

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA  
LIBRARY

AUTHOR Barr, Anne [et al]

TITLE The use of groups in the traditionally casework oriented agency.

THESIS (M.S.W.) - Univ. of Manitoba, 1972.

I, the undersigned, agree to refrain from producing, or reproducing, the above-named work, or any part thereof, in any material form, without the written consent of the author:

*Mrs. Betty Grier*  
*M. Berkowitz*

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

Our sincere gratitude to Professor Gifford for his help and support, and to Mrs. Kay for appreciation is extended to all of the agencies which allowed us to study their case work, and to the

**THE USE OF GROUPS IN THE TRADITIONALLY  
CASEWORK ORIENTED AGENCY**

Being a Research Study to Fulfill  
Partial Requirements for the Masters of Social Work Degree

by

Anne Barr

Beatrice Cherniack

Robert Lees

James Simmons

Winnipeg Manitoba

May 1972



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Our sincere gratitude to Professor Gifford for his help and support, and to Mrs. Kay. Our appreciation is extended to all of the agencies which allowed us to study their use of groups, and to the many workers who took time to talk to us.

In this exploratory study, our aim was to obtain information about the development, and quantitative and qualitative aspects of the use of groups in agencies with a casework focus. It was hoped that from this information some conclusions would be drawn about the nature of the use of the groups, and the ways in which they are used to direct and influence group settings.

A sample of one agency from each of several fields of social welfare, which traditionally was casework, was chosen. Data about groups within these agencies was collected by interviewing their respective workers, with the aid of a questionnaire. Descriptive and quantitative data were then collected from the respective agencies. Quantitative data were then used on an inter-agency basis, and on the basis of seven typologies of groups which were used as a guide. Relationships between the relevant data collected on the procedures of group life were sought within the group agencies and within the total sample.

It was found that the use of groups has increased rapidly and extensively in several of the agencies studied, and that some agencies had employed procedures for the use of group technology in their

## ABSTRACT

This is a research study of 79 groups which were operated within seven social welfare agencies in Winnipeg, which have been noted in the past as having used the casework method as their prime mode of service to their clients.

In this exploratory study, our aim was to collect information about the development, and quantitative and qualitative aspects of the use of groups in agencies with a casework focus. It was hoped that from this information some conclusions could be drawn about the spread of the use of the groups, and the ways in which they are used in these non-traditional group settings.

A sample of one agency from each of seven fields of social welfare, which traditionally use casework, was chosen. Data about groups within these agencies was collected by interviewing their respective workers, with the aid of a questionnaire. Histories and descriptions of group usage in the respective agencies were compiled. Comparisons of relevant data were then made on an inter-agency basis, and on the basis of seven typologies of groups which our data was divided into. Relationships between the relevant data collected on the parameters of group life were sought within the group typologies and within the total sample.

It was found that the use of groups has expanded rapidly and extensively in several of the agencies studied, and that some agencies had employed predominantly the use of one typology of group. Certain

parameters of the group life emerged from the data as being associated with certain typologies of groups and others in the total sample were significantly related to one another. Broad conclusions were also drawn about the use of groups in terms of the literature and in terms of future development. Generally, the principles of group practice advocated in the literature were being applied within our sample.

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

	Page
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	ii
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	iii
 <b>Chapter</b>	
<b>I. INTRODUCTION</b> .....	1
<b>II. METHOD</b> .....	15
<b>Critique of the Method</b> .....	39
<b>III. REPORT OF DATA ON AGENCIES</b> .....	42
<b>IV. REPORT OF FINDINGS</b> .....	70
<b>Agency Comparisons</b> .....	70
<b>Typology Comparisons</b> .....	76
<b>Comparisons Within Typologies</b> .....	100
<b>Total Sample Table Talk</b> .....	125
<b>V. CONCLUSIONS</b> .....	141
<b>APPENDIX A</b> .....	153
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b> .....	159

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this exploratory research study was to develop an information base about a sample of casework agencies that have adopted the use of groups as a method of delivery of service. This was done through the collection of information from one representative social agency from each field of casework practice within the geographical boundaries of the City of Winnipeg. This information will give a picture of how the use of group method developed in the agency, and the extent of the use of groups and how accepted they are as a means of providing service. Information from individual workers using groups will include workers' goals for their groups and their perceptions of certain structural features of the groups. From here, the knowledge from small group sociological research and group work literature will be used to make a judgment as to whether the ways groups are being used in these agencies are appropriate in terms of the desired goals. Knowledge of work with groups and group dynamics used by the workers and agencies studied can then be estimated. Tentative questions about the uses of groups in these agencies and implications for potential uses of groups as a means of service delivery

<sup>1</sup> Operational definitions of important terms may be found in the section on Method, p. 16.

by these and similar social agencies will then be drawn. This research is also an attempt at developing an information bank about the spread of an innovative concept. From our limited experience, we have been led to believe that group work methodology and the usage has extended itself rapidly throughout Winnipeg's social welfare network. This impression was formed through informal discussion with agency workers and this became an important stimulus to our interest in this topic. To our knowledge, little compilation, and consequently little realization of the proportion of the magnitude of the group movement, is available. Bearing in mind a concern for the quality of service being presented to Winnipeg's social welfare clients, there is also a preliminary curiosity regarding development of the movement and its present strength within the sample chosen. Our research was designed to address itself to this measurement and description process.

Again, we should note that our interest in such a study grows out of a phenomenon felt by many persons working within Winnipeg's welfare system with whom we have had informal talks. The phenomenon we were made aware of was the rapid rise in the use of groups in agencies that have primarily used casework as the means of providing service in the past. It is well known that in many instances it is case workers who may have had little or no training in group work who are in charge of such groups. While we were unable to carry out a study sophisticated enough to evaluate the differences, if any, in outcomes for the clients between groups led by group workers and case workers, we did feel that we could at least discover whether or not



social workers in casework agencies are making use of certain aspects of knowledge about working with groups. An example would be to see whether the use of food and/or coffee is recognized as being an important facilitator of ease amongst group members. We felt that with our knowledge from the literature of certain principles about groups we could see if these were recognized by workers and in what situations they were used.

2

Social doctrine, propounded first by Marx and then many other ideological writers, has bearing on our concern with the group movement. Marx spoke of "Alienation" as being the major social-societal problem. Man diverced from man, himself and the world. The very nature of group life works to overcome social disintegration, to stabilize and increase the quantity and quality of relations between man and his fellows, his world and himself. Toffler and Skinner and many other prominently recognized writers of our time advise us of the need for man to find new forms of interaction patterns. Toffler encourages study in new forms of group living as has Skinner. Man must know more about man and how he interacts with man in order for the species to live harmoniously. The public concern with population, pollution and peace are signs of the global nature of present-day man's concerns. As the

<sup>2</sup> Adam Schaff, Marxism and the Human Individual (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970), p. 117.

<sup>3</sup> Alvin Toffler, Future Shock (New York: Bantam Books, 1970), p. 473.

<sup>4</sup> B.F. Skinner, Beyond Freedom and Dignity (New York: A Knopf, 1971), p. 4.

concern broadens, it is obvious that its solution will encompass the interests of more people. To seek solutions to broad issues, man knows that collectively his chances of success are increased. It takes little imagination to become aware of the values that mutual concern and support can have in terms of human benefit.

Skinner would like us to believe that the major problems of our age are problems of living with other men, discovering more about the interaction between men. Certainly the solution to interrelationship problems is a pre-occupation which our society has invested a great deal of resources in. Traditional group method focuses on the interaction between people with a view to its improvement. Its qualifications speak highly to the concern of the socially conscious writers of our age. Group usage such as for recreation frequently serves to get man in touch with his world. The human potential movement can be simply viewed as a means of not only connecting man with others but with himself.

At this point, a brief review of the history of social group work and current issues would help to put this study into its proper perspective. Social group work had its origin in the settlement movement in Britain and the United States. "Industrialization brought with it slums, movement of the farm population into the cities, and large scale immigration to the United States."<sup>5</sup> The idea of mutual

---

<sup>5</sup> Gisela Konopka, Social Group Work (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963), p. 3.

self-help and support grew with involvement of settlement houses in helping "neighbours" fight for their rights. After World War I, interest in an investigation into the unexplored area of group association developed as a way of achieving a better way of society and to develop a true democratic way of life. "This is the reason why social group work was not conceived of as a method but as a goal, a philosophy, a movement, a psychology, and a profession all rolled into one."<sup>6</sup> Gradually a method of group work developed after World War II. "One set of group work goals was related to the enhancement of the individual's social functioning both within and through the group experience ... (beyond this the goal was to encourage) the development of mature groups capable of constructive participation and meaningful action toward desirable social goals."<sup>7</sup> It was not until 1946 at the National Conference of Social Work that social group work was considered a full member of the social work profession.

In recent years the distinction between the goals of group work and case work has become less clear. Klein says that group work has tended to forget social action for individual treatment. Increasingly case workers have come to use groups to help to achieve their goals. It would appear, therefore, that both case and group workers are involved in similar activities. "The actual array (of groups) is

---

<sup>6</sup> Ibid., p. 5.

<sup>7</sup> Alan Klein, "Group Work Revisited," University of Pittsburgh School of Social Work, p. 1. (Mimeographed)

testimony to the fact that in social work the use of groups as a medium of service has assumed the proportion of a movement.<sup>8</sup>

There is no one well-developed theory of group behaviour and process that is accepted by social work, although some individuals with whom we have had contact attributed to group work an almost panacea-like quality.<sup>9</sup> Frey and Kolodny state that an examination of the methods and theoretical orientations of group leaders shows great diversities and contradictions. There is disagreement as to just when casework agencies should use groups, what methods they should use, and what their purposes should be. Many of the issues have to do with philosophies. Frey and Kolodny report that methods and objectives are not based on empirical knowledge. Analysis and theory-building are lacking. They go on to say that some writers feel that work is based on a few dated sociological concepts. There is uncritical commitment to procedures with little knowledge to back that up.<sup>10</sup>

Gordon feels that social workers in general do not distinguish clearly enough between knowledge and value, i.e., between what is confirmed or confirmable and what is preferred.<sup>11</sup> Bartlett says that

<sup>8</sup> L. Frey and R. Kolodny, "Illusions and Realities in Current Social Work with Groups," Social Work, Vol. 9, No. 2 (April 1964), p. 80.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., pp. 81-86.

<sup>11</sup> William E. Gordon, "Knowledge and Value: Their Distinction and Relationship in Clarifying Social Work Practice," Social Work, Vol. 10, No. 3 (July 1965), p. 35.

social work must contribute to both knowledge and value as distinct from skill. She says that systematized social work knowledge is needed to support its practice.<sup>12</sup>

Many workers do not agree with Klein that it is necessary for groups to reach a point of becoming involved in social action. They feel individual treatment is sufficient justification for using a group. This is where some theoreticians would say that the former is social group work and that the latter is social work with groups. Simultaneously, some workers think that if case workers use groups, they should be problem-centered rather than concerned with interaction between members, i.e., the process will not consist of group problem-solving, but will be more like casework in the presence of others.

Frey and Kolodny go on to describe the conflict between the definitions of what social group work is and what group therapy is. Some say there is no difference in definition. Others say that the social group worker's task, unlike the therapist's, is to help the person select more appropriate alternatives within a behavioural range, but not to change his personality. But will such change be permanent without the personality change? Then there are great differences within group psycho-therapy itself as to what psychotherapists should be doing and what kinds of people should be treated.<sup>13</sup>

<sup>12</sup> Harriet Bartlett, "The Place and Use of Knowledge in Social Work Practice," Social Work, Vol. 9, No. 3 (July 1964), p. 43.

<sup>13</sup> Frey and Kolodny, Op. Cit., p. 84.

Another dimension to the rise of the use of groups is the area of sensitivity training and T-group method. It began in the late forties with social psychologists Lewin, Benne and Lippitt. They "found that the study of the small group experience had an imposing impact upon their human relations skills. The powerful potential of action research in the small group was focused with a workshop planned in the summer of 14 1947." The focus in the development of group learning experience was on members' interpersonal dynamics, small group process and on deliberate skill training for operating as a change-agent in organization and community structures. The T-group as defined by Bradford, Gibb and Benne is a "relatively unstructured group in which individuals participate as learners. The data for learning are not outside these individuals or remote from their immediate experience within the T-group. The data are the transactions among members, their own behaviour in the group as they struggle to create a productive and viable organization, a miniature society; and as they work and support one another's learning 15 within that society." They learn about their own motives, strategies and feelings in dealing with other persons, how others react to them, and about the functioning and development of the group as a social system.

---

<sup>14</sup> Catherine Papell, "Sensitivity Training: Relevance for Social Work Education," paper presented at Annual Programme Meeting of Council on Social Work Education, Seattle, Washington (January 1971), p. 7.

<sup>15</sup> Bradford, Gibb and Benne, in Catherine Papell "Sensitivity Training: Relevance for Social Work Education," paper presented at Annual Programme Meeting of Council on Social Work Education, Seattle, Washington (January 1971), p. 8.

Herbert Shepard has described the personal growth laboratory as "probably a necessary part of the process of building a better order as well as a partial definer of it. A personal growth laboratory creates an interpersonal world which disconfirms much of what people have learned in the world outside, affirms the possibility of a different world outside, and provides a partial model of what it could be like."<sup>16</sup>

Sensitivity training is a term that describes changes in the laboratory method that took place in the late fifties. There was a change in the emphasis on group variables to relatively greater attention to individual dynamics, his understanding of himself and his relation to others. All kinds of variations on these groups based on experiential learning have mushroomed. Many express concern over the risk of psychological damage to individuals who go through group experiences that are not followed up by the people who conduct them. There is also a fear that some training designs "often tremble on the edge of mind conditioning .... For those of us whose goal it is to strengthen individuality and to avoid inducing conformity and the control of mind, it would seem wise for us to carefully examine our intent and technology each time we use similar tools in our training programs."<sup>17</sup>

<sup>16</sup> Herbert Shepard, in Catherine Papell "Sensitivity Training: Relevance for Social Work Education," paper presented at Annual Programme Meeting of Council on Social Work Education, Seattle, Washington (January 1971), p. 11.

<sup>17</sup> Hollister, in Catherine Papell "Sensitivity Training: Relevance for Social Work Education," paper presented at Annual Programme Meeting of Council on Social Work Education, Seattle, Washington (January 1971), p. 3.

While some may see the sensitivity movement as a panacea, others as "emotional fascism," others wish to make sure that such training designs are used towards the most valued ends for the individual and society. It is evident then, that there is still much confusion and uncertainty in the helping professions as to the usefulness and indeed the safety of sensitivity training for them as a method of helping people.

Groups are being used in social work settings for a multitude of purposes and with a diversity of members. Groups are being used with mentally retarded persons, with the aged, and with the mentally ill. In child welfare agencies there are groups for unmarried mothers, foster parents, and prospective adoptive parents. In family service agencies groups are used with disadvantaged mothers, couples in need of marriage counselling, adolescents and young adults, parents without marital partners. Public Welfare agencies use groups with clients on Mothers' Allowance, foster parents, hard-core clients, etc.

