

Group criteria do not effect students' evaluation for graduation.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
During the lesson did:		
Group members interact with each other?	Yes / No	
All group members participate?	Yes / No	
Group work as a team?	Yes / No	
Group members provide feedback?	Yes / No	
Each student publish during the ELC?	Yes / No	
Group adheres to the group rules?	Yes / No	
SDL interventions help the group?	Yes / No	
The group focuses on the task?	Yes / No	
Group achieves the training objective?	Yes / No	

Additional Comments:

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

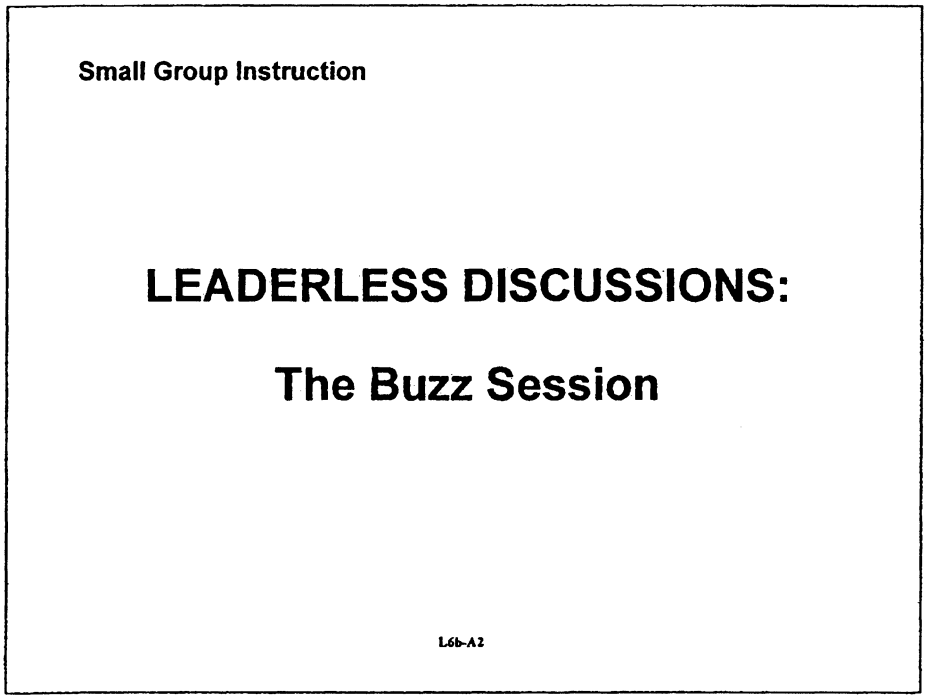
LESSON 6

LEADERLESS DISCUSSIONS

L6b-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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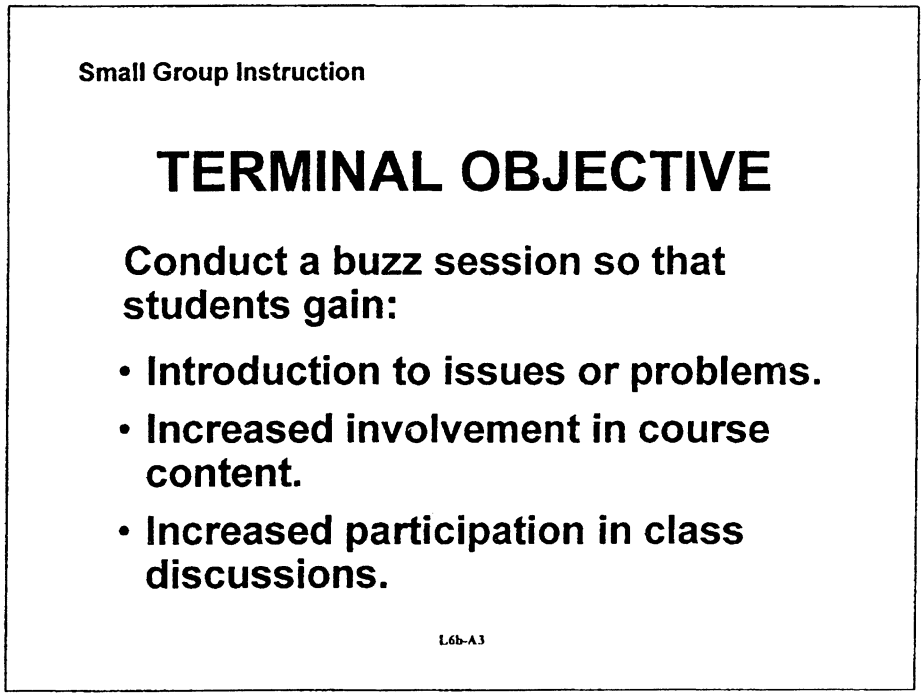

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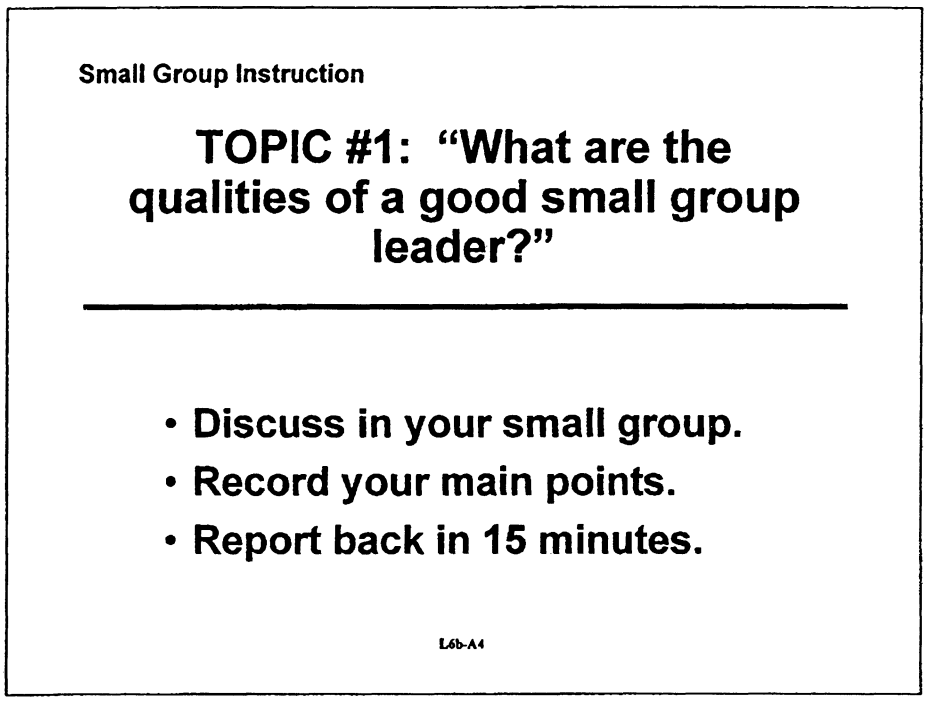

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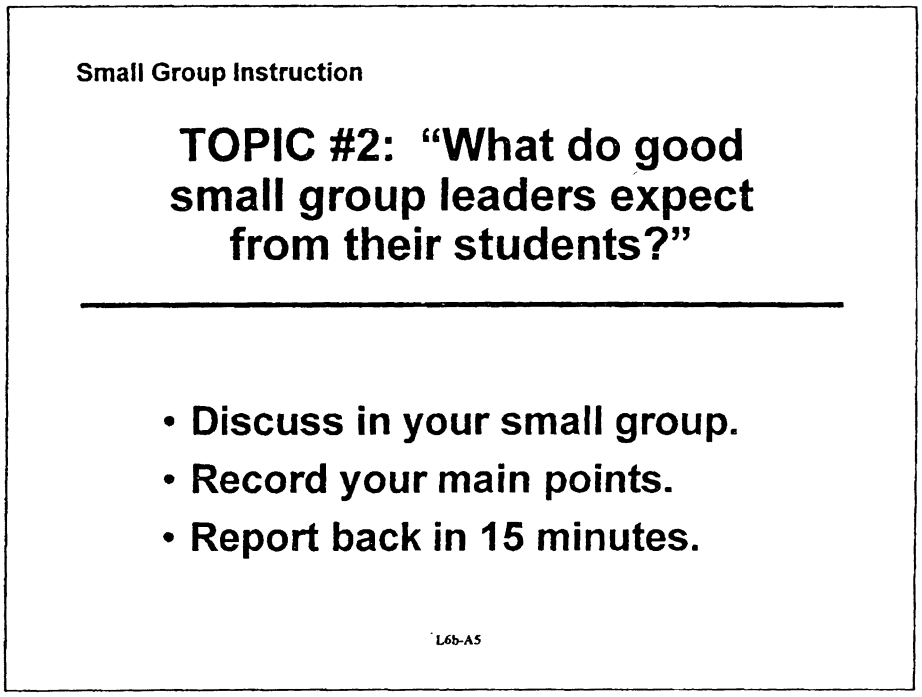

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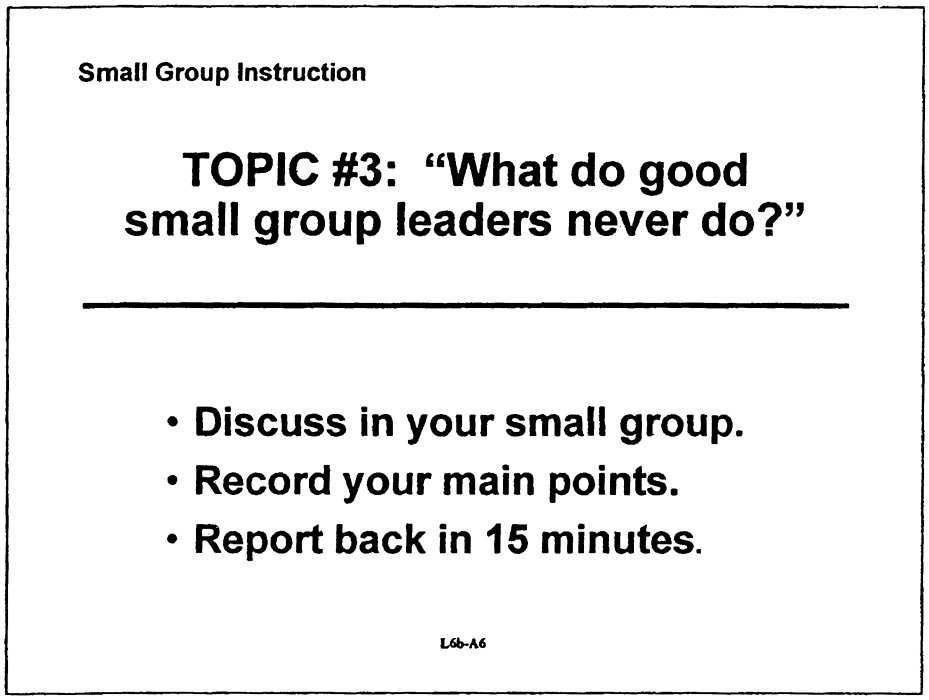