The reasons for using group methodology are manifold. Kermit Wiltse states that an agency should consider three objectives. "The first is the use of the group method to contribute to a better fulfillment of the overall purposes and functions of the agency. As a corollary to this first purpose, there is a second one which is to increase the staff's understanding of the problems of clients and others in order to be of greater service to them ... And the third is to utilize the experiences from participating in group interaction

Walters, Kermit (1961). *Group Work in Social Work*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Wiltse, Kermit (1961). *Integrating Group Therapy in a Family Agency Program*. In *Proceedings of the National Conference on Family Therapy*, Family Therapy Association of America, 1961, p. 11.



to achieve personal and social growth in the staff." These seem to put emphasis on growth for the staff, but we presume that improvement in clients' lives is included in the first objective.

The integration of a new service into an agency requires a definition of its relationship to other existing services. It may be an extra service, a complementary or parallel service. In the complementary situation, group work is used where the one-to-one relationship is limited in its potential. Group work is used to bring clients to the point where the case work relationship can be effective. Casework becomes the dominant method with group work as an auxiliary. These roles can be interchanged in another form of agency organization. However, within this relationship it is viewed by the agency as being a form of service with unique potentials for achieving goals. Where group work is the dominant method of service and particularly where it is seen as making a unique contribution, it is considered to be congruent with clients' needs. Kilinski et al see the complementary approach as best, because the needs of the client are the primary determinant as to whether or not he becomes involved in a group. Group work may be viewed as a method with no relationship to casework services and this view can be adopted, as mentioned, as a panacea, or as a practice luxury, which time and economy will not allow. Finally, it

<sup>18</sup> Norman Fenton and Kermit Wiltse, ed., Group Methods in the Public Welfare Program (Pal Alto, Calif.: Pacific Books, 1963), p. 35.

<sup>19</sup> Mildred Kilinski, et al, "Integrating Group Therapy in a Family Agency Programme," The Use of Group Techniques in the Family Agency (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1959), p. 19.

<sup>20</sup> Ibid.

may be viewed as a means of achieving identical goals as the casework method but as more efficient in that more than one person can be seen at a time. All of these form possible distinctive interrelationships or non-relationships of methods in the agencies.

Values of using group methodology as seen by writers and workers include the fact that "members of a group can use the relationship with the others present for support and help in expressing their real feelings about their relationships to the agency and their experiences with it .... In the security of the group the members can feel free to look at the personal and social problems with which they are confronted and from the group process gain greater capacity to cope with these problems."<sup>21</sup>

Groups provide opportunities for self help. The worker may be less threatening in the presence of others with whom a client can identify.<sup>22</sup>

Groups also provide a protected atmosphere in which members can try out new behaviour, receive feedback, and actually deal with their problems of interaction with others. A group can create strong pressures and motivation for behavioural change in its members which may result in more dramatic change than in casework relationship. Within the group it is often the power of peers which is cited as being particularly useful in working for change in children.<sup>23</sup> They are a way of teaching leadership skills to members and are an expedient and useful tool for education and dissemination of information. In this way groups are a

<sup>21</sup> Fenton and Wiltse, Op. Cit., p. 35.

<sup>22</sup> Hanna Grunwald, "Group Counselling with the Multiproblem Family," Use of Group Techniques in the Family Agency (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1959), p. 33.

<sup>23</sup> Kilinski et al, Op. Cit., p. 20.

means for preventative action against problems.

Kilinski et al outline some limitations and pitfalls of group therapy. This method which necessitates diluted relationships would not be appropriate for a person requiring an intensive one-to-one relationship. If members feel pressed to reveal too much about themselves too quickly, they may increase their defensive actions. Likewise there is a danger of a person being exposed prematurely to a direct attack on his defensive structure. Group therapy may be perceived by some clients as a way of escaping their problems. At times it may be impossible for an individual to deal with a personal concern in the group because the group is not ready for it or because the person is unduly afraid of the censure he would feel from other members. Rivalries between members may develop which have to be dealt with either within the group or through individual sessions. Certain kinds of anxieties may be heightened by group participation and therefore joining a group is no way to relieve them.<sup>24</sup> Kilinski et al address themselves to problems that arise in group therapy, but many of these could apply to any group in our estimation. They point out further that many of these pitfalls can be dealt with through proper selection and balancing of members for the group, and through the therapist's skills in dealing with individuals and the larger group process.

With these points in mind we asked ourselves whether or not the many caseworkers who are now in charge of groups of clients have

---

<sup>24</sup> Ibid., p. 29.

had sufficient training or education about these very values and pitfalls, about group processes, and about the skills necessary to work with more than one person to work effectively with groups. We felt that we could determine whether the workers had and were making use of some of this knowledge.

We wanted to know if workers and agencies were aware of the values of group work. Were agencies using groups to speak to the needs of a society marked by alienation, were workers concerned with social disintegration and was group use viewed as a resistor to the process? Were they concerned with knowing more about the interaction between man, and what did they feel were the unique contributions of groups to the solution of broad human problems? How have workers viewed the method group use, as a luxury, expedient or essential? What relationship did group method have with the agency, with other methods? How quickly had the movement developed; to what extent and in what direction had it grown? We anticipated being able to draw some answers from the information collected.

It will be seen that our study was a descriptive study of both of these types. However, we were not able to do this primarily because we needed to know what it was we wanted to study and to develop methods and solid techniques for measuring it. These are essential for a descriptive study. We felt that the purpose of our research was to gain further insight into a movement.

Clara Schiller, ed., *Women's Methods in Social & Political Research*, New York: The Free Press, 1951, p. 10.

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD

This study was designed for exploration of the growing use of groups in casework agencies in Winnipeg. We will describe what group services presently exist, characteristics of particular groups, and formulate some tentative questions for further study regarding the way in which case workers and casework agencies are making use of groups. Selltiz et al define exploratory studies as those used when the research purpose is "to gain familiarity with a phenomenon or to achieve new insights into it, often in order to formulate a more precise research problem or to develop hypotheses." Descriptive studies in their framework are "to portray accurately the characteristics of a particular individual, situation, or group ... or to determine the frequency with which something occurs, or with which it is associated with something else ...." It will be seen that our study has characteristics of both of these types. However, we were not able to define clearly before we undertook the study just what it was we wanted to study and to develop reliable and valid techniques for measuring it. These are essential for a descriptive study. We felt that the major purpose of our research was to gain familiarity with a phenomenon,

<sup>1</sup> Claire Selltiz et al, Research Methods in Social Relations, revised edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1959), p. 50.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid.

even though elements of description enter into it. We therefore, chose an exploratory design.

The kinds of questions the researchers asked themselves before undertaking the research included: do casework agencies primarily use case workers or group workers to lead groups; do these case workers have any training in social work with groups; have agencies adopted the use of groups as a regular part of their program; is the use of groups entirely up to the inclination of individual workers; are the workers in casework oriented agencies making use of knowledge available in group work and small group literature when working with their groups? The study was designed to draw out a wide range of information from which tentative questions might be drawn for further study.

A survey of social group work, general social work and small group sociological literature was made. From here we obtained the information and knowledge about certain parameters of group life. We used this to determine whether or not the parameters observed in the groups studied are congruent with the findings in the literature.

#### Nature of Sample

The population from which the sample was drawn included all traditionally casework oriented agencies in the City of Winnipeg that use or have used groups within the past year as a means of providing service to clients. A traditionally casework social agency was defined as an agency that attempts to help clients develop effectiveness in working with problems that are primarily related to social functioning.

They employ at least one full time bachelor or masters social work graduate. The one-to-one relationship between social worker and client is the primary means of delivery of service. While there is a spread of the use of social work into new fields such as industry and personnel work, this study is limited to fields that are traditionally and unequivocally important to social work.

We adopted Helen Harris Perlman's definition of social casework as "a process used by certain human welfare agencies to help individuals to cope more effectively with their problems in social functioning."<sup>3</sup>

It is primarily a one-to-one process, although it may involve work with couples and families, in which the relationship between social worker and client is a primary means of helping. Murphy defines social group work as having the purpose of "enhancement of persons' social functioning through purposeful group experience."<sup>4</sup> The definition of "group" was whatever the agencies defined as "group." This enabled interviewers to avoid the awesome task of identifying without having an opportunity to observe groups directly, those characteristics that are usually taken as being necessary for a group, as opposed to a collection of individuals, to exist, i.e., the existence of tasks and activities, group values and norms and goals, social organization or

---

<sup>3</sup> Helen Harris Perlman, Social Casework (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 4.

<sup>4</sup> Marjorie Murphy, "The Social Group Work Method in Social Work Education," pp. 39-40 quoted in Gisela Konopka, Social Group Work (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), p. 2.

structure, including roles and division of labour.

The agencies were divided into fields of practice according to  
 5  
 Harriet Bartlett's categorization. Group work agencies and residential institutions were excluded since their primary means of serving clients is and always has been through groups. The others are: child welfare, psychiatric social work, family service, school social work, public welfare agencies, hospital social work and corrections. From each of these fields the agency with the widest range of clientel and services offered was chosen. We also tried to obtain a balance of large, medium and small agencies in order to see how smaller agencies handled the question of the use of groups as well as large ones. These agencies were considered to be representative in the sense that the findings from them would apply, we believed, to all others in their fields because they would, you believed, meet at least some of the same problems as the agencies studied. In some cases only one agency fell into a given category. Because of this the Child Guidance Clinic was chosen for school social work, the Family Bureau for family social work. The Psychiatric Institute was the only agency whose sole purpose was to deal with treating mental patients. The other institutions in the city operating for this purpose are hospitals, which deal with a multitude of other problems.

5 Harriet Bartlett, Analyzing Social Work Practice by Fields  
 (New York: The National Association of Social Workers, 1961), p. 15.



The Children's Aid Society of Winnipeg was chosen because it is the largest child welfare agency and would therefore probably meet the widest range of needs. We felt that there would be no significant differences between provincial welfare offices. The West Office was chosen because it was one that was not embroiled in the process of division of financial and personal service.

The Children's Hospital was chosen to represent hospital social work. It was felt that although the patients were limited to children, the social service department deals with the families as well. A wide range of medical problems are dealt with unlike the Rehabilitation Hospital for instance.

The John Howard Society was chosen for the field of corrections because it provides the widest range of services in this field, e.g., service to any ex-inmates whose problem is related to having once been in prison, supervising parolees and probationers, family court services, etc. The government operated agencies in the city are limited to one type of service, e.g., parole and probation.

The sample of groups studied included all groups currently operating in the selected agencies, or those that had been operating since September of 1971, with some notable exceptions. Several workers at the Child Guidance Clinic were not contacted because program supervisors were not aware of all the workers who were leading groups. Unfortunately therefore, we did not cover 100% of the groups operating in that agency. However, we did likely cover all the types of groups as many of them are similar. The Children's Aid Society operated

several types of intake groups. All groups of each type were developed around the same format. One such group was studied to represent all of those in each category, e.g., foster parents, unmarried mothers, adoptive parents. However, findings from these sample or representative groups were not multiplied by the number of such groups, i.e., we used results from just the sample group studied only once.

### Data Collection

Data were collected by means of interviews based upon a questionnaire. Interviewers sought answers to all the questions on the questionnaire (see Appendix A). Questions were worded in a general way with repetitions in some cases in order to elicit as much information as possible from workers, and so that workers would feel free to discuss the unique aspects of their groups and their own individual concerns and thoughts. Most questions not answerable by "yes" or "no" that involved judgment on the part of the worker were quite open-ended. Workers gave their impressions freely and in some cases were asked to place their response in a category, e.g., openness - high, medium or low. In other cases the researchers placed responses in categories based upon their own judgments. These judgments were made by a consensus of all researchers to ensure consistency.

The questionnaire was divided into two parts. The first part was designed to elicit information about the agency and the development of the use of groups from the executive director or another person in a position to know about this. The second part of the questionnaire elicited information about the worker's goals in relation to the group

and about certain structural parameters. These parameters are: environment and time; group size; group leadership; social characteristics of members; and communication network. A detailed discussion of these will follow later.

In cases where there was more than one worker, sometimes one and sometimes both were interviewed, depending upon whether both were available or not. We made the assumption that one worker's impressions would be accurate enough for our purposes. When both were interviewed information about the worker, which made up the last few questions of the questionnaire, was taken from the more experienced worker. It was assumed that this experience would influence and be of help to a less experienced worker, and planning for the group would more closely reflect his expertise. Therefore when we were associating certain group characteristics with worker experience and training that it would be more valid to use data from the more experienced worker. We felt it would be too cumbersome to deal with data about both workers.

A group classification system was devised that would be based on goals which workers described as applying to their groups. It was felt that, although this system necessarily excluded the accuracy of each group being described as a unique entity, the classification was necessary for practical reasons of comparison. Workers were asked to state their goals for the individual group members and for the group as a whole. They were also asked to pick from our classification system those labels that more closely approximated the type of group they saw themselves operating. Categorization was done by goals because

the most significant means of differentiating between appropriate parameters was goals. That is to say that in the literature, certain structures or characteristics are recommended for certain groups primarily based on what their goals are:

These categories are:

1. Task groups whose primary goals and focus involve the completion of certain tasks, e.g., committees.
2. Education groups whose primary purpose is the dissemination of information so that members can learn certain content.
3. Therapy groups which bring together dysfunctional or sick persons with the primary focus on the dysfunctional aspect of their personality or behavior and with the goal being alleviation of the problems creating the dysfunction.
4. Discussion groups where the primary focus is on bringing people together to discuss content relevant to themselves. Goals are learning about content, interaction and fellowship.
5. Human potential groups whose focus is on bringing people together to expand their human capacities. Emphasis is on awareness of self and upon expanding the potential of persons already functioning well in their interpersonal relationships. Here and now learning experiences are developed.

<sup>6</sup> Helen Northen, Social Work with Groups (New York: Columbia University Press, 1969), pp. 95, 98, 102, 103.

6. Socialization groups whose primary focus is on members' ability to adopt new modes of responses to other persons (usually peers) and society. Activities are used to enhance individual social development through interaction with others.

7. Recreational groups having the primary emphasis on activity enjoyment and obtaining pleasurable experiences. The benefits of socialization are secondary.

8. Counselling groups consisting of members with problems in the broadest sense of the word, which they bring to the group in order to search for resolutions. They differ from therapy groups in that the emphasis is not on a dysfunctional personality, but on interactional problems with the outside environment.

9. Situational groups consisting of persons who are experiencing a common process of changing. The group forms around crisis change points in life or during a common status change. Emphasis is on coping with the change, at the time of change.

In our tabulation of data we merged with discussion groups as they really described in all groups studied, a means to some other goal and not a goal in and of itself. We placed them in the category workers chose as second choice. Situational groups were also left out in the final analysis because all such groups could be easily fitted into other categories.

### Parameters

At this point we would like to discuss in general what group work literature states about the parameters used in our study. The parameters were used as a basis around which the questionnaire was formulated. This information was also the basis for comparisons made between different factors in our analysis of data, and to determine whether or not what was occurring in these groups was congruent with findings in the literature.

Environment and Time - Although a key factor in group life, environment is often either overlooked or taken for granted as a variable affecting group process. The social work and small group literature mention little about environment as it affects group process. Environment was taken to mean the physical setting of the meeting and the social atmosphere created.

A formal setting is most conducive to the completion of certain tasks. A formal social atmosphere is also best for a task group when too much socializing or dealing with personal matters would hinder completion of the job to be done. This is true as well for educational groups except where learning is through interpersonal sharing and discussion. A less formal setting would be desired to encourage this.

In all situations where the means of reaching the group goal entails persons feeling free to open up and/or to be intimate with each other, an informal setting would be most appropriate. This could include a seating arrangement in which members are close to each other

and in which everyone can be readily seen and heard. A table in the middle initially lends support and reduces self-consciousness.<sup>7</sup> Chairs should be comfortable, lighting not too bright. Food is a good way to create a relaxed setting. The room should be quiet and private.

The time of day that a group meets may also be important to the group. Since evenings and weekends are usually regarded as times of leisure and comfort when defenses may be let down, these times may be better for adult groups when openness and intimacy are desired. Of course most groups are forced to meet a time when all members can attend, which means many adult groups meet in the evenings, while children's groups may meet during or after school.

The duration of a group is also a significant factor. Long-term groups, several months or more, will likely be used when the goal involves developing the maximum or restoring effective functioning in social relationships and competence. For instance, therapy and counselling groups must meet long enough to build up group cohesiveness which is necessary for "interpersonal learning ... through self-disclosure and confrontation."<sup>8</sup> Short-term groups, one to eight sessions, are more likely used when attraction to the group is not related to the people themselves, but to the stated purpose of the group. There is

<sup>7</sup> Ibid., p. 104.

<sup>8</sup> Irwin D. Yalom, "Synopsis of the Theory and Practice of Group Therapy," 1970.

focused content and strong motivation to use the group, e.g., preparation for a new role, family life education, coping with crises, and diagnostic groups.<sup>9</sup>

Groups in which openness and intimacy and relaxed member to member communication are desired must meet long enough each time to break down barriers to the kind of communication desired, so that real growth can be accomplished. One and a half to two hours are likely to be required. Length of meetings depends on the attention span of the members. Therefore small children would not be expected to meet for more than an hour. It also depends upon the level of interest of the members.

Again groups that require honest and free communication among members must meet frequently enough to provide members with enough opportunity to interact, and so that it takes a shorter time to break down discomfort and barriers that have built up since the last session. These kinds of groups should meet no less than once a week while the goal is to build and maintain cohesiveness. Task groups and education groups in which the focus is more around content than cohesiveness among members need not meet this frequently, although they often do. Such groups may need to meet only every other week or once a month to accomplish their goals.

Size - Numerous studies have shown how both certain advantages and disadvantages increase with group size. An increase in group size

<sup>9</sup> Northen, Op. Cit., p. 102



brings more abilities and resources in task performance, more items of information that can be absorbed and recalled, more ideas and suggestions, a wider range of values and technical skills, more muscle power to implement decisions. These increase efficiency in performing the task of the group. However with greater size there are fewer affectional ties, the contribution of each member decreases, it is more difficult to reach consensus, there is threat and inhibition to participate and there is difficulty in coordination.

Therefore if there is a desire for intimate and highly developed relationships or a need for find coordination, it is best to have a small group. It appears from research that in groups of over eight to twelve members there is a tendency to begin to think of other members in terms of subgroups.<sup>10</sup> Therefore twelve would be the maximum size for a very intimate group with a goal of members helping each other in personal problems and relationships. It also follows that a somewhat larger group is best for a social action emphasis to develop the best strategies and to have strength to implement plans. However, because the contribution of each additional member decreases as size increases,<sup>11</sup> groups should be just large enough to do their task well. Small group researchers place the arbitrary upper limit of the small, face-to-face group at twenty.<sup>12</sup>

---

<sup>10</sup> Baruch Levine, Fundamentals of Group Treatment (Chicago: Whitehall Co., 1967), p. 13.

<sup>11</sup> Edwin J. Thomas and Clinton F. Fink, "Effects of Group Size," in A. Paul Hare, Edgar F. Borgatta and Robert F. Bales, eds., Small Groups Studies in Social Interaction (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1966), p. 524.

<sup>12</sup> Northen, Op. Cit., p. 10.

We have made an attempt to set cut off points for size for certain purposes. We could operationalize appropriate size for a group for interpersonal interaction to help each member in some way as being from five to twelve members. Levine says that eight seems to be optimum for such groups and that therefore membership should be between ten and twelve to assure that eight to nine attend each meeting.<sup>13</sup> "... too small a group may disintegrate with absences or as members leave."<sup>14</sup> A group of between fifteen and twenty members would have considerably lower probability of such a goal being reached. Individuals vary in their capacity for relationship. For instance, emotionally deprived or disturbed people and children will relate better to a few people and should be in a small group.<sup>15</sup>

Social Characteristics - Several social characteristics have been shown to relate to productivity at task (as opposed to social-emotional) goals. Single sex groups are better because less time is spent on social-emotional activity. Friends do better than non-friends if they do not spend this group time on social-emotional activity. If the group is for social-emotional purposes, age would not be as much of a factor except that small children cannot form deep relationships or communicate well verbally and therefore cannot be placed in large

<sup>13</sup> Levine, Op. Cit., p. 12.

<sup>14</sup> Northen, Op. Cit., p. 99.

<sup>15</sup> Ibid.

groups or discussion therapy groups. Depending on the desires of an age group social groups could be homogeneous sex-wise to provide support for learned social sex-linked roles or heterogeneous if the purpose is to help form relations with both sexes. There should not be splits in social class, age, or interests that will be so gross as to prevent the group from jelling. Diversity in "coping with problems facilitates exchange of feelings and ideas among members, providing there is potential for strong bond in relation to purpose and focus of the group."<sup>16</sup>

Leadership - Leadership is another of the parameters. Task groups are generally characterized by a formal leadership structure among the members. Members should take on leadership responsibility, with the worker serving as a resource person when necessary. Generally members should make their own decisions about goals and tasks and activities. The worker may have input re norms especially if members are new to this sort of group, so that they can learn how to be a chairman or secretary, etc. In educational groups the worker may again have more input than members with regard to norms and goals. Members should have a say in the specific things they wish to learn (activities). The worker may be or may not be the educator.

In therapy and counselling groups no formal leadership among members is encouraged. There are two roles - therapist and patient, or worker and member. The worker usually has well formulated goals for the group. The leader must also assist in the development of

---

<sup>16</sup> Ibid., p. 97.

therapeutic group norms, e.g., free interaction, self-disclosure, high involvement, nonjudgmental acceptance, acceptance of patient role (self-examination), expression of conflict and affection. Again members should have a say in the specific tasks that will be most helpful to them. The worker may suggest these. The worker facilitates communication, interprets interaction and provides feedback.

In human potential groups there is no formalized leadership structure. The worker generally takes a leadership role since certain skills and knowledge are required. Otherwise a situation similar to counselling and therapy groups is suitable.

Socialization and recreation groups do not necessarily have formalized leadership structures although children's clubs for example may have an executive and short business meetings to plan events or to discuss how to raise money. The worker may influence group goals and norms, although members inevitably have an input into these. Members should play a major role in deciding activities. In all types of groups leadership should change over time. The worker will likely be more dominant at first and help to enable members to take on leadership functions as the group develops.

Communication Network - For groups with different purposes and goals there is a need for various kinds of communication networks. Groups can be structured formally to ensure certain kinds of

<sup>17</sup> Yalom, Op. Cit., p. 13.

communications. An example of a formal communication network is a group with a president, secretary, treasurer or chairman that follows parliamentary procedure. But often more important are the informal communication networks. Some groups are more conducive to informal communications. A group of people may convey information to each other by means of an informal network, e.g., over the backyard fence.

In our interview questionnaire we categorized various kinds of groups and each of these has communication networks, formal and informal. Task groups require an efficient communication network to enable the group to fulfill its purpose - the completion of a task or various tasks. By use of a chairman or president or secretary the communication network becomes formalized, to make the lines of communication clear, enabling the group to complete its task. With task groups the emphasis is on doing and on completing the task. Therefore formal procedures are required. Naturally informal lines of communication form but in the meeting itself formal procedures are used to conduct business, e.g., parliamentary procedure.

The educational groups also requires an efficient communication network since the purpose of the group is diffusion of information. With educational groups often in the initial stages the worker dominates allowing him to give the group members the necessary information. As the communication lines develop there will be more of a mutual sharing of communications in educational groups. The worker may then act in a chairman role, ensuring that there is sufficient flow of information.

Therapy groups initially require the worker to familiarize the members with each other and himself. The worker tries to encourage member-to-member communication right from the beginning with the worker intervening at strategic points.

With human potential groups mutual communication between worker and members would be appropriate. With the emphasis on greater awareness of self, there must be a great amount of member input to achieve the desired goal. The worker must have input in interpreting and guiding the process. This group is composed of already (socially) functioning individuals, and therefore becomes a mutual undertaking to move towards self-awareness. With a human potential group informal communication networks are liable to arise as the members come to know each other better. Human potential groups are very much focused on improving members' abilities to communicate.

Socialization groups meet to allow members to learn to adopt new modes of responses to other people. The emphasis is on enhancing individual social functioning. In the very early stages the communication will likely go from worker to members. However, this should change so that members feel free to talk to the worker and amongst each other. The example of a teen club illustrates persons coming together and developing new modes of responding which allow them to meet new people and to develop meaningful relationships with others. Communication subgroups may be an important benefit from socialization groups. From the group experience these members can then move out to the larger society.

With recreation groups the worker would only dominate initially to dispense information and familiarize the group members with each other. Then through planned activities the communication lines change to member to member, with the secondary benefit of socialization. Informal communication networks are most important in these groups.

The end result for counselling groups should be a mutual sharing of communication between worker and members. Because of the very personal nature of the group, informal and extra-group communications are formed. The group goal is to improve the members' ability to communicate in a positive way with persons in the external world.

Some general statements about communication networks of groups are necessary to summarize. Just as there are groups with different purposes there are different kinds of communication networks. Most groups have formal and informal communication networks. In groups such as task groups informal networks may be minimized to concentrate on doing a job. In socialization groups for instance informal networks become the primary means of communicating. It is informal communication that meets members' personal needs and therefore helps to build cohesiveness and interest in the group which may go beyond interest in the stated purpose. It is hoped that with every group the communication networks develop over time, and that these networks are appropriate and beneficial to the group.

### Method of Analyzing the Data

Data for each group were initially placed in categories based upon the questions in the questionnaire. The placement of some answers into categories was done directly based on workers' responses. Others required judgments on the part of the researchers. At this point we will remind the reader that data are derived from workers' impressions and perceptions and may not always be objective or and they reflect their interpretations of the group process and our questions.

In this section we shall describe the basis upon which classifications were made. Responses to the question regarding atmosphere of the setting were divided into physical and social atmosphere. This was done because many groups met in quite formal rooms, but workers did their best to create an informal atmosphere and did succeed, in their view, in creating an informal atmosphere among the members. The resultant atmosphere was what was put into the social atmosphere column. That is to say that the data collected indicated that a statement of the physical atmosphere was not sufficient to give a true picture of what was happening with regard to atmosphere.

Duration categories were based upon the most frequent duration patterns in the groups studied. These categories also enable us to distinguish between short- and long-term groups. Frequency of meetings was by far mostly weekly; therefore the three category divisions of less than weekly, weekly and more than weekly were considered sufficient without further refinements.



Groups were classified as closed if they had become closed at any point during their operation. Attendance patterns were divided into regular and irregular. Regular is defined as 70 per cent or over and irregular as under 70 per cent of the total membership on the average being present at meetings.

The types of leadership in terms of how much of a role the worker and the members have was divided according to influence on norms, goals, activities and tasks, and meeting place, time, extra-group communication. Responses fell quite easily into worker dominated, member dominated or mutual decisions. Mutual was used to describe cases in which workers acted as members of the group with equal input to members, or when workers made suggestions and members made decisions. Worker dominated groups were those in which the worker himself made most of the decisions and members agreed to these when they joined the group, or when members were not prepared to take on leadership roles. Member dominated groups were those where workers avoided trying to influence decisions and in which members initiated most suggestions.

Categories of social characteristics used in recruiting members were drawn from the data. Common situation was used to define those persons who were placed in groups because of a common situation or status which may or may not have resulted in problems with their lives. Members of many of the education groups fall into this category. For instance, sole support mothers could be having problems, but need not have personal problems to join the group to learn about things that will enhance their ability to cope.

Communications flow was divided into three categories according to the primary direction of the flow. In many cases workers estimated that the flow was approximately equal between worker to members and members to worker. In this case we classified them in the members to worker category. The worker to members category was usually used for educational groups in which workers were doing instructing, etc. unless workers reported a predominance of worker to members communication in other types of groups. The member to member category was for those groups in which members spoke freely among themselves without having to go through the worker.

The category indicating whether or not there has been change over the course of the group was used to deal with differences in the state of communication flow and openness and intimacy in similar groups that had met for different lengths of time. Thus a group that was just completed may have been rated high on openness and intimacy while one that had had only two meetings may have been rated low. The latter, if rated at the same time in the group's stage of development, may have had the same high rating. We felt that if workers indicated that the group was changing in the desired direction, that there was some indication that it may reach the type of communication that is ideal for that type of group. It should be noted that movement in the type of communication flow was not necessarily desired for all groups. Workers indicated that degree of openness and intimacy, as either high, medium or low. The degree of openness was the degree to which all members feel free to and are able to communicate directly with all

other members and worker. In the opinion of the worker they feel that they can be honest in what they say. The degree of intimacy indicated the degree to which members feel free to express personal feelings, thoughts, anxieties, and the degree to which they feel a sense of personal closeness. In cases in which workers stated that the group was as open and intimate as could be expected, but could be more so, they were placed in the moderate category. Content of the discussion was divided into three categories as well. Personal indicated groups in which conversation primarily revolved around the members themselves. The "intellectual" category covers discussion around educational theories or ideas. The "informational" category covers discussion around education that is basically information giving of a practical nature and sharing information among members.

The data for each group were then grouped according to the goal category of the groups. For those types of groups which had more than six in their category tables were drawn to indicate with what degree certain variables were interrelated and associated with each other. We chose selectively those variables that we expected to have a certain relationship to one another, to compare by means of tables. The size of the sample in each category of groups was too small to perform a chi square statistical test for significance. Therefore results are presented in the form of descriptive statistics.

Data for certain groupings of categories were also combined. For some comparisons of variables data were combined for all groups in which individual development through interaction with other members

was the primary goal, i.e., therapy, counselling socialization, recreation and human potential. We felt that variables concerning openness and intimacy for example, would not be as important for task and education groups. For some comparisons and reporting we used the data from the total sample. For some tables producing using the entire sample statistical tests for significance were possible. For others the way in which data were distributed made the use of chi square impossible. Chi square was the only statistical test for significance that we were aware of for use with frequency data.

For some other data in percentages, graphs were drawn comparing results on certain variables among all types of groups and the total sample.

From these tables, graphs and analyses, were drawn tentative conclusions about the findings recognizing that we were unable to determine significance statistically for most of our findings.

It should be noted that totals for some tables do not always add up to the total number in the sample because in some cases responses fell into more than one category, e.g., content of discussion. In other cases there was no responses suitable, e.g., in play therapy groups there was no group discussion at all.

In some of our tabular analyses, categories were combined which were conceptually similar when data were spread sparsely throughout the table in order to give a clearer picture of the degree of association between variables. For instance member to worker and worker to member communication were combined because they both indicated a lack of

member to member communication. Group size categories and worker training categories were sometimes combined with their closest counterpart.