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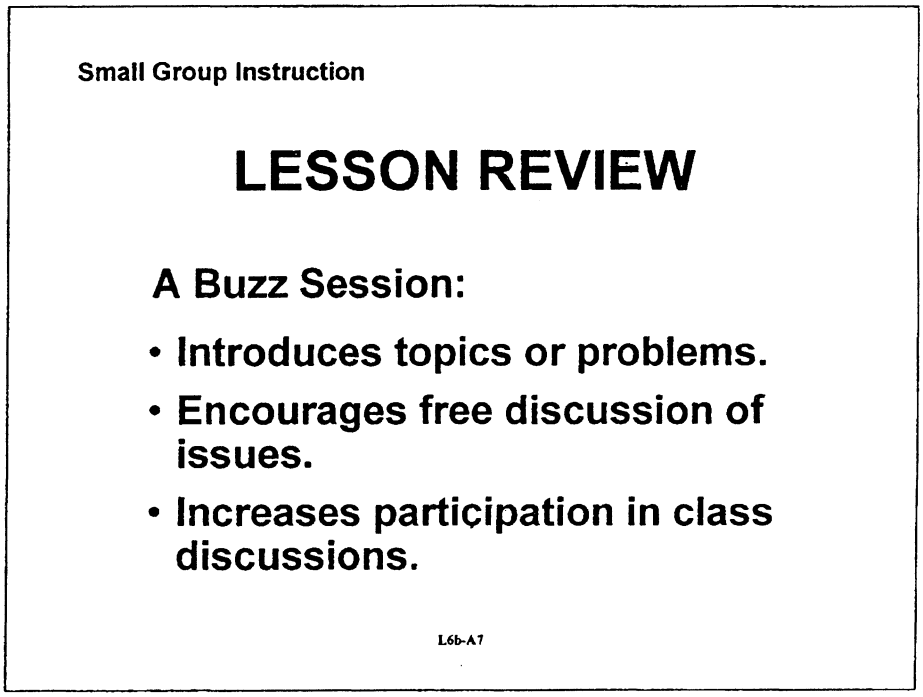

NOTES

LESSON 6b

Student Handout

Handout **Page**

Performance Evaluation Checklist

Purpose

The PEC is used to assess the SDL and the small group during the SDL presentation of an SGI lesson and final exam.

Who uses this checklist

The following personnel use this checklist:

- Observing groups at the SDL site to rate the group and the SDL.
- SGL to rate the SDL and group performance.

How to use this checklist

a. Observing groups: Fill out one checklist for the group. Discuss your observations and come to consensus. Ensure your discussion does not disturb the SDL's presentation.

Look for positive and correctable SDL attributes and group dynamics. Try to link SDL roles, group process and content issues, and group dynamics to the success of the group meeting the training objective. Report out after the SDL reviews the ELC.

b. SGL: Fill out checklist based on your observations of group and SDL performance.

When to use this checklist

This checklist is used for student lesson presentations (lessons 6-10) and the final exam.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Student Discussion Leader Rating)

Student Name: _____ Date: _____

Evaluator: _____ Rating: _____

Instructions: Evaluate student delivered lessons (6-10) and the final examination with this checklist. Students must receive the number of "GOs" listed next to the evaluated section, i.e., Introduction, 3 "GOs" out of 4. Students must pass each section (Introduction, Body, Conclusion, and ELC) to pass the course. Circle a GO or NO GO for each element in a section and the corresponding rating for that section. Write student rating (a GO or NO GO) on the Rating line above.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
Introduction (3 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Focus group on task?	Go/ No Go	
Clearly state objective?	Go/ No Go	
Motivate/interest students?	Go/ No Go	
Tie SGI method to lesson objective?	Go/ No Go	
Lesson Body (3 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Display SGL roles: - SME? - Facilitator? - Observer?	Go/ No Go	
Involve all students?	Go/ No Go	
Display understanding of SGI method chosen?	Go/ No Go	
ELC (4 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Lead group in publishing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in processing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in generalizing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in applying stage?	Go/ No Go	
Conclusion (2 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Review lesson objective and SGI method relationship?	Go/ No Go	
Summarize lesson results?	Go/ No Go	
Achieve training objective?	Go/ No Go	

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Group)

Lesson: _____ Date: _____

SDL: _____ Evaluator: _____

Instructions: This checklist is used to evaluate group performance during student-led lessons (6-10). Observers within and outside the classroom use the checklist. The SGL uses this form to comment on group productivity and development.

Group criteria do not effect students' evaluation for graduation.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
During the lesson did:		
Group members interact with each other?	Yes / No	
All group members participate?	Yes / No	
Group work as a team?	Yes / No	
Group members provide feedback?	Yes / No	
Each student publish during the ELC?	Yes / No	
Group adheres to the group rules?	Yes / No	
SDL interventions help the group?	Yes / No	
The group focuses on the task?	Yes / No	
Group achieves the training objective?	Yes / No	

Additional Comments:

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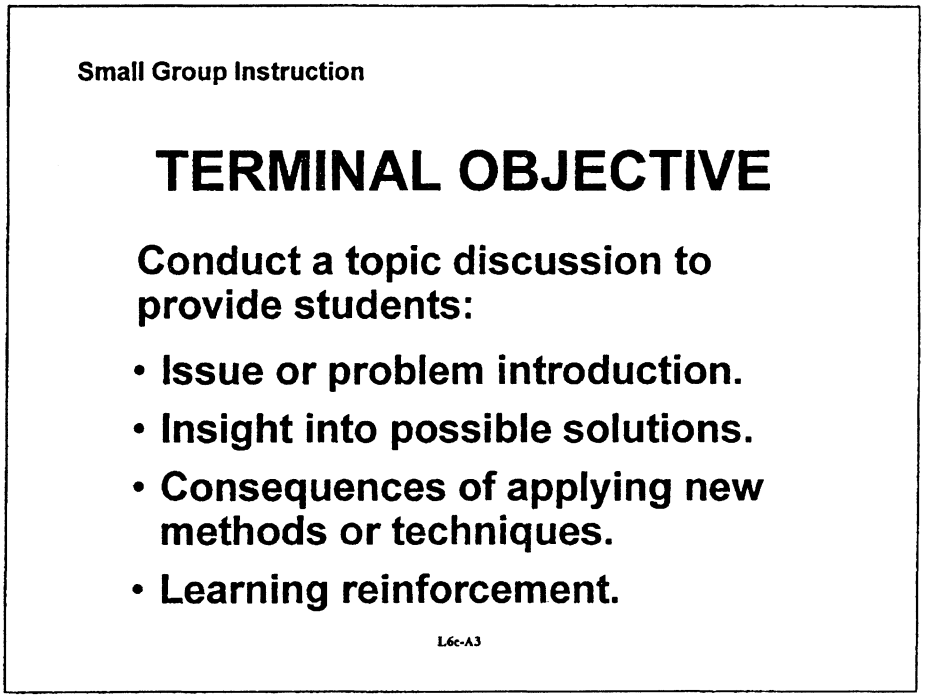

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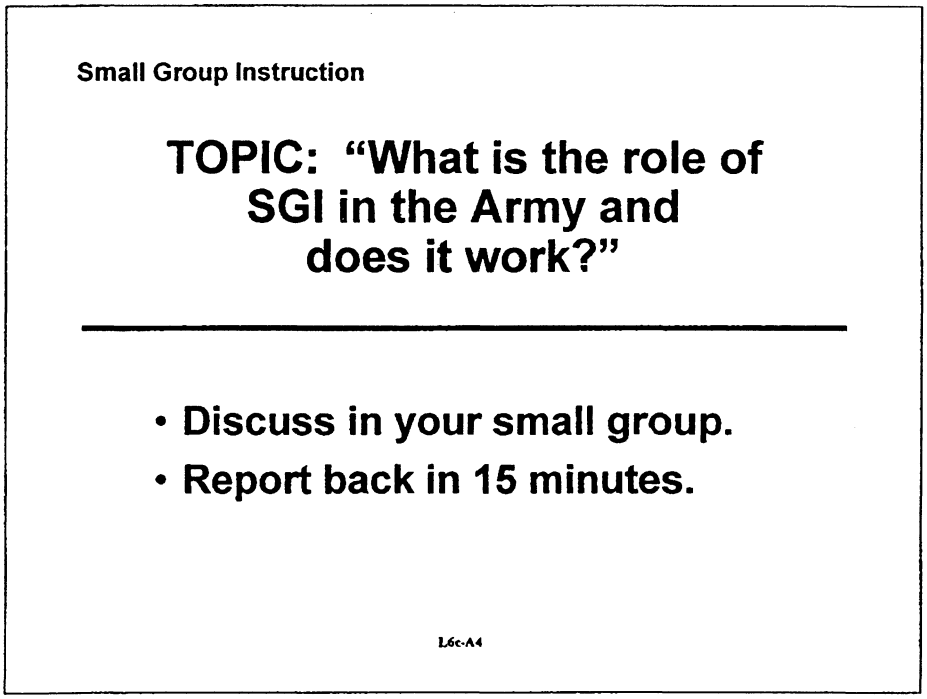

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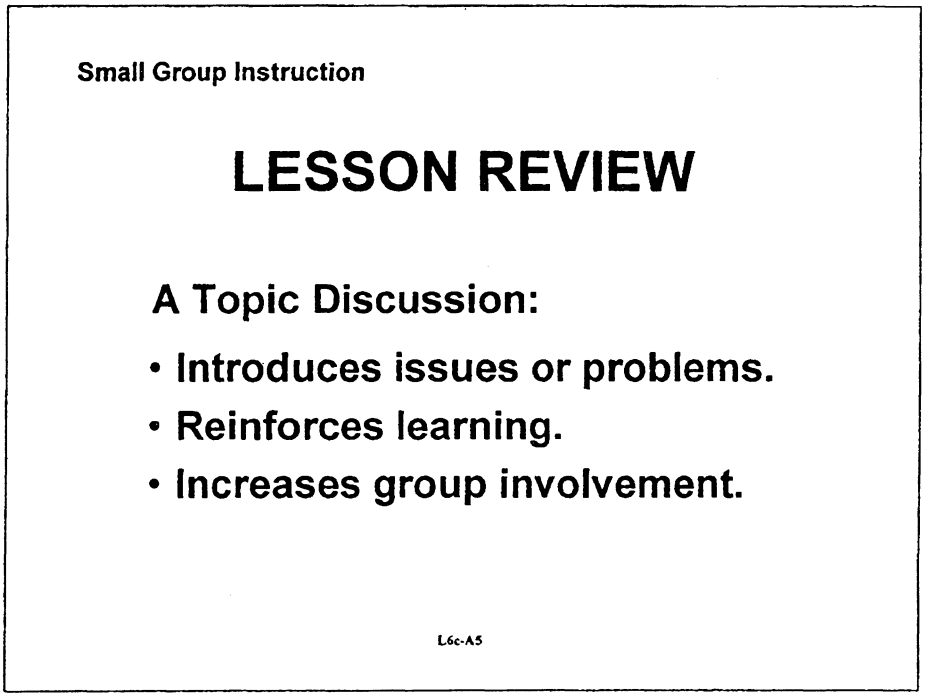