#### CRITIQUE OF METHOD

In this section of our report we shall critically comment on the method used in the study.

One major problem that the researchers encountered resulted from a shift in emphasis in the purpose of the study. At first we were more interested in judging the appropriateness of what workers were doing in the groups in terms of what was generally accepted in the literature. Our emphasis shifted gradually to description of what was occurring in the agencies as a whole as well as in particular groups. Our desire was not so much to make judgments as to report findings. Our questionnaire was designed when there was more emphasis upon judging appropriateness and therefore concentrated on obtaining information just about the parameters. We could have asked for information about workers' preparation for working with their group, e.g., did they look for and read studies about groups similar to their own? We also could have asked workers for more of their opinions about what conditions are favourable for their group goals. In this way our questionnaire would have been more pertinent for our revised purposes.

One of the reasons that we de-emphasized appropriateness was because of the lack of unambiguous findings in the literature re

appropriate parameters for certain kinds of groups. There are differences and a lack of clarity as to what is more effective for what group goals. The limits of appropriateness must be indefinite and generalized.

One major fault with the study was insufficient pretesting of the questionnaire. The group of researchers met after one member had conducted one interview with a worker and one with an agency director. No significant changes were made as a result. By the time the interviewing was completed we could see that there was information that we did not obtain that would have been useful to obtain, and that there were several questions that were irrelevant or of minor importance. We could have asked for how long groups had been meeting. This would have helped us to compare differences in group life at different stages of development.

There was also a lack of clarity among the interviewers as to the meaning of some terms and this was reflected in the data recorded. For instance "irregular attendance" was not operationally defined beforehand and some data were received on the form of the actual numbers present while in some cases workers gave their own judgment as to whether it was regular. As well workers interpreted some terms differently due to lack of clarity in the questionnaire. For example, we did not clearly define what we meant by the "Chairman role." Some workers interpreted it in a business meeting sense while others interpreted it to mean "co-ordinator." Therefore there were opposite responses to the question of whether the worker was chairman, when in

fact the workers were playing the same role. We can see now how the questionnaire could have been more precise. However, it should be kept in mind, that the exploratory nature of our study presupposes that there is not the necessary prior knowledge of the problem to be studied, to know precisely what questions should be asked.

We collected more information than we could analyze or report. We, therefore, had to be selective about the comparisons and analyses made. Since all data were in the form of frequencies, the kind of statistical test that could be used was limited to chi square. The small size of the sample when divided into types of groups made it impossible to use the chi square for many of our tables. It was not possible to use it for many of our tables using the total sample either because of the way in which data were distributed in the tables.

### CHAPTER III

#### REPORT OF DATA ON AGENCIES

Seven agencies were studied in the course of our research, and a great deal of information about them was collected. Following is a report of information accumulated about certain aspects of the seven agencies studied. In particular, we were interested in the purpose of the agencies, the history of the development of groups within them and finally a recording of their present group usage. We now turn to an agency by agency description of this material.

#### 1. Child Guidance Clinic

The Child Guidance Clinic of Greater Winnipeg utilizes an interdisciplinary approach in providing specialized mental health and educational services to school children in the metropolitan Winnipeg area. The implementation of these services is based upon an underlying philosophy which adheres to a "continuous growth and development" orientation. Thus, the focus of Child Guidance Clinic is intended to include both the functional and dysfunctional aspects of the child in working toward achievement at a level of functioning closer to his potential.

In acting as a resource to the metropolitan Winnipeg school system, the Child Guidance Clinic has the basic objective of providing professional help to children who have behavioural, learning, communication and/or personal problems. Formally stated, the specific



goal of the Child Guidance Clinic "... is to effect a change in the  
dysfunctioning child toward a level of performance optimal for him."<sup>1</sup>

In keeping with these philosophies, objectives and goals and also  
in attempting to accommodate the ever-increasing demands of a complex  
growing and changing school system, the Child Guidance Clinic has under-  
gone numerous changes in its twenty years of historical development.

In September 1969, the clinic commenced a progressive modification  
of its mode of delivering services which held the implication of major  
operational and structural changes for the enhancement of a service to  
clients. This modification involves the delivery of service through  
an interdisciplinary unit. This unit system will be elaborated on more  
fully in what follows. At the time of our study, complete development  
of the program had not yet taken place, that is to say, that evidence  
of "growing pains" were still present. Before continuing on to offer  
a brief description of the present operation and structure, we note  
that this conception of delivery service is perceived by the ad-  
ministrators of the agency being as one of the more innovative in  
North America.

The Child Guidance Clinic employs 150 professionals representing  
the disciplines of Psychology, Social Work, Clinical Reading, Speech  
and Hearing and Psychiatry. This professional staff is divided into  
22 units of service. Each unit is responsible for a particular  
geographic area of metropolitan Winnipeg, determined as the area

---

<sup>1</sup> Child Guidance Clinic, Revision of Programming, September 2,  
1969. (Printed Document).

following area

served by a senior high school and all of its junior high and elementary feeder schools (a potential client population of about 5,000). Each unit typically contains one or more members from each of the disciplines (usually two social workers, and one each of the others) and a unit secretary. In each disciplinary unit, each member has a broad basic knowledge of child behaviour and at the same time possesses knowledge and expertise in a particular area.

Operationalized, referrals come into a unit through a program assistant. There are three program assistants, each being responsible for the co-ordinating of approximately seven units. For each referral the unit assigns, there is a case manager who compiles relevant information and submits an assessment. On the basis of the assessment information, the unit decides on a treatment plan.

Units are relatively autonomous. Decisions, such as which discipline will deliver service and the method of service delivery (intensive psychotherapy, family therapy, case work, group work, individual instruction, consultation, etc.) rests with the unit. The onus for the provision of the service falls on staff as a part of their professional responsibility. In light of this, the decision to use groups, or group work methods, is also made in the unit or by individual workers.

Attempts to trace the historical development of group movement in Child Guidance Clinic through interviews with administrators such as the assistant director and program assistants yielded a variety of different perspectives. Generally, agreement was reached in the

following areas:

as inter - that groups have been used in the agency since the Child Guidance Clinic originated. Some uses of groups were; physical problem oriented groups in speech and hearing and group supervision.

mainly - that only more recently have groups been used to focus on personal problems and relationships.

mainly - that more recent developments in group use originated and were promoted by the Psychology Department.

- that developments have typically been "grass roots" in nature, i.e., little or no influence from administration and not formally prescribed as a method of service delivery. The use of groups spread as success was achieved by individual workers.

of the - that the decision to work with groups rests with the individual as he feels capable and wants to work with groups regardless of training or experience.

mainly - that favourable development has led to hiring practises which involve taking on staff whose specific skills and training are in group work methods, although the expectation is that they will carry other responsibilities as well.

mainly There are two main administrative streams at Child Guidance Clinic. The program development planning area is concerned with the operation of the unit and the delivery of service through the unit system. The assistant director and program development assistants hold responsibilities related to this area. The other part of the administrative structure at Child Guidance Clinic concerns itself with

an intensive program of professional development. The responsibilities for this program lie mainly with the discipline and assistant discipline heads representing each profession. The objectives are to develop and maintain professional growth through programs which meet professional development needs of individuals in the various fields. Courses, seminars, etc. are offered in various techniques, one of which would include group work methods.

Of the 150 professional workers at Child Guidance Clinic, approximately 25 work with groups. These 25 workers primarily represent the disciplines of social work, psychology and speech and hearing therapy. There were approximately 40 groups in operation at the time of this study. The majority of groups at this agency have memberships below ten members, a large number below five. At the highest we would estimate 400 clients were served through groups. The Assistant Executive Director estimates that in one year the clinic has contact with approximately 9,000 clients.

In keeping with an interdisciplinary team approach, direct services to clients were provided through the unit. In several instances, social workers and psychologists worked together as co-therapists.

In working primarily with dysfunctional school-age children whose problems are manifest in behaviour, learning, communication and personal areas, uses of groups were evident. Groups were used most frequently for socialization, therapy (including play therapy), counselling, discussion and recreation. Through the reports of various

workers, the general purposes in various groups were stated as:

- enhanced peer relations, through interaction, communication and peer group learning;
- accomplishment of treatment goals which were not possible in taking a casework approach such as formation of peer relationships, practice in interaction and communication skills;
- insight and support in personal problems;
- allowing for the expression of feelings; and
- experience in terms of seeing more individuals by clustering them into groups rather than seeing them on a one-to-one basis.

Some workers disagreed, saying that preparation for groups and seeing individual members of groups took more time than casework.

Child Guidance Clinic, at the time of this study, had not used formal means of evaluating the use of groups in the agency. Evaluation of the effectiveness of the use of groups has taken the form of professional judgment or self-progress reports of the worker which are tabulated statistically, supervision, and unit meetings or school progress reports on the children. The administrative staff interviewed in our study were aware of the lack of a formal measuring tool, consultant services and research projects to evaluate and examine the present use of groups and their future direction at Child Guidance Clinic. These staff members stated that although measuring and predictive instruments were needed, staff and funds were not available to carry out research.

Much of the emphasis in the present use of groups at Child Guidance Clinic centres around the dysfunctional child. Child Guidance Clinic also recognizes the existence of an "external team" which includes teachers, principals, parents, family doctors, school nurses and significant others in the child's environment.

Future uses of groups at Child Guidance Clinic could encompass these other meaningful persons. This would create a broader perspective of the child which might consider the functional and dysfunctional elements of the child's environment including school system, family situation and community in general.

## 2. The Children's Aid Society of Winnipeg

The Children's Aid Society of Winnipeg is a large child welfare agency which serves the entire geographical area of the City of Winnipeg, excluding only St. Boniface. Mr. Schellenberg, the agency's assistant executive director described their purpose as being to assure a minimum standard of care for every child in the area it serves. Their first philosophical goal is "to try to help children." They are aided in their work by the authority and responsibility of implementing the Child Welfare Act of Manitoba.

The agency, the largest non-governmental social work agency in the city, has divided its service into three departments: Family Service, Interim Placement and Extended Care, and Unmarried Mothers and Adoption. Agency clientel are differentiated by these departments. Clients in Family Service tend to be characterized by membership in the lower

socio-economic strata, although this is not a rigid rule. Clientel in the Unmarried Mothers department is not differentiated by any particular sub-group status. The Adoption department tends to deal with middle class families, in contrast to the Family Service department. We note that a large proportion of the group work clients are adults. The prime focus is on the care of children. However, in order to achieve their goals they work with adults as an indirect method of serving the interest of children. For example, they work with unmarried mothers, putative fathers, parents, foster parents, adoptive parents, volunteers, and other agencies. Agency records show that at the end of any given month they have roughly six thousand clients. This figure does not include the agency's volunteer workers, foster parents, homemakers and successful adoptive parents, all who may be involved in agency group program. We know that all intake for foster homes, adoption services and unmarried mother services are provided through group intake. We know that there are staff supervision and training groups as well as homemaker groups, volunteer groups, foster parent and adoptive parent clubs, as well as some developmental groups to provide essential agency services, such as counselling.

Using figures for October 1971, all of the agency's 39 adoption applications would be dealt with in some form of group. The 59 cases of unmarried mothers would also be dealt with in group intake and then if the girls choose, all further services would be handled through a group. All girls in the three homes for unmarried mothers and those

at the YMCA school for unmarried mothers would also receive group services. There were 17 girls at this school. There are foster parent associations which have developed in all areas of the city. Where the group program does not affect a large portion of the clientele is in the 3032 active cases of children in their own homes, the 1360 in paid care and the 1073 active family cases. There were four groups dealing with children and one group of three families.

There are, as with any history, conflicting ideas as to the who, where and why of the development of the group movement within the agency. Two somewhat different explanations arise between the administration's view of change and the view originating at the worker level. The administrative perspective is that the change to the use of groups came about very simply through their decision-making. The workers' story takes in a lengthy history of changing attitudes. We would assume that each account has validity, the difference lying in the perspective of the agency that their respective positions afford. All forces would agree that a combination of the general popularity of the group movement, the interest of agency personnel, and the hiring of certain social group workers, were the major currents underlying the development of a group program at the agency.

The turning point for the group movement is marked in agency history by a series of in-service training sessions held by Walter Lampe of the School of Social Work. Professor Lampe was invited by the agency administration which reflects a conscious commitment to the method. This was in 1968. We know that prior to this any experimentation with



groups went on with little agency support. Workers would have to take the initiative in group programming and would have to do this outside of the completion of their other duties to the agency. Around the time of the sessions given by Lampe, there were several social group worker students involved with the agency, as summer workers, on bursary, or in a field placement from the School of Social Work. They were seen on staff and through stimulation by presentation of ideas as well as experimentation and demonstration began to influence other workers. At first these workers felt that a great deal of risk had to be taken on their part to "sell" supervisors and other staff on the idea. One worker reported that other workers "clutched to their case loads" and were perceived as quite reluctant to help. Time and example brought cooperation and adoption of the method by other workers, as well as formal acceptance as a tool of service by some departments.

The role of the social group worker as the innovator of a new method can be seen clearly in this agency. One social group worker worked in the unmarried mother and adoption department and it was this that was the quickest to adopt a fairly full group program. Extended care also had a social group worker who implemented and has coached the development of many groups in that department. In January 1971, the Interim Placement department under advisement from the social group worker began use of the method. The Family Service department known as the department with a high crisis caseload, first experimented with a group of alcoholic parents, which failed. Either as a consequence of this, the lack of a trained group worker or because of the particular

nature of the caseload, group development has been slow here. The group workers in the agency have very much experienced an advisory role with the furtherance of the group program.

In outlining the extent of the group program at this agency, one is amazed by its rapid growth within four years. Within any one month at the agency there are approximately 35 groups, primarily for clients, but also staff groups being run within the agency. The use of groups for supervision is widely accepted and some respondents felt that has played a role in the democratization of the agency. Persons at the top and bottom levels of the agency pyramid come closer to a mutual understanding of each other through this process. The majority of groups at the agency were described by workers as being educational, socialization and recreational. The agency has also widely adopted the use of group intake, for example in adoptions, unmarried mothers and foster parents. The Unmarried Mothers and Adoption department is both pioneer and the department with the greatest use of groups and there seems to be a heavy reliance on it as the primary mode of service. It is not as widely acclaimed in the Interim Placement and Extended Care department. However, it is increasing in status and in the number of staff converts. It is viewed here as being an expedient tool. This in contrast to unmarried mothers and adoption where it is seen as the most appropriate method of meeting client needs. A statement of Mr. Schellenberg would be true for this department's feeling. "There are certain client groups you can't reach with casework." In the Family Service department where crisis is the daily fare, group work is seen as a luxury. There is no social group worker here, nor any commitment

to the concept as a means of meeting client needs. At present the agency employs three social group workers within two of its departments and the arrival of another is anticipated in the spring of 1972. These workers are not employed specifically for their training in group work, but to perform certain tasks. They have through their own initiative been able to affect the process of development of a group program. We note here that this great dependence on the group method was not a planned course of action on the agency's part. To date there is no group work department and workers are not hired specifically to work with groups. The agency formally sanctioned group development and then it was left to evolve naturally. We can still see this process taking place within the Interim Placement department with workers experimenting very much on their own initiative.

Workers were asked to state some of their ideas for future use of groups in the agency. We would like to include some of these responses with our own visionary ideas for group program development in this agency.

1. The development of a group work department, to service both clients and staff with a budget to coordinate, advise and improve group services and their development within the agency.

2. The provision of suitable meeting facilities. Since most of the groups are educational, socialization, and recreational, and the desired atmosphere is informal.

3. The development of a centralized collection of group process records for education and evaluative purposes. Here records of certain

experimental forms of group use could be kept and from these future uses could be evaluated in the light of more knowledge. Records could also be useful for workers to learn new techniques and recognize errors.

4. As the agency leans towards more preventive types of work, there should be an increase in the use of groups for: public relations and education, follow-up and support for foster and adoptive parents, general mental health work with clients through human potential groups. Organization of client self-help groups and social action groups.

5. Workers recommended closer liaison with group programs in other agencies and felt more groups of children could be used as a medium towards development of involvement skills, the goal being greater participation in the community. There could be more groups of a problem orientation around glue sniffing or truancy for instance. Meeting other persons with the same problem and realizing that one is not alone can be a key factor in changing a person's attitude towards his problem. In these cases where there is a very specific shared behaviour problem the mutuality may provide for a feeling of comfort within which members are free to resolve their problems.

6. Work with putative fathers in a group similar to those for unmarried mothers. It is felt by some workers that there is a need for some form of counselling services for putative fathers. This is the hypothesis for another research project being undertaken at the School of Social Work now. Again it is felt by workers that group services would provide the mutuality of support which they hypothesize these fathers need to work their problem through in a positive manner.

### 3. Social Service Department Children's Hospital

This agency is a secondary setting reflecting the structure of the hospital. Various departments of the hospital have social workers attached to them. The Social Service Department has been without a director for six months and before the last one took over there had been a two year period without a director. Two workers are attached to each of Psychiatry, Child Development, Medical Wards, and Outpatient Departments, while one is involved with the Comprehensive Experimental Project.

The purpose of the Social Service Department is to deal with social problems that become obvious through the treatment of a medical problem. The medical problem may be a cause of stress or it may be a symptom of an existing stress. Referral to other appropriate agencies, e.g., Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Cystic Fibrosis Association, is a major way in which the department meets its purposes. Some casework is done directly with clients. As well they try to coordinate existing services and getting them in touch with each other. The department finds temporary and permanent housing for those in need, provides transportation to and from the hospital, and deals with marital problems and child protection and behaviour.

The first group, Nursery Mothers, was begun in the Child Development Clinic three or four years ago and has continued every year. It is designed to educate and support mothers whose children are in the hospital nursery because of behaviour problems. It is looked upon as a regular part of the Child Development Clinic programme. One socialization

group of teenage girls in the Outpatients Department was begun last year and is operating again this year under the leadership of two of the social work students placed at the agency. As well an educational group for parents of pre-school children was operated by the group worker on staff at the Child Development Clinic this year.

Groups are still used as individual workers feel motivated to do so. It is not part of the overall social service policy or programme to use groups. There is a growing use of speaking to groups outside the hospital for public education and prevention purposes, e.g., as has been done with YWCA neighbours. In the future, the interviewed worker hoped that the Child Development Clinic may become involved in groups for parents of children with cystic fibrosis. These already exist, but the hospital is not directly involved. Groups for parents of children with aggressive behaviour disorders could be started depending upon whether the right personality mix is possible and a convenient time for all can be found. It is felt that perhaps Neighbourhood Service Centres, Tenants Associations, self-help groups and other existing groups could be approached, to offer them four to six sessions on child development and family life education. Another possibility is to involve churches in post-marital education, e.g., at the time of the first pregnancy. The feeling of the staff person interviewed is that there should be no distinct difference between group and individual treatment because they are part of the same process and goals. Effective group work programmes could very likely be increased if there was a director for the entire social service department who

was aware of how they have been used so far and of the ideas that workers had for the future. In this way all workers could be made aware of groups that have been implemented in each department of the hospital and would be encouraged perhaps, to start groups on their own. It appears that much preventive work can be accomplished if the ideas of the group worker on staff can be implemented.

#### 4. John Howard Society

The purposes of the John Howard Society are to focus on the needs of adult men and women who have appeared in adult court and who have spent some time in a correctional institution. They try to help give former inmates an opportunity to rejoin society without discrimination, and to help them change themselves or their behaviour as well so that this is possible. They also undertake to educate the public about ex-convicts. Along with this they put forth effort to reform the penal system to be more humane and effective. Their goals to meet these purposes are to provide clients with jobs and counselling. They communicate their ideas on penal reform to the government and undertake public education programs. Direct services provided include: immediate emergency cash assistance, supplying clothing for work, loaning tools for work, counselling and rehabilitation, preparing plans for release, assessing for parole, making recommendations for parole, appearing before the nation parole panel, and supervising parolees. The overriding social characteristic of the clients is that they are adult ex-inmates and are likely from lower socio-economic backgrounds.

Of 6,167 clients on the caseload last year a very small percentage was involved in groups. The agency workers themselves do not work with groups. Students from the Psychological Services Centre at the University of Manitoba and a summer student worker have been in charge of the groups operated.

The idea of using groups originated with Mr. Len Keminski, assistant executive director. The first group was operated last year (1970-1971) and involved marriage counselling with three couples, the husbands of which were parolees. There was resistance to participate because, while casework is compulsory for parolees, group participation is not. During the summer of 1971 a group of unemployed men was begun to discuss problems of unemployment and ways of finding jobs. Four meetings were held and several members did find employment. The experience was not as successful as the Toronto group on which it was based. The idea for the group came from a report of a group for unemployed men to help them find jobs which was operated by the John Howard Society in Toronto. This group was terminated shortly after it was begun because all members found work. This fall again a marriage counselling group for parolees and their wives was started, but was terminated due to lack of attendance.

The problem of compulsory group work for parolees has not yet been worked out as it has for casework. The agency is not sure what effect making group participation compulsory would have. The fact that reports are made on them makes parolees fear the free expression that is a value of group experience. As it stands now, workers must



convince parolees that group involvement is worthwhile. Those that voluntarily seek help are few and are reluctant to join groups. They would rather share their problems on a one-to-one basis. The agency would like to use more groups as a part of and to enhance the same process going on in the casework relationship. If funds permitted they would like to hire a group worker. They would like to follow through with groups formed in prisons and continue with the same members in the community. They would perhaps like to try to experiment with working with the same prisoners in a group living situation in prison and in the community so that ex-inmates could give mutual support to each other as they work towards gradual independence.

#### 5. Psychiatric Institute

At the Psychiatric Institute the supervisor of the Social Services Department was interviewed. The Social Service Department at the Psychiatric Institute is a secondary service and as such the department operates within the policies of the Psychiatric Institute. Most of the clients at the Institute are diagnosed as schizophrenic. The General Hospital with which the Institute is associated, is bio-chemistry oriented and this means that when the diagnosis is schizophrenic the attitude is "you don't waste much time on psycho-therapy." As social workers in a hospital setting of this orientation they provide help other than psycho-therapy. The workers do supportive therapy, casework, and some group work. One other aspect of the Social Service Department is the social workers work daily as a team

with doctors and nurses.

The overall purpose of the department is to provide social services to in-patients and out-patients and their relatives. The goals of this department is to get the patient treated and able to cope with his environment out in the community. At the same time the staff works with the patient's relatives to reduce their anxieties.

The Psychiatric Institute has approximately eight hundred and eighty-six admissions a year. The whole operation is divided into in-patients and out-patients. To meet the needs of the in-patients, out-patients and their relatives several types of services have been developed. Traditional hospital record taking is done to obtain psychosocial histories, and data for diagnostic purposes. The second area of service is "tangible" services which range from the worker carrying a patient's suitcase, making a telephone call for the patient to referring the client or their family to another agency.

Casework is the main method of providing service to the clients, but at present two groups are provided for by the Social Service department. A third area of service is involvement with out-patients, and this is called psycho-therapy for lack of a better term. Mr. Zuhowski sees it as more of a supportive type of casework. Most of the out-patients are maladjusted to the environment and are usually unemployable. A small group of out-patients are in contact with the agency almost daily. They phone workers they feel able to talk to about their problems. Most out-patients have brief contacts of an informative nature. Approximately 1,376 out-patients are seen about six times a year.

The home visit service has the worker going to the patient's home checking on the patient's progress, offering assistance if necessary. The Public Health nurses at the Psychiatric Institute are doing home visiting also and as a result the Social Service department this year is providing home visiting to about one half as many patients as in the previous year. If a patient does not come to see the psychiatrist, the patient is called by the social worker and then the worker goes to see him. If after attempting to negotiate with the patient, persuade him etc., they will not come, a report is made and further action is up to the doctor.

When considering the development of the group program one has to consider it with the development of the hospital. The Psychology department used to be very interested in groups; they have had groups for seven or eight years. At present the Psychology department is not using groups. Directors and supervisors of the Psychology department come and go and focus changes. About four years ago the nurses were involved in helping the young adults. The nurses were appointed by the psychologist. Groups were thought of as being useful in terms of "nursing management", i.e., they got patients off the wards. The psychiatrist in charge saw the group once a week for group psychotherapy. The rest of the time a nurse ran the group. Patients never used to have anything to do after the doctor saw them. They would lay on the beds, but they now have something to get up to, to get dressed for. This was the main reason for development of groups. The time of development also had to do with the high rate of admissions of young

people during the last four years. With the more permissive use of drugs many young people are being admitted to the hospital.

Presently the Social Service department directly runs two groups - the "young adults" and the "silent majority." Connected with the General Hospital are the Alcoholic Anonymous and Geriatric Groups. At the Psychiatric Institute last summer, a group work student began using groups as a method of helping the clients. This year the supervisor Mr. Zuhowski and one other worker, Mrs. Boychuk, operate groups. Neither have had group work training and this is the first group for both. With the freeze on jobs because of the re-organization of the Department of Health and Social Development, Mr. Zuhowski has been unable to acquire the one worker he is short.

Mr. Zuhowski sees a potential for use of groups at the Psychiatric Institute. He would like a person trained in group work to develop a program. He foresees the use of groups in several areas. One area of great concern is the services provided for the out-patients. He often wonders if they do not devote too much time to in-patients. When the patients are in the hospital the doctors push to "get this done with this patient." Unfortunately with the out-patient the pressure is not there. The number of out-patients increases ten per cent every year. Ten per cent of patients who leave are likely to return for service to the Social Service department. There is a need for several out-patient groups. Some counselling groups, some information groups - how to get a job, how to apply for assistance etc., and socialization groups were outlined. With the in-patients, the psychotic and

non-psychotic patients need to be separated. Mr. Zuhowski feels the clients at the Psychiatric Institute are virtually untapped and many groups could develop.

## 6. Family Bureau

Mr. George Penwarden, director of the Family Bureau, said their purpose was to reinforce, strengthen and enhance family life. Last year, 1971, the Bureau served 2,700 families. The Bureau is a non-sectarian voluntary agency that provides voluntary services and as such does not have the authority of the Juvenile Court etc. The emphasis on all programs is family focused, not to the exclusion of working with an individual if necessary. In terms of goals and objectives, while they provide direct services to individuals and families, they also work on behalf of the family in an advocacy role.

The Family Bureau provides a wide range of services. In the area of direct services there is the family counselling department. People who come here are experiencing personal or relationship problems, economic difficulties, or some form of interactional dysfunction. There may be marital problems, parent-child, economic, social or work relationship problems. The largest group that comes is experiencing marital problems. The next largest category is parent-child difficulties.

The homemaker service is used primarily on families where there is no mother present. This is different from the traditional homemaker services in which they are used during a short term emergency.

problem, e.g., the mother is in the hospital. This service is geared to the home where the mother is gone through death, desertion, or divorce. If the mother is present there may be a physical disability, or mental illness with the mother in and out of the hospital. It is longer term and the Family Bureau works to keep the family together. The Family Day Care services provide care for children in family homes, as opposed to group care. It is different from day nurseries. Sole support mothers, working mothers that are alone that have pre-schoolers and need care for the child, use this service. The Family Bureau finds a family home - one family to one family, in walking distance from her home. The mother takes the child there in the morning and picks him up in the evening. A lot of these children are too young for group care. The Community Services Department is responsible for Family Life education programmes. Through this department the Bureau takes an advocacy role and is involved in social action work (e.g. being resource to the Manitoba Association for Children with Emotional Disorders). In this area the Family Bureau has become more heavily involved in the last year or year and a half. This service is evolving more and more and is bringing the agency in contact with the community in a new and broader way. It is an effort to respond to concerns by individuals and groups and engage in experimental work.

Presently there are thirteen staff members working with groups. Therefore half the staff have some involvement in a group of some kind or another. This encompasses approximately 150 clients that come to the agency. In the area of service just described there is a wide range

of groups. These include counselling, human potential, educational and socialization groups. With its expansion in the use of groups the Family Bureau has managed to operate a very diverse selection of groups.

The Family Bureau has not been using groups with clients for very long. Mr. Penwarden can recall five years back. Beyond the five year period there may have been a group or two. Mr. Penwarden recalls five years ago, the Homemaking Department found that when mothers were missing from the home, the teen-age daughters were given responsibilities far beyond their capacities and the girls were not able to participate in activities that allowed for their own growth and development. The Family Bureau brought a group of girls together and it became a discussion group with outings and a social atmosphere. The idea of having a group program came from all over. Mr. Penwarden said that when he came to the agency he felt that the use of groups was appropriate and necessary and not from an economic point of view. He feels that it is a process where people can together work out problems. Up until two years ago none of the workers had been deployed for development of the program. Two years ago one of the counselling staff with group work experience was released to work half time to bring together groups and decide what kinds were needed etc. That year they had two marital counselling groups and a teener's group. Since then the groups have been on-going, and a staff member from the group counselling department is still developing and co-ordinating the groups. The Family Bureau also has a group consultant from the School of Social Work to work with the people who are working with groups, and teaching others from the

counselling department. With the developing community services, there is a changing concept of agency; there is a commitment in terms of staff to develop new programs and assist in planning etc. The potential for the development of groups in this area is unlimited and will most certainly develop. Mr. Penwarden pointed out that they have not completely sorted out the group program as yet. Questions arise such as, when is a group a counselling group, a therapy group, an educational group? In Community Service the Bureau has deployed a worker and hired a group worker.

Where the group program goes in the future depends upon where the agency goes in the future in terms of its development and direction. The Community Service area will grow and extend as they have the staff and services. Out of a response to the community, group activities will develop. Mr. Penwarden felt that counselling groups will continue to grow in number. He felt this would occur as workers became more comfortable with the method. He hoped that as the Family Bureau's own people become more skilled in group work, they will be able to move into work with other groups or organizations who are developing programs on a consulting or planning basis; then agency resources could be utilized by others. The Family Bureau as an agency is changing from direct service to other dimensions, such as involvement in program development, social action, community education, and is experimenting with groups.



## 7. West Office

The purposes of the Western Provincial Office of Health and Social Development include meeting the needs of individuals and families in need of financial help and counselling. The means for fulfilling these purposes are application of the Social Allowance Act, and helping those who are eligible for provincial social assistance. Counselling is available to anyone, but is generally sought only by those who are receiving assistance. The clientele are therefore usually from lower socio-economic backgrounds or have been thrown into a state of financial distress through desertion. Help is given to unemployable unemployed, unmarried mothers, and sole support mothers.