NOTES

LESSON 6c

Student Handout

Handout **Page**

Performance Evaluation Checklist

Purpose	The PEC is used to assess the SDL and the small group during the SDL presentation of an SGI lesson and final exam.
Who uses this checklist	The following personnel use this checklist: • Observing groups at the SDL site to rate the group and the SDL. • SGL to rate the SDL and group performance.
How to use this checklist	a. Observing groups: Fill out one checklist for the group. Discuss your observations and come to consensus. Ensure your discussion does not disturb the SDL's presentation. Look for positive and correctable SDL attributes and group dynamics. Try to link SDL roles, group process and content issues, and group dynamics to the success of the group meeting the training objective. Report out after the SDL reviews the ELC. b. SGL: Fill out checklist based on your observations of group and SDL performance.
When to use this checklist	This checklist is used for student lesson presentations (lessons 6-10) and the final exam.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Student Discussion Leader Rating)

Student Name: _____ Date: _____

Evaluator: _____ Rating: _____

Instructions: Evaluate student delivered lessons (6-10) and the final examination with this checklist. Students must receive the number of "GOs" listed next to the evaluated section, i.e., Introduction, 3 "GOs" out of 4. Students must pass each section (Introduction, Body, Conclusion, and ELC) to pass the course. Circle a GO or NO GO for each element in a section and the corresponding rating for that section. Write student rating (a GO or NO GO) on the Rating line above.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
Introduction (3 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Focus group on task?	Go/ No Go	
Clearly state objective?	Go/ No Go	
Motivate/interest students?	Go/ No Go	
Tie SGI method to lesson objective?	Go/ No Go	
Lesson Body (3 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Display SGL roles: - SME? - Facilitator? - Observer?	Go/ No Go	
Involve all students?	Go/ No Go	
Display understanding of SGI method chosen?	Go/ No Go	
ELC (4 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Lead group in publishing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in processing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in generalizing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in applying stage?	Go/ No Go	
Conclusion (2 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Review lesson objective and SGI method relationship?	Go/ No Go	
Summarize lesson results?	Go/ No Go	
Achieve training objective?	Go/ No Go	

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Group)

Lesson: _____ Date: _____

SDL: _____ Evaluator: _____

Instructions: This checklist is used to evaluate group performance during student-led lessons (6-10). Observers within and outside the classroom use the checklist. The SGL uses this form to comment on group productivity and development.

Group criteria do not effect students' evaluation for graduation.

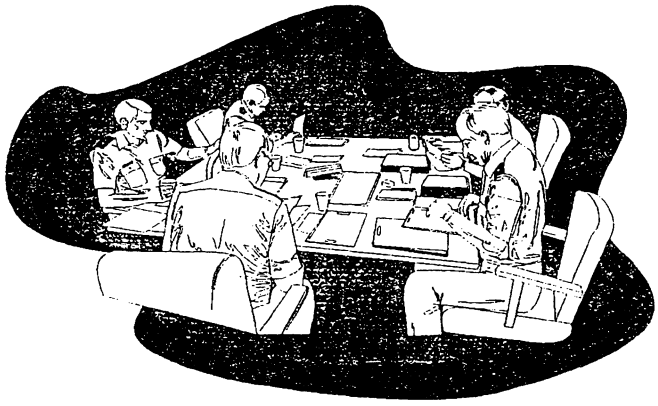
TOPIC		COMMENTS
During the lesson did:		
Group members interact with each other?	Yes / No	
All group members participate?	Yes / No	
Group work as a team?	Yes / No	
Group members provide feedback?	Yes / No	
Each student publish during the ELC?	Yes / No	
Group adheres to the group rules?	Yes / No	
SDL interventions help the group?	Yes / No	
The group focuses on the task?	Yes / No	
Group achieves the training objective?	Yes / No	

Additional Comments:

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

LESSON 7



THE CONFERENCE

L7-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

TERMINAL OBJECTIVE

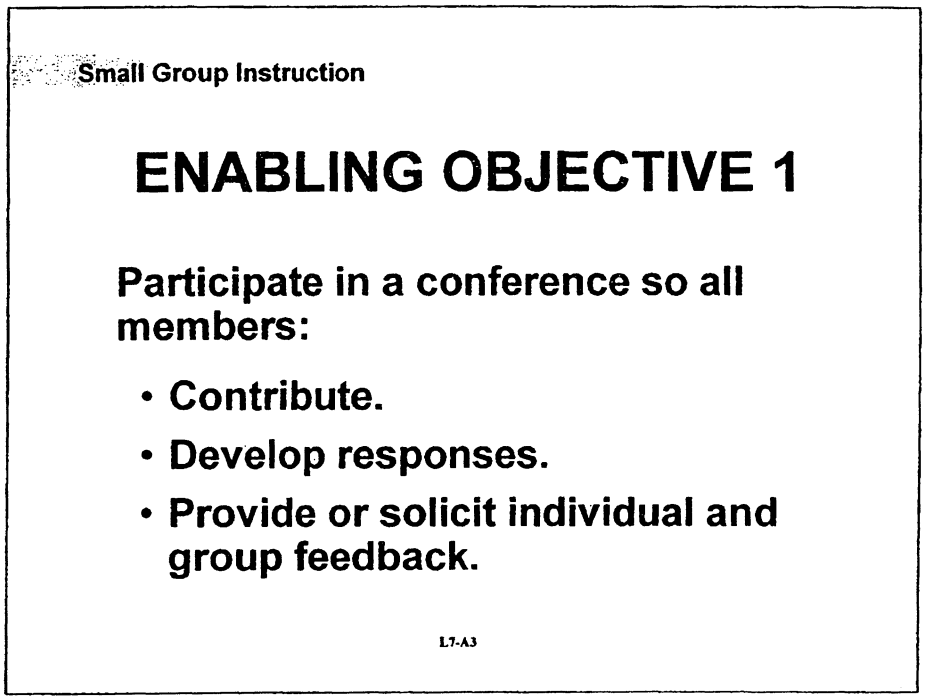
Direct a conference so that participants gain:

- **Insight into conference techniques.**
- **Synergy through consensus.**
- **Positive attitudes toward course content and its uses.**

L7-A2

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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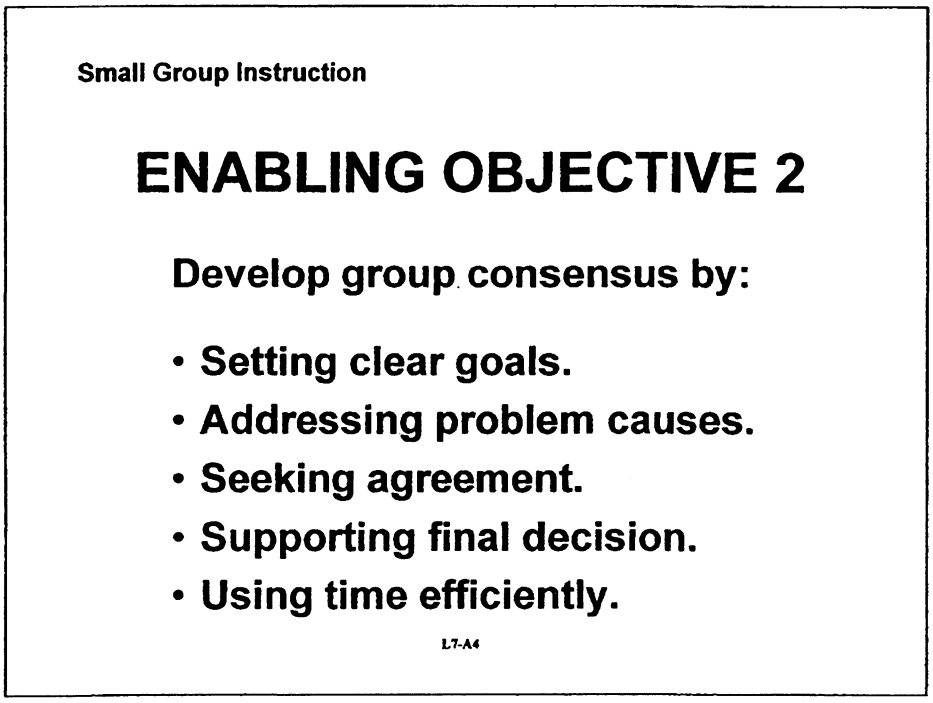

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TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

LESSON REVIEW

Direct a conference so that participants gain:

- **Insight into conference techniques.**
- **Synergy through consensus.**
- **Positive attitudes toward course content and its uses.**

L7-A5

NOTES

LESSON 7

Student Handout

Performance Evaluation Checklist

Purpose

The PEC is used to assess the SDL and the small group during the SDL presentation of an SGI lesson and final exam.

Who uses this checklist

The following personnel use this checklist:

- Observing groups at the SDL site to rate the group and the SDL.
- SGL to rate the SDL and group performance.

How to use this checklist

a. Observing groups: Fill out one checklist for the group. Discuss your observations and come to consensus. Ensure your discussion does not disturb the SDL's presentation.

Look for positive and correctable SDL attributes and group dynamics. Try to link SDL roles, group process and content issues, and group dynamics to the success of the group meeting the training objective. Report out after the SDL reviews the ELC.

b. SGL: Fill out checklist based on your observations of group and SDL performance.

When to use this checklist

This checklist is used for student lesson presentations (lessons 6-10) and the final exam.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Student Discussion Leader Rating)

Student Name: _____ Date: _____

Evaluator: _____ Rating: _____

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TOPIC		COMMENTS
Introduction (3 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Focus group on task?	Go/ No Go	
Clearly state objective?	Go/ No Go	
Motivate/interest students?	Go/ No Go	
Tie SGI method to lesson objective?	Go/ No Go	
Lesson Body (3 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Display SGL roles: - SME? - Facilitator? - Observer?	Go/ No Go	
Involve all students?	Go/ No Go	
Display understanding of SGI method chosen?	Go/ No Go	
ELC (4 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Lead group in publishing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in processing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in generalizing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in applying stage?	Go/ No Go	
Conclusion (2 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Review lesson objective and SGI method relationship?	Go/ No Go	
Summarize lesson results?	Go/ No Go	
Achieve training objective?	Go/ No Go	

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Group)

Lesson: _____ Date: _____

SDL: _____ Evaluator: _____

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Group criteria do not effect students' evaluation for graduation.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
During the lesson did:		
Group members interact with each other?	Yes / No	
All group members participate?	Yes / No	
Group work as a team?	Yes / No	
Group members provide feedback?	Yes / No	
Each student publish during the ELC?	Yes / No	
Group adheres to the group rules?	Yes / No	
SDL interventions help the group?	Yes / No	
The group focuses on the task?	Yes / No	
Group achieves the training objective?	Yes / No	

Additional Comments:

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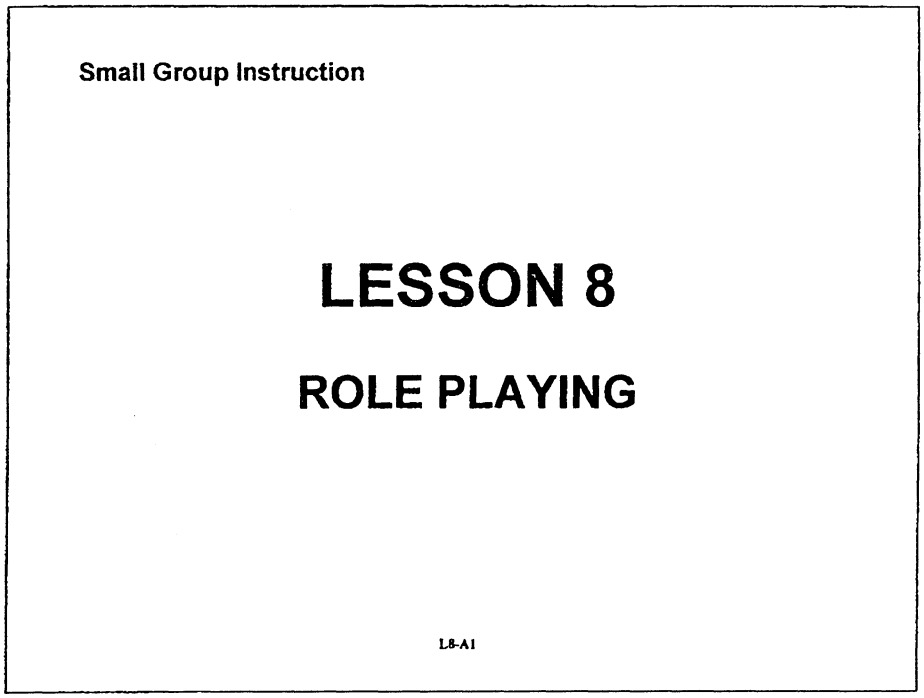

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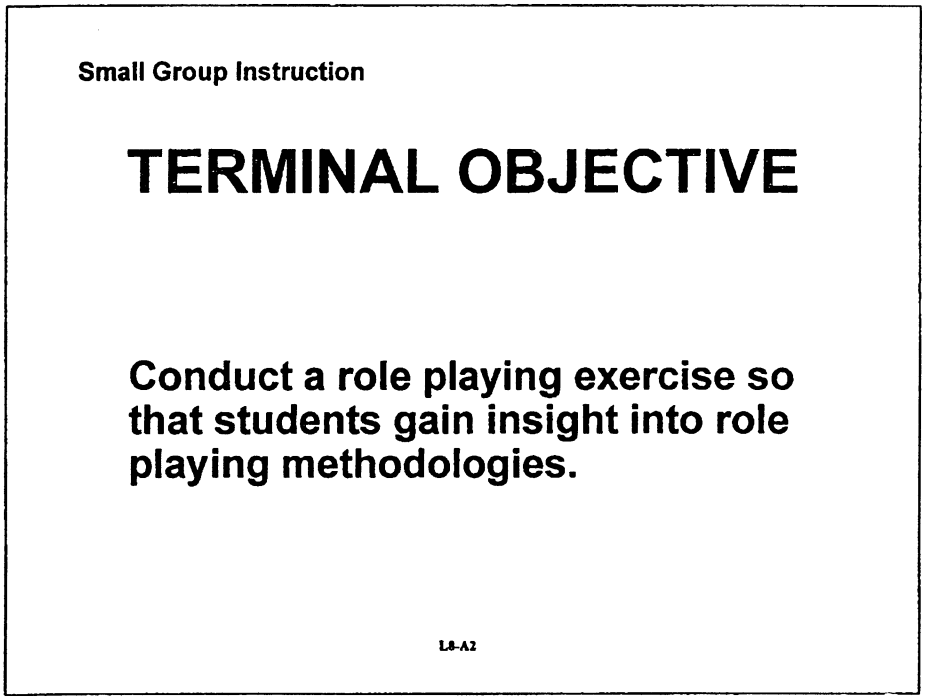

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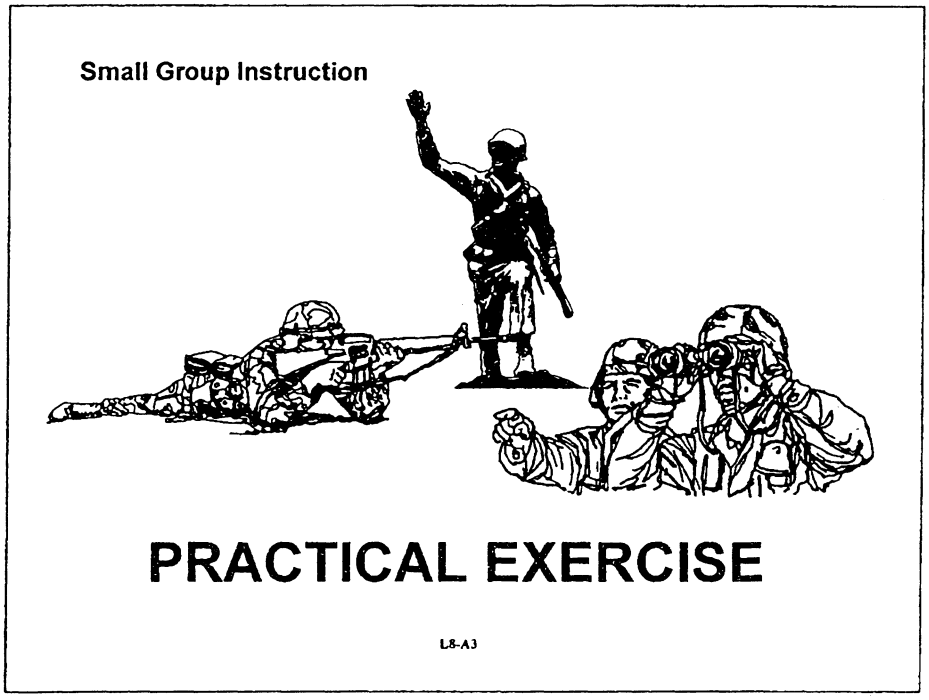

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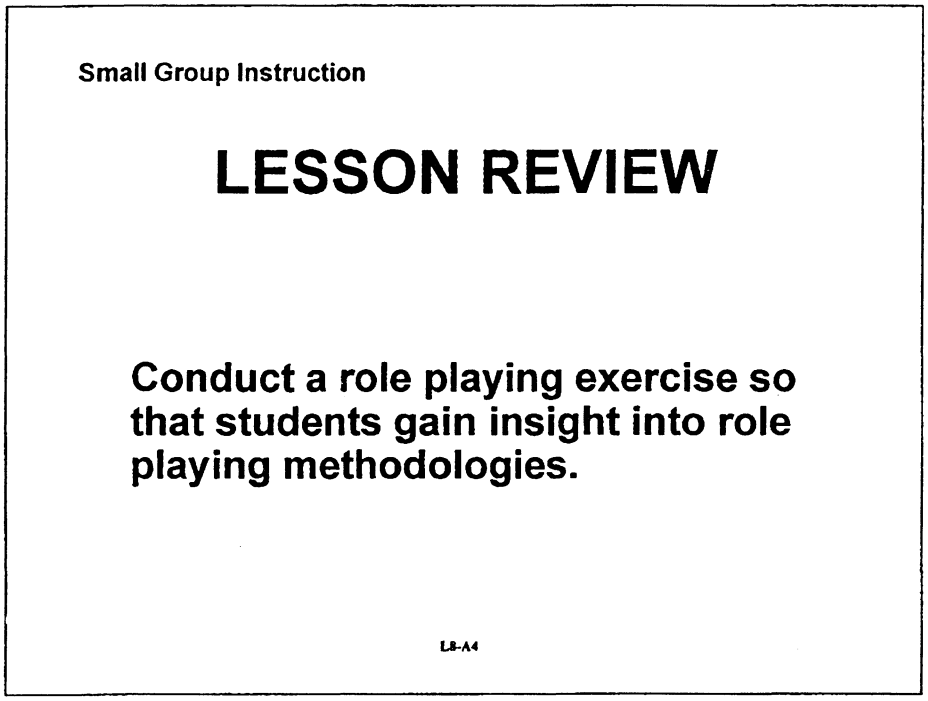

NOTES

LESSON 8

Student Handouts and Exercises

The Situation

Situation

Widgex Systems has been a family-owned manufacturing company since 1945. Widgex supports a small southeastern community by providing assembly line and management jobs. The company prides itself on a high-quality widget. They attribute the consistently good product to the fair treatment of clients and employees, generous wages, and substantial employee benefits. Widgex purchases all of its raw materials within the United States and sells to small construction companies throughout the Southeast. In the last 53 years, the only real changes made in the assembly of the widgets have been machine upgrades, equipment replacements, and safety improvements.

The dilemma

For the last 5 years, the profit margin at Widgex has steadily dropped. Because of robotics and fewer trade barriers, it is now possible to obtain high-quality widgets at a reduced price including custom upgrades. Updating production methods and broadening the customer base appears to contradict the traditional company values that built its reputation and success.

The mission

There is a meeting of the Board to discuss the falling profit margin and company direction. Each of you must make your point of view known to the other members of the board. Everyone gets 2 minutes to state his or her case. Then the CEO opens the door floor discussion. At the end of 10-15 minutes, the CEO will make his announcements.

The players

The board members are:

Robert Heartly, the President/CEO, and patriarch of the family.

Albright Heartly, Vice President of Sales and oldest son of the family. He has been in charge of sales for about 7 years. His first year as Sales VP was a record year for Widgex. Albright is involved politically in the community.

Emanuel Balancer, Vice President of Operations. He has held the job for 20 years.

Pace Heartly, Vice President of Marketing. This is her second year on the job. She just graduated with honors from a well-respected business college in the Northeast.

Victor Hernandez, Plant Foreman. A naturalized citizen from Mexico, with the company for 2 years. Victor has 2 brothers who run a widget plant in Mexico.

Betty Winslow, Chief Accountant. Long time employee and high school girlfriend of Robert, the CEO. Very conservative financial officer, to the extreme.

Observer's Worksheet

Your role

You are to observe the role playing exercise. Evaluate each role player using the worksheet below. Develop a consensus on what Widgex Corporation should do.

1. CEO's strategy, effectiveness, strong and weak points.
2. VP Sales strategy, effectiveness, strong and weak points.
3. VP of Operations strategy, effectiveness, strong and weak points.
4. Plant Foreman strategy, effectiveness, strong and weak points.
5. VP Marketing strategy, effectiveness, strong and weak points.
6. Chief Accountant strategy, effectiveness, strong and weak points.

Performance Evaluation Checklist

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When to use this checklist	This checklist is used for student lesson presentations (lessons 6-10) and the final exam.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Student Discussion Leader Rating)

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Evaluator: _____ Rating: _____

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PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Group)

Lesson: _____ Date: _____

SDL: _____ Evaluator: _____

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Group criteria do not effect students' evaluation for graduation.