Mothers' Allowance groups are the only type that have been operated in this agency. Out of approximately seven thousand recipients of Mothers' Allowance, sixty have been involved in these groups. The idea of using groups to deliver service originated with the initiative of one worker as a part of the national rise of the popularity of groups for client participation. The members of the first Mothers' Allowance group were interested in upgrading their educational standing, by going back to school or enrolling in some other institution. Programs were mainly information giving. These were quite successful in terms of members getting further education. In further groups, workers built on the socialization component, and interest in social action for self-help grew. The Council of Self-Help groups developed as an independent coalition for social action concerns. The Mothers' Allowance groups are now quite independent of workers; only one of the three has any contact with the agency and this only once a month.

The agency also attempted information giving groups to tell clients of their rights. Attendance was quite low and it was concluded that there was no real need for this service. They now try to ensure that this information is given at the time of intake.

One Mothers' Allowance group ran by two workers with no group work education became quite hostile to the workers and the agency. The group stayed together without agency support. This is said to have frightened many workers with no group work experience into thinking that this is what all group experiences are like. The one worker left using a group is enthused about the possibilities of group services, and is in charge of a team of workers whom she hopes to encourage to use groups. It is felt that more time will be allowed for group use when personal services are separated from income maintenance and social workers have smaller caseloads. A few years ago the agency administration considered group work as an extra activity and did not allow workers time off from casework activities to do it. This attitude has changed according to the worker interviewed, and workers now are compensated for the time spent working with groups. Group work is still not an integral part of the agency's program. Judging from the success of the existing group, in helping women to become self-supporting or to lead more enjoyable lives on assistance, much could be accomplished through groups in terms of individual enhancement and prevention of families become dependent upon welfare generation after generation.

In the above discussion of the seven agencies in our study the focus has been on describing how the use of groups developed for

each agency, to where that development has led in terms of the present use of groups in each agency and finally on the potential inherent in future group use and development.

In the following section, we will present a summary and analysis, illuminating the broad differences in group usage between the aforementioned agencies.

The use of groups in the various agencies... (faded text)

The following section... (faded text)

## CHAPTER IV

### REPORT OF FINDINGS

#### Agency Comparisons

In this section, we will discuss the noticeable differences in the use of groups at the various agencies we studied. After completing our interviews it became apparent there were outstanding differences in the number, kind and size, etc. of groups from agency to agency. The groups in one agency would consistently fall into one of our categories, while another with similar goals would occupy other categories. We felt it would be meaningful to report here the gross differences obvious at simple inspection. We will now move into our observations.

The first and most obvious difference between agencies was the number of groups. Three of our agencies sampled had a very small number of groups. The provincial West Office had only one group. The John Howard Society had no groups operating at present, but our sample was from September 1971 and they had tried a group within that period. The Psychiatric Institute was presently operating two groups, while Children's Hospital had three since September. On the other hand, the Family Bureau was operating thirteen groups, the Children's Aid Society of Winnipeg had in excess of 22 groups which were chosen as a sample for that agency. The Child Guidance Clinic also reported an extensive use of groups, with a figure around 40.

From agency to agency, there was a variation in focus in the "kinds" of groups mentioned; three of the agencies were operating a very minimal group program. However, this trend was found predominantly amongst the smaller agencies. The type of group that they operated then was closely related to the agency's purpose, i.e., John Howard. The Children's Aid Society groups tended to fall into the categories of: Education, Socialization, and Recreation. In contrast, the Child Guidance Clinic groups, also an agency which deals with the problems of children, seemed to predominantly run therapy groups. It was also the agency having groups with a membership of under six. It was also the only agency to have mostly children's groups. The Family Bureau displayed its uniqueness through the use of a broad categorization of groups. Types ranged from Counselling to Human Potential and Task Oriented. The kinds of clients served through groups also proved to be an interesting differentiation. The Provincial West Office used its group for clients receiving public assistance. The majority of groups experimented with this type of agency has been composed of women as this one was. The John Howard Society had attempted a group with parolees; the Psychiatric Institute used groups with its own clients, who they reported tended to originate from a lower socio-economic background. The Family Bureau used groups throughout its broad range of clients and types of service. The Children's Hospital and the Child Guidance Clinic employed groups primarily with children. The Children's Aid Society was more inclined towards using groups with

adults. This agency stands out on two counts here. First, whereas all the other agencies used groups to service their primary clients, the C.A.S. used groups to service secondary clients. Service was provided for adults who would play instrumental roles in the lives of the children of the agency's central concern. There were groups which consisted of children, yet, the height of group activity rested with parent groups. This is in direct contrast to the Child Guidance Clinic which dealt with a childhood membership and its primary clients.

The worker's training and perspective is noteworthy in three agencies, C.A.S., C.G.C., and the Family Bureau. At the Family Bureau most of the workers were trained social caseworkers. Some had informal group work training and several with experience in the human potential movement. Many of the workers in this agency stated that they had no group goals, but only individual goals for members. In the C.A.S., training seemed to run a broader spectrum than at the Family Bureau. Here there were many social caseworkers, social welfare graduates and social group workers. Seven per cent of the group sample was run by social group workers who also played a key role in advising the development of other agency groups. At C.G.C., there is a multi-disciplinary, which distinguishes it from the social work focus of the previous two agencies. Workers here had a great deal of autonomy and tended to view the use of groups as an expedient (i.e., to do more work in less time) method of service delivery.

The time of group meetings has often been thought of as the group worker's curse. The C.A.S. data seem to bear this out. The

majority of group meetings held at this agency were held in the evening. Group use at the Family Bureau was also heavily weighed towards evenings. The C.G.C., which worked primarily with children, held most of their meetings during the day. The data of all the agencies reported that very few group meetings were held in the mornings.

Through the agency data, the use of food as a means of developing group comfort was widely recognized. Coffee was included as being food, and most adult groups tended to consume this beverage at their meetings. It may be noted that if ever social group workers should have the cause to carry a little black bag with them it will assuredly contain coffee, cream and sugar!

Atmosphere and the physical setting of group meeting places was widely seen by workers as being an important variable in producing desired group results. Common to all agencies was the lack of readiness for the group phenomena in terms of the agency's physical layout. Workers, conscious of the environmental influence, have often had to improvise or put up with an unsuitable physical environment. The data from C.A.S. seemed to indicate a correlation between an informal physical environment had corresponding informal social environments. The Psychiatric Institute was equipped with an informal room for group therapy. The C.G.C. workers, unlike C.A.S. workers, felt that they were able to use formal meeting rooms, often in schools and develop an informal social environment quite independent of the physical atmosphere. The Family Bureau workers were quite sensitive to the environment and their data reveal a correlation between informal

atmosphere and the informal social climate, as at C.A.S. The C.G.C. held most of its group meetings outside of the agency - in the schools. The C.A.S. had a 60-40 per cent split between in and out. Family Bureau groups were run primarily within the agency. A similar concern for this type of environment was evident at C.G.C. and Psychiatric Institute.

There were also distinctions between the time duration of groups, within the larger agencies. The majority of C.A.S. groups were of an on-going nature. Most of these were either open-ended membership groups or were held on a repetitive basis with a totally new membership on each occasion. An example would be an Unmarried Mothers' Group which is operated weekly as their method of intake. C.G.C. groups fell into the category between six months and twelve months. Most of the groups follow the school year as do most of the activities of that agency. Their groups usually ran between eight to ten months with a fairly consistent membership. The Family Bureau stood out as the agency that offered the greatest amount of brief service through the use of groups. Most of this agency's groups fell into the six months or less category.

From their own description, most of the workers interviewed were satisfied with the progress of their groups to this point. The C.A.S. was the agency with the highest proportion of workers who were dissatisfied about their group's progress, about one-third. On speculation, percentages for other agencies were much lower. We would attribute this to the fact that work with groups at C.A.S. is becoming something of



a norm. Therefore, one is bound to find workers who have little personal interest in this method of service, yet feel they must use it because of its wide acceptance by agency personnel. More specifically, workers saw their satisfaction with groups as being closely related to their comfortableness with this method, and their particular comfort with the persons being served by this method. The same factors related to satisfaction or dissatisfaction are in our opinion probably true for some caseworkers for their clients. We also note that this agency had the highest per cent of groups in their sample which were led by formally trained workers.

The majority of agencies reported that the content of group discussion was primarily of a personal nature. This was to the exclusion of informational and intellectual forms of content. This seemed to be congruent with the categorization of groups used, particularly the C.G.C. and the Psychiatric Institute. At these agencies we recall the main form of group was the therapy group. Personal content is the norm for therapy groups. The C.A.S. deviated in this case. Workers here reported a high level of content (70 per cent) from all three categories. This does not seem to be congruent to their dominant use of education and socialization groups.

A common trend perceived by interviewers of workers was their reluctance to be identified with the title of Chairman. Many workers took offence to the word and in other cases it was the interviewer's perception that workers placed a negative value on the word. Workers would describe their behaviour in the group which seemed to approximate

the chairman role, but would not accept this title. A large majority of workers acknowledge this role where others did not yet seemed to be fulfilling it.

This section illustrates that the ways in which groups are used varies considerably between agencies. The most prominent differences noted had to do with number of groups, size of groups and type of groups predominantly used by the agencies studied. Other differences considered in this section included the kinds of clients served, worker training, meeting times, use of food and atmosphere and physical setting.

The next section will deal with comparisons of findings regarding group parameters between the different group typologies developed by the authors.

Typology Comparisons

In this section we will discuss and report some of the gross differences between the seven types of groups into which our sample was divided. We would like to report the comparative figures between the typologies and focus on some aspects of the appropriateness of differences in group parameters. Some of these tables do not provide insight into the way the groups operate and these figures will not be commented on. Our comments on task, recreation and human potential groups are limited because there were so few groups in each of these categories, that it was difficult to make definitive statements or conclusions about them.

A comparison of the duration of the group is made in Table 1 and reveals differences between all types of groups. We note that education groups had the greatest percentage of groups whose duration was less than one month. This is accounted for by the fact that many of the agencies operated groups which met only once as intake groups for new clients and others that were one meeting training sessions. Seventy-two per cent of education groups met for six months or less. The opposite was true for therapy, counselling and task groups, which tended to meet for longer periods of time.

TABLE 1

## DURATION OF GROUP BY TYPE

Type	Duration											
	1 month or less		2 months or less		6 months or less		12 months or less		Ongoing		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(2)	50	(2)	50	(4)	100
Education	(5)	28	(4)	22	(4)	22	(1)	6	(4)	22	(18)	100
Human Potential	(0)	0	(1)	25	(2)	50	(0)	0	(1)	25	(4)	100
Socialization	(1)	7	(5)	33	(1)	7	(4)	27	(4)	27	(15)	100
Recreation	(0)	0	(0)	0	(2)	33	(1)	17	(3)	50	(6)	100
Therapy	(0)	0	(0)	0	(4)	29	(3)	21	(7)	50	(14)	100
Counselling	(0)	0	(1)	6	(5)	28	(7)	39	(5)	28	(18)	100
Total	(6)	8	(11)	14	(18)	23	(18)	23	(26)	33	(79)	100

Table 2 reporting the figures with regard to physical atmosphere suggests several things. Although generally most of the sample (62 per cent) were groups that were held in a setting described by the worker as informal, workers described the social atmosphere as informal in 87 per cent of the groups. We also note that for all types of groups the percentage of groups with informal atmosphere increased from the column reporting physical atmosphere to the column reporting social atmosphere except in those where the physical atmosphere was already rated as informal 100 per cent of the time. Again, education groups stood out from the rest. These types had the highest reported number of formal environments (67 per cent). Socialization groups and recreation groups had the greatest percentage of informal environments in both physical and social terms. Therapy and counselling groups are reported in the literature as requiring both an informal social and physical environment. Although many of these groups, 36 per cent and 33 per cent respectively, were held in formal environments, the social atmosphere differed to the point that all of the therapy groups were judged to have informal environments and the counselling had only 6 per cent formal.

The majority of the total sample met on a weekly basis, as seen in Table 4. This trend was consistent within all groups except for the task groups where only 25 per cent met on a weekly basis. The fact that there were only four groups which were categorized as task groups tends to make this less significant. Education groups again deviated from the norm with a relatively high number of groups meeting less than once per week.

TABLE 2  
PHYSICAL ATMOSPHERE BY TYPE

Type	Physical Atmosphere					
	Formal		Informal		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(2)	50	(2)	50	(4)	100
Education	(12)	67	(6)	33	(18)	100
Human Potential	(0)	0	(4)	100	(4)	100
Socialization	(2)	13	(13)	87	(15)	100
Recreation	(1)	17	(5)	83	(6)	100
Therapy	(5)	36	(9)	64	(14)	100
Counselling	(6)	33	(12)	66	(18)	99*
Total	(30)	38	(49)	62	(79)	100

\* In all tables, % were rounded off to the nearest whole, accounting for totals less than or over 100.

TABLE 3  
SOCIAL ATMOSPHERE BY TYPE

Type	Social Atmosphere					
	Formal		Informal		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(1)	25	(3)	75	(4)	100
Education	(7)	39	(11)	61	(18)	100
Human Potential	(0)	0	(4)	100	(4)	100
Socialization	(1)	7	(14)	93	(15)	100
Recreation	(0)	0	(6)	100	(6)	100
Therapy	(0)	0	(14)	100	(14)	100
Counselling	(1)	6	(17)	94	(18)	100
Total	(10)	13	(69)	87	(79)	100

TABLE 4  
FREQUENCY OF MEETING BY TYPE

Type	Frequency							
	Less than once/week		Once/week		More than once/week		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(1)	25	(1)	25	(2)	50	(4)	100
Education	(8)	44	(10)	56	(0)	0	(18)	100
Human Potential	(0)	0	(4)	100	(0)	0	(4)	100
Socialization	(2)	13	(12)	80	(1)	7	(15)	100
Recreation	(2)	33	(4)	67	(0)	0	(6)	100
Therapy	(0)	0	(13)	93	(1)	7	(14)	100
Counselling	(1)	6	(16)	89	(1)	6	(18)	101
Total	(14)	18	(60)	76	(5)	6	(79)	100

The length of meeting time differed greatly between types as seen in Table 5. A very high percentage, 86 per cent, of all therapy groups met for a period of less than an hour. This is related to the age of members of many of the therapy groups. Most therapy groups were at the Child Guidance Clinic and most of these were composed of children. The literature states that children should be in small groups because of their inability to relate well to large numbers. Very few groups met for more than two hours.

TABLE 5  
LENGTH OF MEETING BY TYPE

Type	Length of Meeting						Totals	
	1 hour or less		1 - 2 hours		2 hours or more		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Task	(2)	50	(1)	25	(1)	25	(4)	100
Education	(2)	11	(10)	56	(6)	33	(18)	100
Human Potential	(1)	25	(3)	75	(0)	0	(4)	100
Socialization	(8)	53	(5)	33	(2)	13	(15)	100
Recreation	(0)	0	(4)	67	(2)	33	(6)	100
Therapy	(12)	86	(2)	14	(0)	0	(14)	100
Counselling	(5)	28	(12)	67	(1)	6	(18)	100
Total	(30)	38	(37)	47	(12)	15	(79)	100

Only 13 per cent of the socialization groups met for more than two hours with the majority of them (53 per cent) meeting for one hour or less.

Great differences again emerge between the problem-focussed types, therapy and counselling, and education groups over the time of day in which the group meetings are convened, shown in Table 6. Seventy-two per cent of the education groups met in the evening whereas none of the therapy groups and only 28 per cent of the counselling groups met at that time. Again the fact that the majority of therapy group members were children accounts for this. Instead these groups were distributed throughout the day, with the highest proportion held in the afternoon. The figures for socialization and recreation groups are similar with

approximately half meeting in the afternoon. None of the task groups and none of the recreation groups met in the morning.

TABLE 6

## TIME OF DAY BY TYPE

Type	Time of Day						Totals	
	Morning		Afternoon		Evening		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Task	(0)	0	(2)	50	(2)	50	(4)	100
Education	(2)	11	(4)	22	(13)	72	(19)	105*
Human Potential	(1)	25	(1)	25	(2)	50	(4)	100
Socialization	(3)	20	(7)	47	(5)	33	(15)	100
Recreation	(0)	0	(3)	50	(3)	50	(6)	100
Therapy	(5)	34	(9)	64	(0)	0	(14)	100
Counselling	(6)	33	(8)	44	(5)	28	(19)	105*
Total	(17)	22	(34)	43	(30)	38	(81)	103*

\* In some cases, groups alternated meeting time, bring some totals above 100%.

The place of meeting also reveals some differences. For the total sample the percentage of groups held in the agency was 43 and the percentage of those outside the agency was 57, as shown in Table 7. Contrary trends were evident in several of the group typologies. Seventy-two per cent of education groups are reported as being held within the agency. We remember that it was in this type that we recorded 67 per cent having formal physical atmospheres, as opposed to an average of 38 per cent. All of the recreation groups were conducted



outside of agencies, and a high number of the task and therapy groups also. Counselling and socialization are close to the mean in this category.

TABLE 7

## LOCATION OF TYPE

Type	Location				Totals	
	In Agency N	%	Out of Agency N	%	N	%
Task	(1)	25	(3)	75	(4)	100
Education	(13)	72	(5)	28	(18)	100
Human Potential	(3)	75	(1)	25	(4)	100
Socialization	(6)	40	(9)	60	(15)	100
Recreation	(0)	0	(6)	100	(6)	100
Therapy	(4)	29	(10)	71	(14)	100
Counselling	(7)	39	(11)	61	(18)	100
Total	(34)	43	(45)	57	(79)	100

The size of group membership recorded in Table 8 brought even greater differences between groups and therapy-counselling groups.

TABLE 8

## NUMBER OF MEMBERS BY TYPE

Type	Number of Members								Totals	
	5 or less N	%	6 to 10 N	%	11 to 15 N	%	16 and over N	%	N	%
Task	(2)	50	(1)	25	(0)	0	(1)	25	(4)	100
Education	(0)	0	(5)	28	(6)	33	(7)	39	(18)	100
Human Potential	(1)	25	(2)	50	(1)	25	(0)	0	(4)	100
Socialization	(5)	33	(6)	40	(2)	13	(2)	13	(15)	99
Recreation	(1)	17	(2)	33	(0)	0	(3)	50	(6)	100
Therapy	(10)	71	(4)	29	(0)	0	(0)	0	(14)	100
Counselling/	(2)	11	(11)	61	(5)	28	(0)	0	(18)	100
Total	(21)	28	(31)	39	(14)	18	(13)	16	(79)	100

Socialization groups in this category followed the same patterns as therapy groups having most of its member groups within two categories, five or less and six to ten. Seventy-one per cent of therapy groups had five members or fewer and no therapy groups were operated with membership over ten. Counselling groups reflect the same trend towards a small group membership, differing in that the greatest number here (61 per cent) were of six to ten members. Seventy-three per cent of socialization groups had memberships under ten, but like counselling groups, its greatest number was in the six to ten group. Only 28 per cent of the education groups had memberships of less than ten members, with none less than five. The trend of the total data was towards groups with

memberships below ten.

The category of leadership had within it four sub-headings. We will comment on all except the category of leadership decisions around such issues as time and place of meeting. This is excluded as almost no differences were evident here, and most of these decisions were dominated by the worker. Workers appeared to simply make these decisions most frequently as an expedient form of conducting group business.

Group norms were worker-dominated in 50 per cent of the cases, as shown in Table 9. Twenty-three per cent of the total group norms were mutually agreed to by members and workers. None of the education groups dealt with the question of norms in this manner. Eighty-nine per cent of the norms of education groups were worker-dominated, and none were mutually agreed upon. Over 50 per cent of both therapy and counselling were worker-dominated, yet with considerable scores of 36 per cent and 28 per cent respectively, in the mutual category.

TABLE 9

## LEADERSHIP RE NORMS BY TYPE IN PERCENTAGES

Type	Leadership Decisions							
	Worker Dominated		Member Dominated		Mutual		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(2)	50	(2)	50	(0)	0	(4)	100
Education	(16)	89	(2)	11	(0)	0	(18)	100
Human Potential	(2)	50	(2)	50	(0)	0	(4)	100
Socialization	(6)	40	(4)	27	(5)	33	(15)	100
Recreation	(2)	33	(3)	50	(1)	17	(6)	100
Therapy	(8)	57	(1)	7	(5)	36	(14)	100
Counselling	(10)	56	(3)	17	(5)	28	(18)	100
Total	(46)	58	(15)	19	(18)	23	(79)	100

The total distribution of decisions around goals was similar to that around norms. Sixty-two per cent of the total sample was worker-dominated and 25 per cent mutually decided. Trends for the various categories mirror similarities to our data about norms. See Table 10. They were also high in worker dominance.

TABLE 10

## LEADERSHIP RE GOALS BY TYPE

Type	Leadership Decisions									
	Worker Dominated		Member Dominated		Mutual		Totals			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(2)	50	(2)	50	(0)	0	(4)	100		
Education	(15)	83	(1)	6	(2)	11	(18)	100		
Human Potential	(2)	50	(1)	25	(1)	25	(4)	100		
Socialization	(7)	47	(4)	27	(4)	27	(14)	100		
Recreation	(1)	17	(2)	33	(3)	50	(6)	100		
Therapy	(9)	64	(0)	0	(5)	36	(14)	100		
Counselling	(12)	67	(1)	6	(5)	28	(18)	101		
Total	(48)	61	(11)	14	(20)	25	(79)	100		

Leadership decisions around tasks and activities differ greatly from those about norms and goals, as illustrated in Table 11. Only 25 per cent of the total sample was worker-dominated, 38 per cent were dominated by members and 37 per cent were mutually decided. Education groups in this category are consistent with their past record of worker

dominance around group leadership functions. Seventy-two per cent of the education groups fell into this category which stands out quite markedly, compared to the other types of groups with the exception of task groups. This can be explained by the fact that two of these groups were speech therapy groups for children in which specific tasks are outlined for them to do. They are not task groups as we would ordinarily think of them, but the worker classified them as such, and we found it difficult to place them in any other category. Therapy and counselling groups had the highest percentage of groups where decisions around tasks and activities were mutually agreed upon. Socialization and recreation groups had high percentages of member-dominated decisions.

TABLE 11

## LEADERSHIP RE TASKS BY TYPE

Type	Leadership Decisions							
	Worker Dominated		Member Dominated		Mutual		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(2)	50	(1)	25	(1)	25	(4)	100
Education	(13)	72	(0)	0	(5)	28	(18)	100
Human Potential	(0)	0	(1)	25	(3)	75	(4)	100
Socialization	(1)	7	(10)	67	(4)	27	(15)	100
Recreation	(0)	0	(4)	67	(2)	33	(6)	100
Therapy	(1)	7	(7)	50	(6)	43	(14)	100
Counselling	(3)	17	(7)	39	(8)	44	(18)	100
Total	(20)	25	(30)	38	(29)	37	(79)	100

We were also concerned with knowing about the more formally recognized types of leadership, such as whether or not there was a group executive and/or chairman. Only 8 per cent of the total sample had an executive and this was comprised of task groups, socialization groups, recreation groups and education groups. Each of these categories, excepting recreation and task, where there was a 50 per cent rate of groups with executives, had very minimal numbers with executives.

Thirty per cent of the total sample was viewed as having a formal chairman or some one filling that role. Twenty-nine per cent of the groups were reported to be operated with the worker playing the chairman role. See Table 12. The chairman role was predominantly found in task, education and recreation groups. The typologies displayed similar data trends on the question of whether the worker played the chairman role. The most noticeable difference was in the recreation group category where 67 per cent of the groups had a chairman and only 17 per cent were reported to have the worker as chairman. In education groups where there had been a high number of chairmen (61 per cent) there was a corresponding 61 per cent of the groups with the worker acting as chairman. This trend was constant for the rest of the group types.

Data had been collected about the social characteristics that were considered as important in the selection of group members. See Table 13. No workers reported that race was considered as a factor for selection of members to any group. Socio-economic class was considered in only three types of groups: education, socialization and therapy. The figures for age and sex seem to closely correspond in each category. For example

80 per cent of the socialization groups had both age and sex considered as important variables in selection. The characteristics also seemed to be important in therapy and counselling groups.

TABLE 12  
GROUPS WITH CHAIRMAN AND WORKER AS CHAIRMAN BY TYPE

Type	Chairman						Worker Chairman					
	Yes		No		Totals		Yes		No		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(2)	50	(2)	50	(4)	100	(2)	50	(3)	50	(4)	100
Education	(11)	61	(7)	39	(18)	100	(11)	61	(7)	39	(18)	100
Human Potential	(0)	0	(4)	100	(4)	100	(0)	0	(4)	100	(4)	100
Socialization	(3)	20	(12)	80	(15)	100	(4)	27	(11)	83	(15)	100
Recreation	(4)	67	(2)	33	(6)	100	(1)	17	(5)	83	(6)	100
Therapy	(1)	7	(13)	93	(14)	100	(1)	7	(13)	93	(14)	100
Counselling	(3)	17	(15)	83	(14)	100	(4)	22	(14)	78	(14)	100
Total	(24)	30	(55)	70	(79)	100	(23)	29	(56)	71	(79)	100

Common situations were indicated as being important in task, education and recreation groups. It seemed less important in therapy groups and in counselling groups. Here the highest selection criteria reported was the problem that members brought. In total, problem, age and sex seemed to be given the most regard as variables influencing the selection process.

TABLE 13

## FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS BY TYPE

Type	Common Problem		Age		Same Sex		Interest		Common Situation		Socio-econ. class		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(4)	100	(2)	50	(2)	50	(1)	25	(2)	50	(0)	0	(11)	275*
Education	(5)	28	(2)	11	(5)	28	(9)	50	(13)	72	(1)	6	(34)	195
Human Potential	(3)	75	(3)	75	(1)	25	(1)	25	(11)	25	(0)	0	(19)	225
Socialization	(10)	67	(12)	80	(12)	80	(2)	13	(4)	27	(2)	13	(42)	430
Recreation	(3)	50	(2)	33	(2)	33	(1)	17	(4)	67	(0)	0	(12)	200
Therapy	(14)	100	(12)	86	(8)	57	(0)	0	(3)	21	(2)	14	(39)	278
Counselling	(15)	83	(12)	67	(11)	61	(0)	0	(8)	44	(0)	0	(46)	255
Total	(53)	67	(45)	57	(41)	52	(14)	18	(35)	44	(5)	6	(193)	244

\* Total does not equal 100% because more than one characteristic could be mentioned.

The content of group discussion was described by three terms: intellectual, personal and informational. See Table 14. All of the types of groups aside from task groups had indicated that more than half of them were having discussion of personal content. Only 25 per cent of the task groups reported this whereas 100% of recreation and human potential groups had personal content. High percentages of task, education and recreation groups had content of discussion which was considered informational. This was in contrast to therapy, counselling



and socialization groups which were low in informational content. Intellectual discussion was characteristically low for the total, excepting recreation, human potential and education groups.

TABLE 14

## CONTENT OF DISCUSSION BY TYPE

Type	Content of Discussion							
	Intellectual		Personal		Informational		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(0)	0	(1)	25	(4)	100	(5)	125*
Education	(8)	44	(9)	50	(15)	83	(32)	177
Human Potential	(2)	50	(4)	100	(0)	0	(6)	150
Socialization	(2)	13	(11)	73	(2)	13	(15)	99
Recreation	(4)	67	(6)	100	(4)	67	(14)	234
Therapy	(0)	0	(11)	79	(1)	7	(12)	86
Counselling	(4)	27	(16)	89	(3)	17	(23)	133
Total	(20)	25	(58)	73	(29)	37	(107)	135

\* Totals add up to more than 100% because workers could mention more than one content of discussion for a group.

Workers placed their perception of the predominant communication flow in three categories: worker to member, member to worker, and member to member.

TABLE 15  
DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION FLOW BY TYPE

Type	Communication Flow							
	Worker to Member		Member to Member		Member to Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(2)	50	(0)	0	(2)	50	(4)	100
Education	(8)	44	(6)	33	(4)	22	(18)	99
Human Potential	(2)	50	(0)	0	(2)	50	(4)	100
Socialization	(0)	0	(1)	7	(14)	93	(15)	100
Recreation	(0)	0	(1)	17	(5)	83	(6)	100
Therapy	(5)	36	(5)	36	(4)	29	(14)	101
Counselling	(7)	39	(4)	22	(7)	39	(18)	100
Total	(24)	30	(17)	22	(38)	48	(79)	100

Groups which had been the most worker dominated in the areas of leadership had tended to have larger memberships, and in this category we discovered that these groups also had the lowest percentage of groups reporting member to member communication flow. Education groups which were primarily worker dominated had the lowest percentage of member to member communication. Socialization groups and recreation groups had a high percentages of scores in the member to member category. Counselling and therapy reported the lowest percentages of member to member communication next to education.

Workers were asked to report whether or not the communication patterns were moving in the direction desired by the worker - usually to more member-to-member communication. Eighty-one per cent of all workers responded in the affirmative. Education groups made up the most of the negative responses with the communication flow in 56 per cent of their groups not moving in the desired direction. This was often because there was no desire for change in the direction to more member-to-member communication.

Also on the topic of communication, workers were asked whether or not they could identify any sub-groups in their group. "Sub-groups develop out of the interplay of the members' perceptions of likeness and difference, common attributes, and common interests." The total sample reflected the fact that the majority of workers were aware of sub-groups. Recreation and socialization were the ones with the highest percentage of sub-groups. Sub-groups were not reported in 43 per cent of therapy and 33 per cent of counselling groups. This could be because of their small size. See Table 16.

Openness was divided into three levels: high, medium and low. As can be seen in Table 17, workers in education groups reported that 44 per cent of their membership was in the low category of openness. This is in contrast to 16 per cent for the total sample. There were few other groups that reported low openness. Counselling groups were the only other type of a larger membership which had a significant

---

<sup>1</sup> Northen, Op. Cit., p. 32.

percentage of low openness. Forty-four per cent of the counselling groups were high in openness. Task, socialization and recreation showed the greatest percentage of high openness. These are in contrast to the openness patterns for education groups. Therapy and counselling groups remained between these two extremes of openness with most of their members in the high and medium categories combined.