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During the lesson did:		
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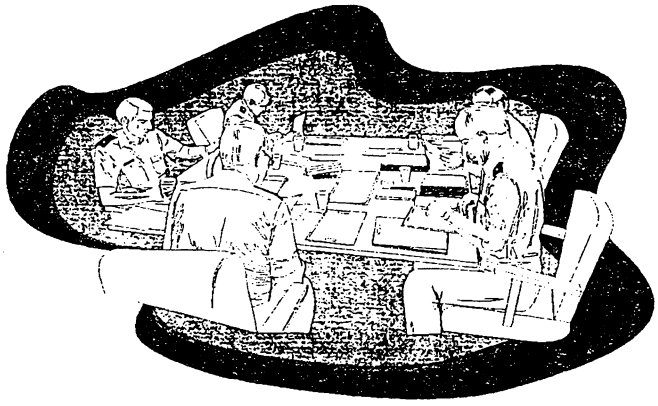
Group adheres to the group rules?	Yes / No	
SDL interventions help the group?	Yes / No	
The group focuses on the task?	Yes / No	
Group achieves the training objective?	Yes / No	

Additional Comments:

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

LESSON 9



COMMITTEE PROBLEM SOLVING

L9-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

TERMINAL OBJECTIVE

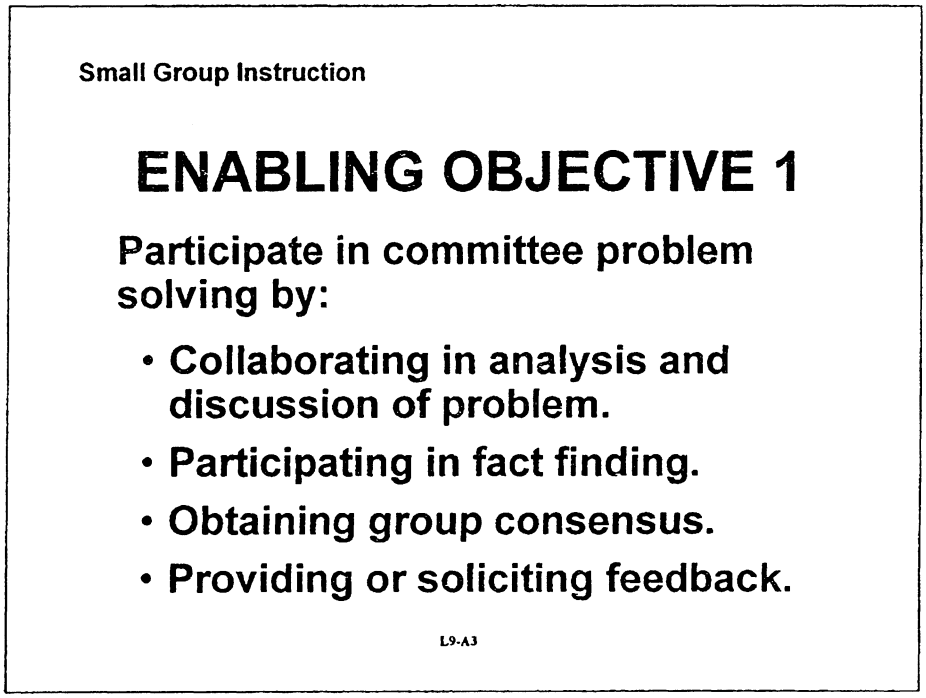
Conduct a committee problem solving session to increase students':

- **Insight into committee problem solving techniques.**
- **Knowledge of issues, problems, or topics supported by committee problem solving.**

L9-A2

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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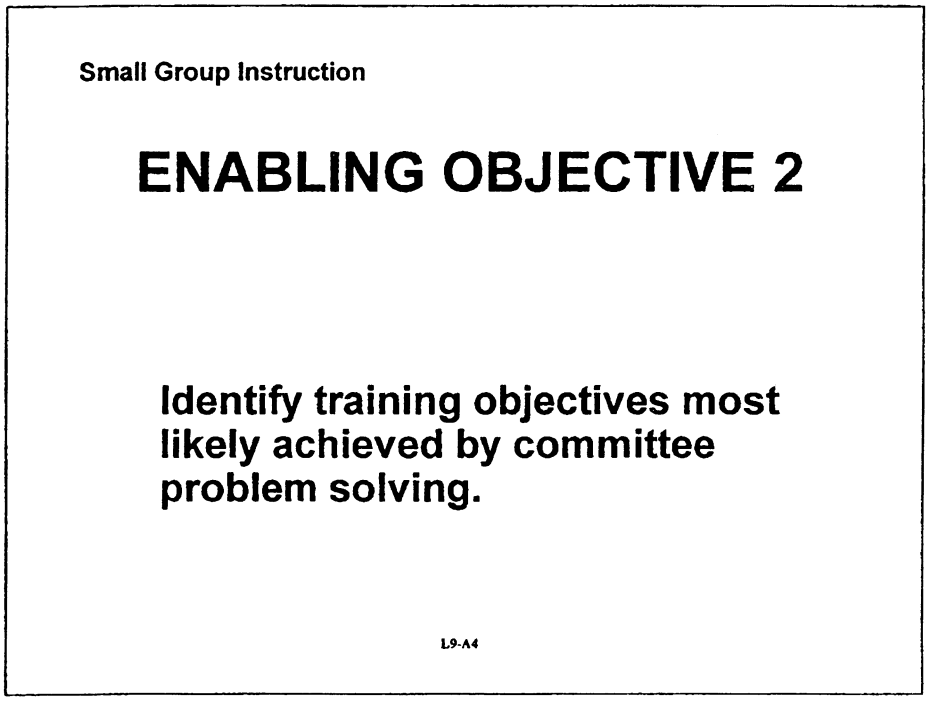

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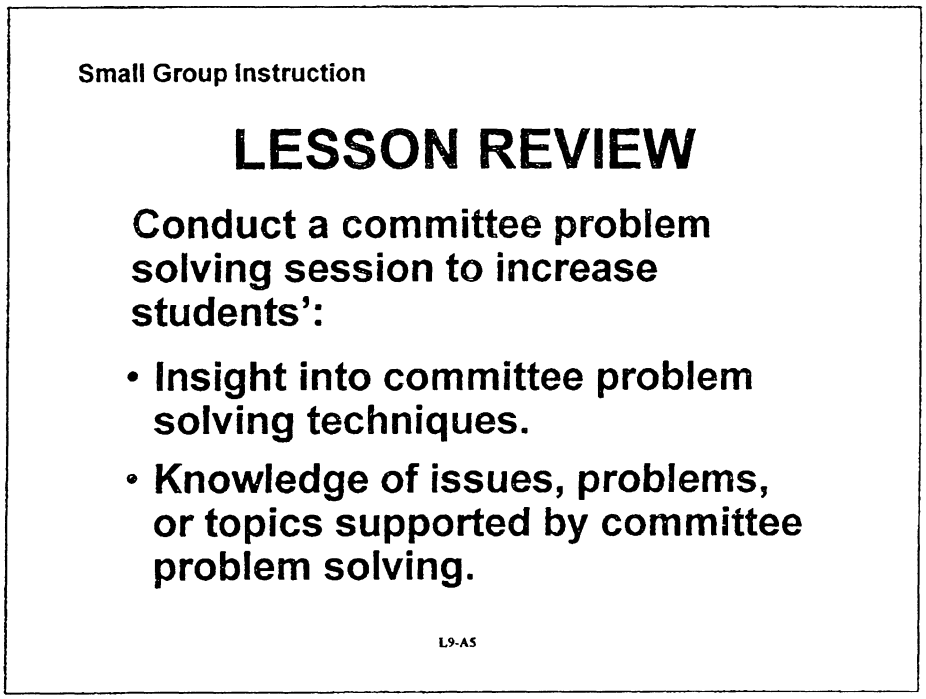

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LESSON 9

Student Handouts and Exercises

Committee Problem Solving -- Training Development Exercise

Source

This exercise was adapted from Pfeiffer, J. William, and Jones, John E., Ed. A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training. Pfeiffer and Co. (San Diego, CA: 1973).

Situation

The new equipment will arrive at the school soon. The commandant wants more hands-on training in the courses. The director wants a plan to implement the commandant's desires. The analysis branch was tasked to review the training requirements. The new equipment training team was notified.

Requirement

After reading the situation, reach a consensus within your small group on whether each of the statements is true (T), false (F), or unknown (?).

Statement	T	F	?
1. The plan must be finished before the equipment arrives.			
2. The training requirements are for the new equipment.			
3. The director wants a new equipment training plan.			
4. The director tasked the analysis branch.			
5. No one is reviewing the new equipment's training requirements.			
6. New equipment is scheduled to arrive at the school.			
7. The new equipment trainers will develop the plan after the analysis branch finishes.			
8. New equipment training trains the new equipment now.			
9. The revised training is for the new equipment.			
10. The following are true: the commandant wants more hands-on new equipment training and the director wants an implementation plan.			

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Clearly state objective?	Go/ No Go	
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Lesson Body (3 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Display SGL roles: - SME? - Facilitator? - Observer?	Go/ No Go	
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PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Group)

Lesson: _____ Date: _____

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TOPIC		COMMENTS
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Group work as a team?	Yes / No	
Group members provide feedback?	Yes / No	
Each student publish during the ELC?	Yes / No	
Group adheres to the group rules?	Yes / No	
SDL interventions help the group?	Yes / No	
The group focuses on the task?	Yes / No	
Group achieves the training objective?	Yes / No	

Additional Comments:

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

LESSON 10

CASE STUDIES

L10a-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

CASE STUDIES:

Abbreviated Printed

L10a-A2

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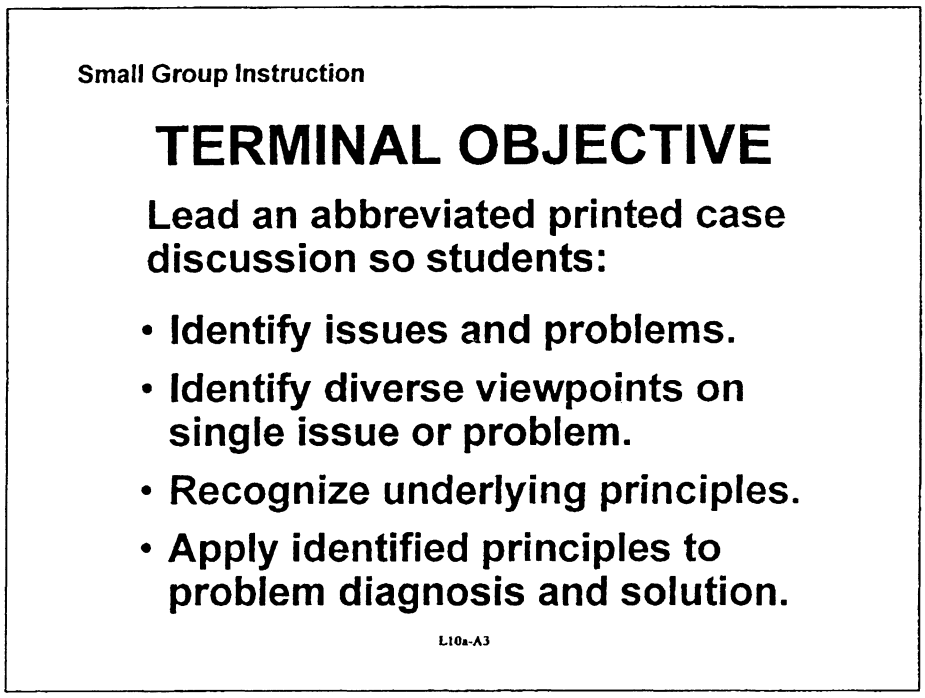

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TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

ENABLING OBJECTIVE 1

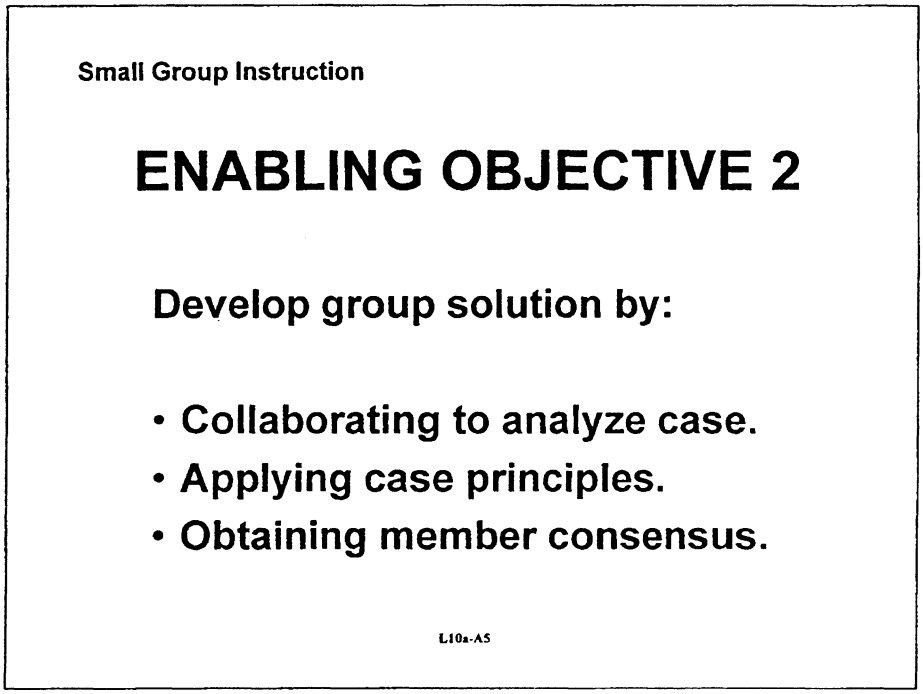
Participate in an abbreviated printed case discussion by:

- **Identifying issues and problems.**
- **Identifying underlying principles.**
- **Participating in case analysis and discussion.**
- **Developing possible solutions.**
- **Providing or soliciting feedback.**

L10a-A4

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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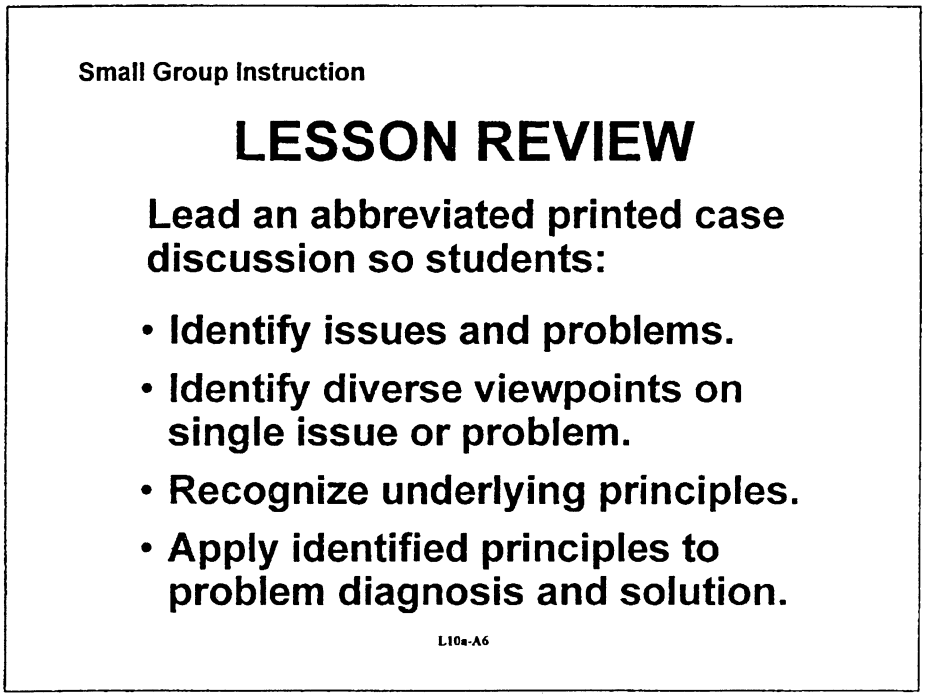

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LESSON 10a

Student Handouts and Exercises

Basic Training Instructions: Group Discussion

Instructions

Break into small groups. Read the case and discuss the following issues. Be prepared to present your rationale for your group answers.

1. What should the squad leader do?
2. What should the drill sergeant do?
3. What should the squad members do?
4. What type of leadership should be used by each?
5. Discuss the type of interventions that could be used, and when they should be used.
6. Compare the situation to SGI.

Note to instructor

There are no specific answers to this exercise. The learning objective from this exercise is to consider and compare group development and intervention techniques in the reading to those of group development in SGI. Additional answers may reference:

- Group cohesion.
- Group influence.
- Group focus.

Basic Training Reading

Situation

A group of young men from the Northeast arrived at a reception center to start basic training. They were nervous and unsure of what was going to happen to them. They had heard stories of mean Drill Sergeants, gas chambers, and bad food. They also heard of having to crawl in mud and water through barbed wire while machine guns were being fired. They were a little intimidated.

As they began to process in, several trainees began to become friends. Some discovered that they were from the same hometown or liked a particular type of music or had other similar interests. These relationships began to grow as most of the men were assigned to the same company, and ultimately, the same platoon.

After in processing, the fun started fast and furiously. It was the middle of the first night when all were called to attention in front of the barracks in full gear. Everyone wondered what was going on. Apparently, someone in another platoon had lost something of value and the search was on to find it. It did not turn up. So everyone ran around in formation screaming silly things and holding their hands over their heads as they ran along. When they stopped running it was time for breakfast.

The second and third days were equally pleasant. They missed lunch on the second day because one of the trainees could not hit the target with his rifle. One of the squad members told the trainee to throw the bullet at it so everyone could go to lunch. The trainee did, and soon everyone was down range looking for the bullet. Bye-bye lunch. The third day started with a fire-drill at zero-dark-thirty and ended with a real fire in the dining facility.

The trainees were still nervous and curious about the rest of the training, but there wasn't any time to devote to these feelings; too much was going on. They knew, however, that there was an exercise coming up that everyone was talking about, and it seemed very important. Something about night-fire and barbed wire.

As the days grew longer and the training more intense, several members of one of the squads became disenchanted with their situation. They began to complain and become uncooperative. They did not pay attention in class and did a minimum of physical training to get by. They found that they could slack-off a little and have the rest of the squad make up the difference. It annoyed some, but time was precious and the other squad members had their hands full doing their own jobs.

Continued on next page

Basic Training Reading, Continued

The training continued as basic training will, and the unhappy trainees' attitudes and performance became apparent to the squad leader and the drill sergeant. However, no one spoke to the few malcontents, and the situation continued. Oh, there were a few squad members who would make small talk about the lack of teamwork from everyone or that the lack of effort by some was making everyone else work harder. But there was no change in behavior.

The squad leader was concerned because he knew that an upcoming exercise was required the squad to function like a well-oiled machine. Currently, it needed a tune-up. The squad leader had a problem.

The drill sergeant for the squad was in the PX barber shop the weekend before the night fire exercise. As he was sitting in the barber's chair, a drill sergeant from another platoon came up to him and mentioned that the exercise was coming up. He said his squads could beat any other squads at any game, at any time. He went on to mention that he had noticed some slackers around, and, though he did not want to mention any names, he might be looking at someone who had some "problems" with his troops. On his way out, he wished the drill luck; he thought he was going to need it.

While getting his hair cut, the drill sergeant reviewed in his mind the past performance of his squads. He was well aware of each man's capabilities and knew how each man and squad keyed off of the talent and teamwork of the other. He knew that one of his squads was not working to its potential. He also knew that he did not need any "luck" to beat another platoon, squad by squad. No one was going to put his unit down. It was the third week of training, and the drill sergeant had a problem.

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Additional Comments:

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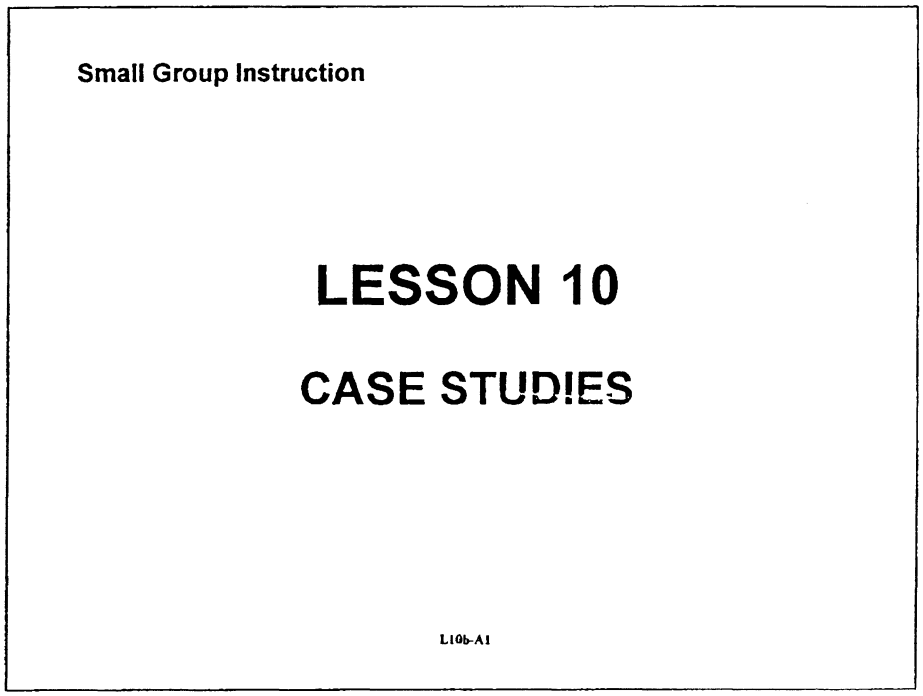