TABLE 16

## PRESENCE OF SUB-GROUPS BY TYPE

Type	Yes		No		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(2)	50	(2)	50	(4)	100
Education	(9)	50	(9)	50	(18)	100
Human Potential	(2)	50	(2)	50	(4)	100
Socialization	(11)	73	(4)	27	(15)	100
Recreation	(6)	100	(0)	0	(6)	100
Therapy	(8)	57	(6)	43	(14)	100
Counselling	(12)	67	(6)	33	(18)	100
Total	(5)	63	(29)	37	(79)	100

TABLE 17  
OPENNESS BY TYPE IN PERCENTAGES

Type	Openness						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Task	(3)	75	(1)	25	(0)	0	(4)	100
Education	(3)	17	(7)	39	(8)	44	(18)	100
Human Potential	(2)	50	(1)	25	(1)	25	(4)	100
Socialization	(14)	93	(1)	17	(0)	0	(15)	100
Recreation	(5)	83	(1)	17	(0)	0	(6)	100
Therapy	(9)	64	(4)	29	(1)	7	(14)	100
Counselling	(8)	44	(7)	39	(3)	17	(18)	100
Total	(44)	56	(22)	28	(13)	16	(79)	100

The results of our questions about intimacy show comparable results with those of openness as illustrated in Table 18. The education group membership was again heavily weighted in the low and medium categories. Therapy and counselling groups again occupied the middle position, this time sharing it with recreation groups. Human potential groups had the highest rates of intimacy, along with task groups. In a comparison between openness and intimacy the total sample reported 56 per cent high openness opposed to 38 per cent high intimacy. Workers were also asked if they saw a change in the desired direction in terms of openness and intimacy. Eighty-one per cent did see a positive change. It was education groups which stood out with 61 per cent of its member

groups reported as having no change in the desired direction.

TABLE 18

INTIMACY BY TYPE IN PERCENTAGES

Type	Intimacy						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Task	(3)	75	(0)	0	(1)	25	(4)	100
Education	(2)	11	(8)	44	(8)	25	(18)	100
Human Potential	(3)	75	(1)	25	(0)	0	(4)	100
Socialization	(10)	67	(2)	13	(3)	20	(15)	100
Recreation	(2)	33	(4)	67	(0)	0	(6)	100
Therapy	(4)	29	(8)	57	(2)	4	(14)	100
Counselling	(6)	33	(12)	66	(0)	0	(18)	100
Total	(30)	38	(35)	44	(14)	18	(79)	100

Three groups of questions were developed to give some impressions about the workers' training with groups and their general experience with them. Most workers were satisfied with the progress of the groups about which they were interviewed. Table 19 points out that only 14 per cent were dissatisfied and this response occurred in the education, socialization, recreation and counselling categories.

TABLE 19

## WORKERS' SATISFACTION BY TYPE IN PERCENTAGES

Type	Satisfied		Dissatisfied		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(4)	100	(0)	0	(4)	100
Education	(13)	72	(5)	28	(18)	100
Human Potential	(4)	100	(0)	0	(4)	100
Socialization	(12)	80	(3)	20	(15)	100
Recreation	(5)	83	(1)	17	(6)	100
Therapy	(14)	100	(0)	0	(14)	100
Counselling	(16)	89	(2)	11	(18)	100
Total	(68)	86	(11)	14	(79)	100

The majority of the workers in the total sample had experience with groups prior to working with their present groups. Table 20 shows that the 28 per cent that did were not distributed amongst all of the types of groups. Except for task groups, recreation and human potential groups had the largest percentage of their workers that had not been leaders of a group before.

Workers were classified as being trained group workers, as persons with some formal training about groups, as persons who had informal training at workshops and seminars, and those who had no training about groups, although they might have high levels of training in some other field such as psychology or psychiatry. Definite differences between worker training is evident from type to type, as shown in Table 21.

Education groups had 44 per cent of their workers with formal social group work training, the highest percentage of the sample. Other than the 25 per cent of the task groups and 17 per cent in counselling groups and 7 per cent in socialization groups, there were no other groups led by persons with this training. Those with the highest percentage of untrained workers were human potential and therapy.

TABLE 20

## WORKERS' EXPERIENCE BY TYPE IN PERCENTAGES

Type	Experience					
	Yes		No		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(4)	100	(0)	0	(4)	100
Education	(13)	72	(5)	28	(18)	100
Human Potential	(2)	50	(2)	50	(4)	100
Socialization	(11)	73	(4)	27	(15)	100
Recreation	(3)	50	(3)	50	(6)	100
Therapy	(10)	71	(4)	29	(14)	100
Counselling	(14)	78	(4)	22	(18)	100
Total	(57)	72	(22)	28	(79)	100



TABLE 21

## WORKER TRAINING WITH GROUPS BY TYPE IN PERCENTAGES

Type	Training									
	Group Week Degree		Formal Training		Informal Training		None		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Task	(1)	25	(1)	25	(2)	50	(0)	0	(4)	100
Education	(8)	44	(2)	11	(6)	33	(2)	11	(18)	100
Human Potential	(0)	0	(1)	25	(2)	50	(1)	25	(4)	100
Socialization	(1)	7	(2)	13	(9)	60	(3)	20	(15)	100
Recreation	(0)	0	(3)	50	(2)	33	(1)	17	(6)	100
Therapy	(0)	0	(1)	7	(8)	57	(5)	36	(14)	100
Counselling	(3)	17	(5)	27	(7)	39	(3)	17	(18)	100
Total	(15)	16	(17)	19	(34)	46	(30)	19	(79)	100

It is evident from the above that findings regarding the parameters for therapy, counselling, socialization and human potential groups tended to be similar. Those parameters for education and task groups on the other hand were similar to each other, and differed substantially from the above mentioned types of groups.

Having discussed comparisons between typologies, we will now move to discuss comparisons within typologies. The focus will be on those parameters considered by the authors to be most relevant to each typology.

### Comparisons Within Typologies

We have thus far reported data about some of the gross differences which were evident among the data collected on agencies, as well as the differences evident among the types of groups, based on their percentage scores for each question category. Here we would like to present data collected within the various group typologies by testing the degree to which some variables were associated with others. It was hoped that from this data certain correlations or lack of them would be indicated, between parameters. Some selection has been done as to what factors could possibly have a relationship to one another, considering the type of group. These judgments were made on the basis of our own past experience, contact with the literature and a little logic.

The following three of our group typologies will not be discussed here as we felt their numbers to be too small to make any findings from a comparison of their parameters meaningful. There were only four human potential groups, four task groups and six recreation groups. These will be excluded from our discussion.

#### A. Education Groups

We assumed that there would be some relationship between the physical atmosphere of the group setting and the type of communication flow. We find in Table 22 that groups where there was a communication flow from worker to member tend to be associated with physical environments more so than groups with member-to-member communication. This trend is noticeable in Table 23 of the comparison of the social environment with the communication flow. All of the groups with a member-to-

member communication flow have an informal social setting.

TABLE 22

## COMMUNICATION FLOW BY PHYSICAL ATMOSPHERE

Physical Atmosphere	Communication Flow							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Informal	(1)	5	(3)	17	(2)	11	(6)	33
Formal	(7)	39	(3)	17	(2)	11	(12)	67
Total	(8)	44	(6)	34	(4)	22	(18)	100

TABLE 23

## COMMUNICATION FLOW BY SOCIAL ATMOSPHERE

Social Atmosphere	Communication Flow							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Informal	(5)	28	(2)	11	(4)	22	(11)	61
Formal	(4)	22	(3)	17	(0)	0	(7)	39
Total	(9)	50	(5)	28	(4)	22	(18)	100

Communication flow was also compared with content of discussion.

In Table 24 the distribution of groups with a personal content of discussion was heavily weighted in the member to worker and member to member categories. The opposite trend is noticeable in the data about intellectual discussion where the groups were heavily weighted in the worker to member section and decreasing through member to worker and

member to member. Informational discussion had its highest distribution in the worker to member category.

A high percentage of the education groups with a worker to member communication flow had low openness. Member to worker seemed to be related to a medium openness and member to member seemed to fall into the category of high openness.

TABLE 24  
COMMUNICATION FLOW BY CONTENT OF DISCUSSION

Content of Discussion	Communication Flow							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Intellectual	(4)	22	(2)	11	(1)	5	(7)	38
Personal	(1)	5	(4)	22	(4)	22	(9)	44
Informational	(7)	39	(4)	22	(4)	22	(15)	83
Total	(12)	66	(10)	55	(9)	49	(31)	170

TABLE 25  
COMMUNICATION FLOW BY OPENNESS

Openness	Communication Flow							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
High	(0)	0	(0)	0	(3)	17	(3)	17
Medium	(1)	5	(5)	28	(1)	5	(7)	38
Low	(7)	39	(1)	5	(0)	0	(8)	44
Total	(8)	44	(6)	33	(4)	22	(18)	99

The same trend is operative in a comparison with the relationship of communication flow with intimacy.

TABLE 26  
COMMUNICATION FLOW BY INTIMACY

Intimacy	Communication Flow							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
High	(0)	0	(0)	0	(2)	11	(2)	11
Medium	(1)	8	(5)	28	(2)	11	(8)	44
Low	(7)	39	(1)	5	(0)	0	(8)	44
Total	(8)	44	(6)	33	(4)	22	(18)	99

Low is associated with Worker-Member; medium with Member-Worker; and high intimacy with Member-Member, although this particular relationship is not as strong as in the openness table.

Worker dominance of norms and goals in education groups was so prevalent that comparisons with other parameters could not reveal a great deal. It can be noted in each category that worker to member communication seemed associated with worker dominance. The groups that had decisions around tasks mutually agreed upon had a member-to-member communication flow. A table comparing size with communication flow did not illustrate expected results.

TABLE 27  
COMMUNICATION FLOW BY SIZE

Size	Communication Flow							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
5 or less	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
6 - 10	(3)	17	(1)	5	(1)	5	(5)	27
11 - 15	(4)	22	(1)	5	(1)	5	(6)	32
16 or over	(1)	5	(4)	22	(2)	11	(7)	38
Total	(8)	44	(6)	32	(4)	21	(18)	99

There was a low number of groups reporting member to member, but most of these fell in those groups with the largest membership. We expected members to be more free to talk among themselves when in a smaller group. This same trend is evident between size and the decision-making about tasks. A larger percentage of the groups with a mutual decision-making process were in the 16 and over classification. We bear in mind that the majority of the education groups were worker-dominated in decision-making.

In Table 29 the content of group discussion was compared with level of openness. There is a marked trend towards personal content of discussion in groups reported to have high and medium levels of openness. We notice that very few of the groups with personal discussion had low openness, whereas a common trend among the groups with informational and intellectual content was to decrease in numbers as openness increased.

TABLE 28

## DECISIONS RE TASKS BY SIZE

Size	Leadership							
	Worker Dominant		Member Dominant		Mutual		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
5 or less	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
6 - 10	(4)	22	(0)	0	(1)	5	(5)	27
11 - 15	(5)	28	(0)	0	(1)	5	(6)	33
16 or over	(4)	22	(0)	0	(3)	17	(7)	39
Total	(13)	72	(0)	0	(5)	27	(18)	99

TABLE 29

## LEVEL OF OPENNESS BY CONTENT OF DISCUSSION

Content of Discussion	Level of Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Intellectual	(1)	5	(3)	17	(4)	22	(8)	44
Personal	(3)	17	(5)	28	(1)	5	(9)	50
Informational	(3)	17	(5)	28	(7)	39	(15)	84
Total	(7)	39	(13)	73	(12)	66	(32)	178

Note: Total is higher than 18 because more than one type of content could be mentioned.

### B. Therapy Groups

Intimacy and openness were compared with several other parameters from the data collected on therapy groups. We felt that intimacy and openness were important factors in these groups in particular. From our review of the literature we realized how important it was to therapy group goals that openness and intimacy be high. This principles would not hold true for many of the groups in our therapy category, many of which were children's groups with little verbalization taking place or expected between members.

Intimacy and openness were contrasted with the various levels of worker training that we had established. Only one group leader had formal group work training, the rest being distributed among the informal and no training categories. All of the therapy groups having workers with informal training had high openness, whereas only one out of eight of the same cluster had high intimacy. There was no clear trend for workers with more training being able to create higher openness and intimacy within groups.

TABLE 30

#### LEVEL OF OPENNESS BY WORKER TRAINING

Worker Training	Level of Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gp. Wk. Degree	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
Formal	(0)	0	(1)	7	(0)	0	(1)	7
Informal	(8)	57	(0)	0	(0)	0	(8)	57
None	(2)	14	(3)	21	(0)	0	(5)	35
Total	(10)	71	(4)	28	(0)	0	(14)	99



TABLE 31

## LEVEL OF INTIMACY BY WORKER TRAINING

Worker Training	Level of Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gp. Wk. Degree	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
Formal	(0)	0	(1)	7	(0)	0	(1)	7
Informal	(1)	7	(5)	36	(2)	14	(8)	57
None	(3)	21	(2)	14	(0)	0	(5)	33
Total	(4)	28	(8)	57	(2)	14	(14)	99

The parameters of openness and intimacy were then tabled with whether or not the groups were open or closed to membership. Groups are usually closed so that a strong feeling of we-ness can be developed and because it is regarded in the literature as a means of facilitating openness and intimacy. In our sample of therapy groups only 21 per cent were closed. This was lower than expected, yet a part of this is due to the number of play therapy groups from the Child Guidance Clinic. Workers here reported that seldom were new members brought into groups but that theoretically they were open to new placements. The high number of open groups did not hinder the openness of the groups with seven out of eleven of the open groups having a high level of openness and no lows. The only group with low openness was a closed group. In the intimacy table, those groups that were open in membership tended to have medium or high intimacy whereas those with closed memberships had

medium or low intimacy.

TABLE 32

## LEVEL OF OPENNESS BY OPENNESS OF MEMBERSHIP

Openness of Membership	Level of Openness						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Open	(7)	50	(4)	28	(0)	0	(11)	78
Closed	(2)	14	(0)	0	(1)	7	(3)	21
Total	(9)	64	(4)	28	(1)	7	(14)	99

TABLE 33

## LEVEL OF INTIMACY BY OPENNESS OF MEMBERSHIP

Openness of Membership	Level of Intimacy						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Open	(4)	28	(7)	50	(0)	10	(11)	78
Closed	(0)	0	(1)	7	(2)	14	(3)	21
Total	(4)	28	(8)	57	(2)	14	(14)	99

The size of the group was contrasted by the levels of openness and intimacy. All of the therapy groups had 10 or fewer members. The results in terms of openness reveal that 9 out of 10 of the groups in the 5 or less category had high openness. All of the groups in the 6 - 10

category had medium openness. Thus openness appears to decrease with an increase in size. The results for intimacy showed fewer of the therapy groups being intimate than open and a greater proportion of the groups with 6 - 10 members with medium or high intimacy. The only groups with low intimacy were with memberships of 5 or less.

TABLE 34

## LEVEL OF OPENNESS BY SIZE

Size	Level of Openness by Size							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
5 or less	(9)	64	(0)	0	(1)	7	(10)	71
6 - 10	(0)	0	(4)	28	(0)	0	(4)	28
11 - 15	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
16 or over	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
Total	(9)	64	(4)	28	(1)