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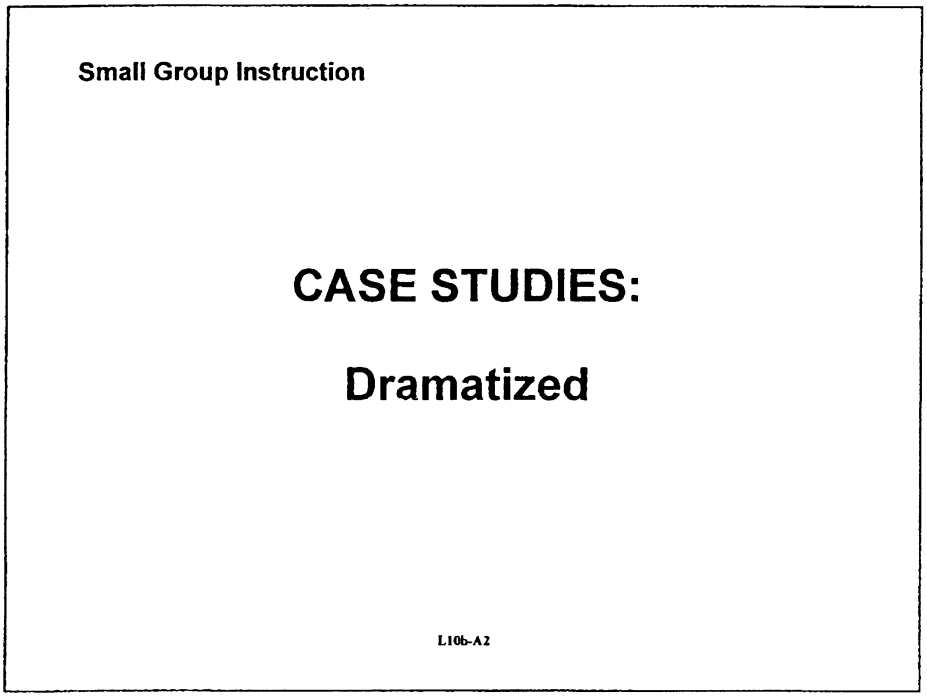

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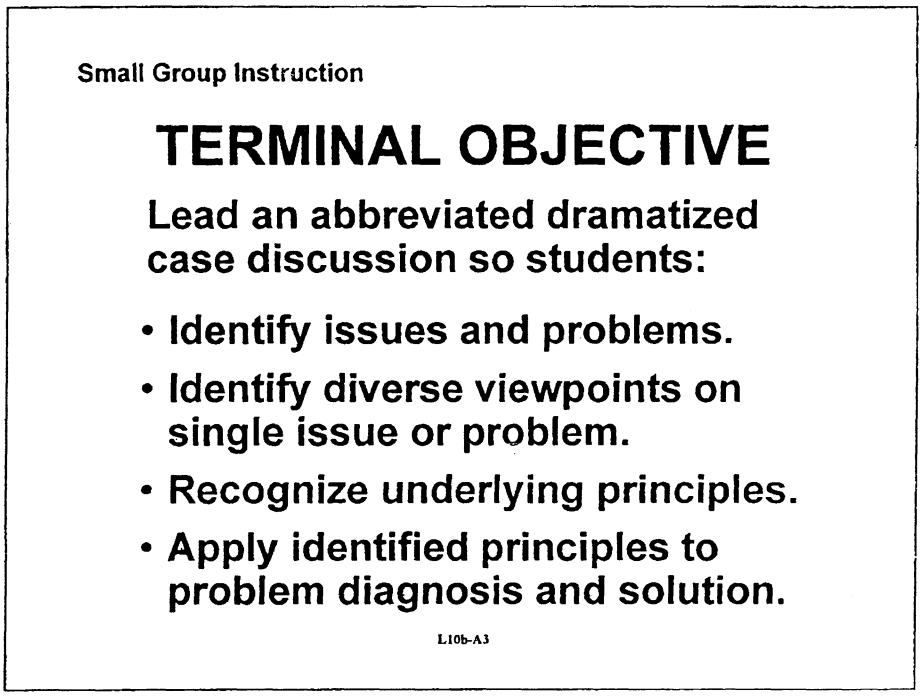

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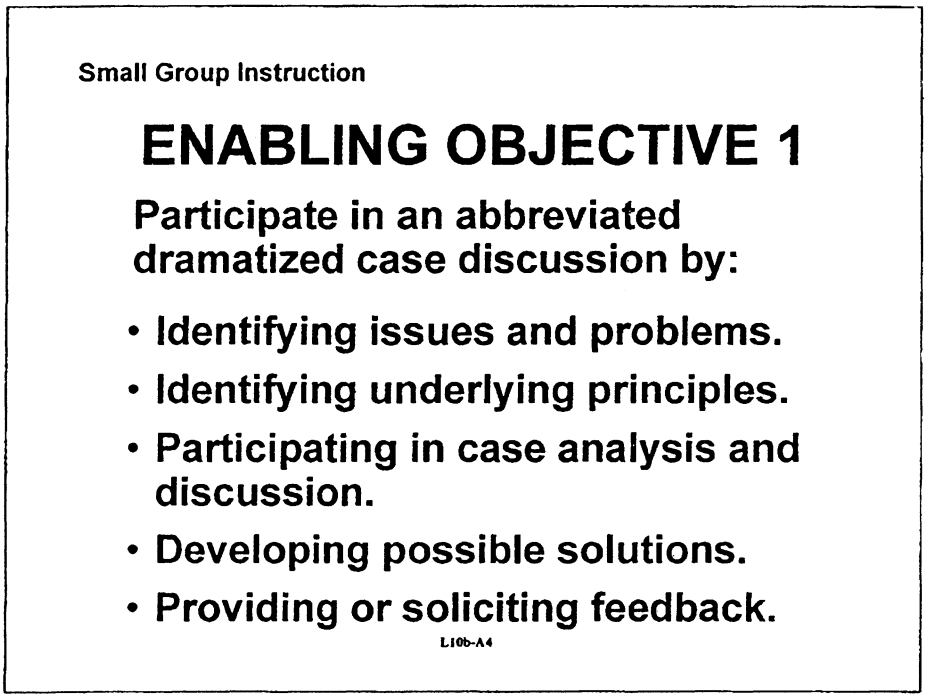

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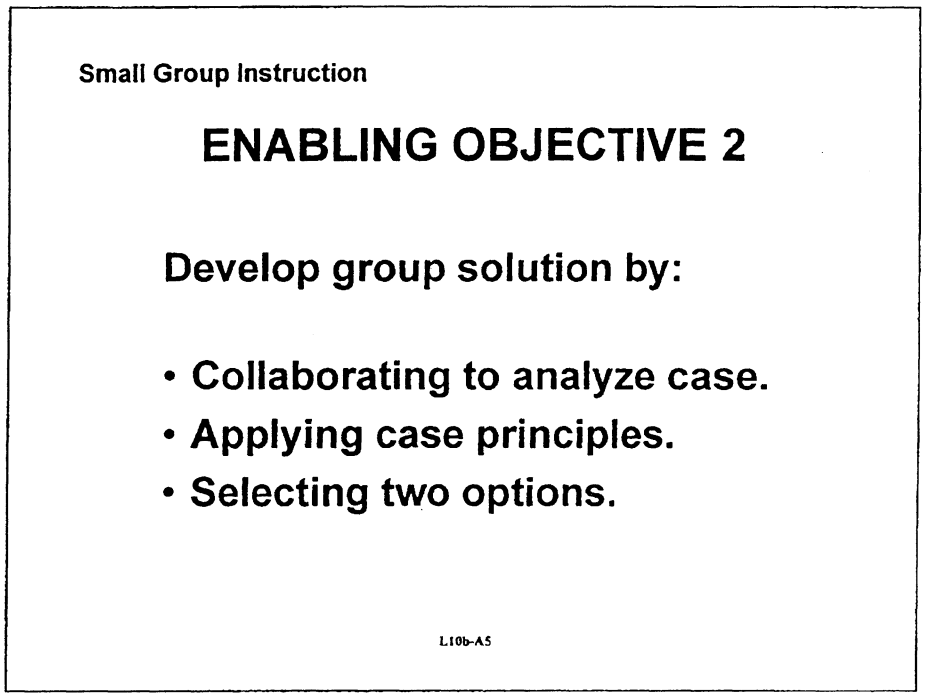

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TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

LESSON REVIEW

Lead an abbreviated dramatized case discussion so students:

- **Identify issues and problems.**
- **Identify diverse viewpoints on single issue or problem.**
- **Recognize underlying principles.**
- **Apply identified principles to problem diagnosis and solution.**

L10b-A6

NOTES

LESSON 10b

Student Handouts and Exercises

Performance Evaluation Checklist

Purpose

The PEC is used to assess the SDL and the small group during the SDL presentation of an SGI lesson and final exam.

Who uses this checklist

The following personnel use this checklist:

- Observing groups at the SDL site to rate the group and the SDL.
- SGL to rate the SDL and group performance.

How to use this checklist

a. Observing groups: Fill out one checklist for the group. Discuss your observations and come to consensus. Ensure your discussion does not disturb the SDL's presentation.

Look for positive and correctable SDL attributes and group dynamics. Try to link SDL roles, group process and content issues, and group dynamics to the success of the group meeting the training objective. Report out after the SDL reviews the ELC.

b. SGL: Fill out checklist based on your observations of group and SDL performance.

When to use this checklist

This checklist is used for student lesson presentations (lessons 6-10) and the final exam.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Student Discussion Leader Rating)

Student Name: _____ Date: _____

Evaluator: _____ Rating: _____

Instructions: Evaluate student delivered lessons (6-10) and the final examination with this checklist. Students must receive the number of "GOs" listed next to the evaluated section, i.e., Introduction, 3 "GOs" out of 4. Students must pass each section (Introduction, Body, Conclusion, and ELC) to pass the course. Circle a GO or NO GO for each element in a section and the corresponding rating for that section. Write student rating (a GO or NO GO) on the Rating line above.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
Introduction (3 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Focus group on task?	Go/ No Go	
Clearly state objective?	Go/ No Go	
Motivate/interest students?	Go/ No Go	
Tie SGI method to lesson objective?	Go/ No Go	
Lesson Body (3 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Display SGL roles: - SME? - Facilitator? - Observer?	Go/ No Go	
Involve all students?	Go/ No Go	
Display understanding of SGI method chosen?	Go/ No Go	
ELC (4 of 4). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Lead group in publishing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in processing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in generalizing stage?	Go/ No Go	
Lead group in applying stage?	Go/ No Go	
Conclusion (2 of 3). Did SDL:	**Go/ No Go**	
Review lesson objective and SGI method relationship?	Go/ No Go	
Summarize lesson results?	Go/ No Go	
Achieve training objective?	Go/ No Go	

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHECKLIST (Group)

Lesson: _____ Date: _____

SDL: _____ Evaluator: _____

Instructions: This checklist is used to evaluate group performance during student-led lessons (6-10). Observers within and outside the classroom use the checklist. The SGL uses this form to comment on group productivity and development.

Group criteria do not effect students' evaluation for graduation.

TOPIC		COMMENTS
During the lesson did:		
Group members interact with each other?	Yes / No	
All group members participate?	Yes / No	
Group work as a team?	Yes / No	
Group members provide feedback?	Yes / No	
Each student publish during the ELC?	Yes / No	
Group adheres to the group rules?	Yes / No	
SDL interventions help the group?	Yes / No	
The group focuses on the task?	Yes / No	
Group achieves the training objective?	Yes / No	

Additional Comments:

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

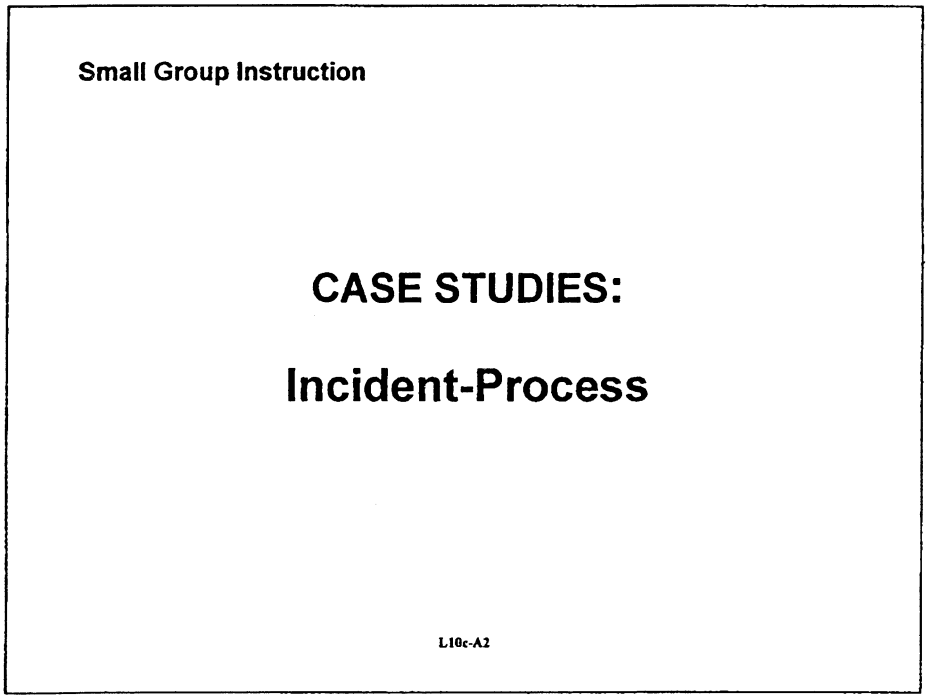
LESSON 10

CASE STUDIES

L10c-A1

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



NOTES

TV DISPLAY

Small Group Instruction

TERMINAL OBJECTIVE

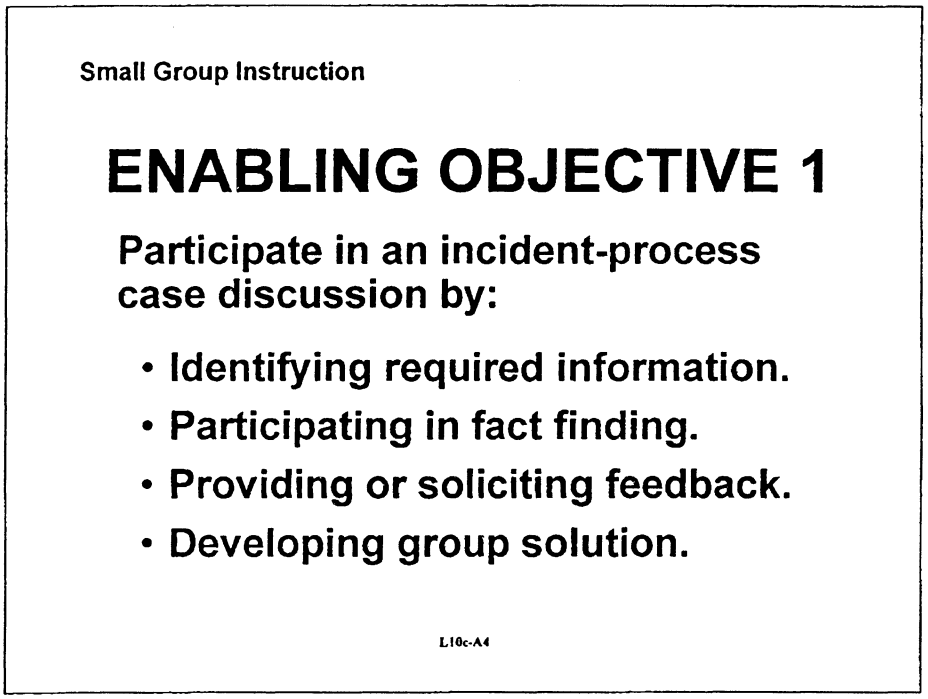
Lead an incident-process case discussion so students gain:

- **Recognition of issues and problems.**
- **Problem-solving skills.**
- **Fact-finding skills.**

L10c-A3

NOTES

TV DISPLAY



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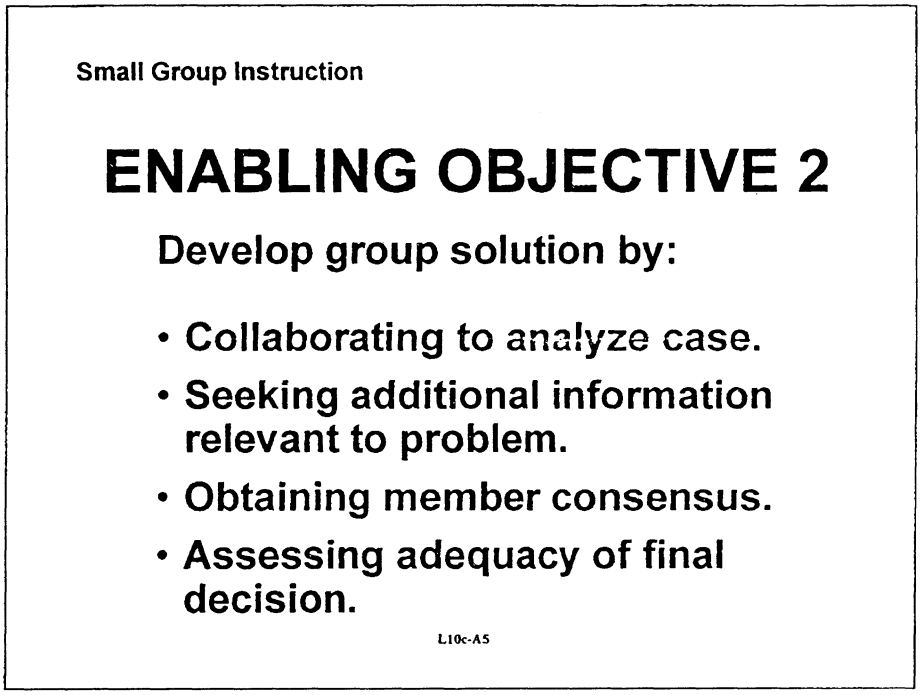
TV DISPLAY



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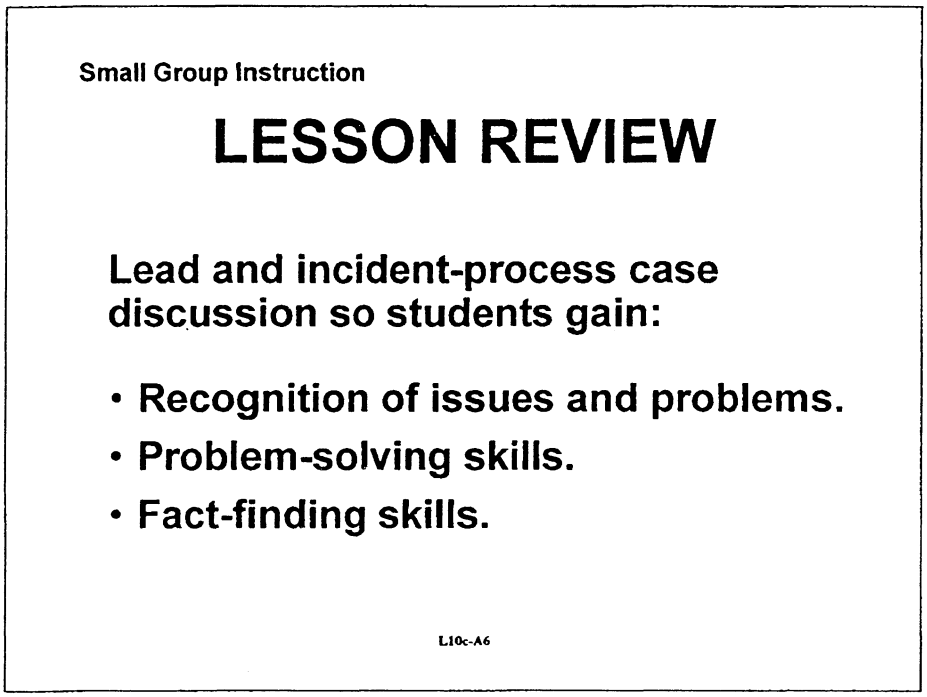

NOTES

LESSON 10c

Student Handouts and Exercises

Handout **Page**

Team Instruction Sheet

Situation

a. Your team is working on a project at battalion headquarters. The team is planning a "military stakes" exercise where soldiers rotate through stations and are evaluated on their ability to perform common tasks. A noncommissioned officer in charge (NCOIC) has been assigned for each station. The stations will be located in the field adjacent to the headquarters building.

b. The operations officer has talked with team members individually about the plan, what has been done so far, and the remaining tasks to be accomplished. Unfortunately, no one team member seems to have all the required information needed to complete the plan. Further, the operations officer has just been called away from the office unexpectedly. Before departing, the operations officer announced to everyone, "I want you to complete the plan while I'm gone. I'll expect the final answers when I return in 15 minutes."

Requirement

Here is what must be done:

- Your team may begin work when all of its members have finished reading these instructions.
- Each team member will receive written bits of information. These are not to be shown to other team members.
- What will be required, and how to go about it, will become clear as you share information with the other team members through verbal communications only.
- If, after sharing information with other members, you still feel you lack relevant information, ask specific questions of your facilitator.
- When you and your team members feel that the team has completed the required tasks, call on your facilitator to check your results.
- If you have only partially completed your tasks, or if you have done more than what was required, your facilitator will consider the tasks totally incomplete. In that case, you will have to keep working without knowing which part of your task, if any, has been completed satisfactorily.

Continued on next page

Team Instruction Sheet, Continued

Rules

Here is a list of rules that you must follow:

- From the moment your team begins work, you may speak only to other team members and the team's facilitator.
- You may not show others the contents of your written bits of information.
- If you ask your team's facilitator for more information, then --
  - You must be specific. There will be no response to general requests for more information.
  - Do not expect information to be volunteered unless specifically requested.
  - There will be no speculation about information that is not available.
- You must obey the facilitator's instructions.
- Your team's work must be completed in 45 minutes.

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Additional Comments: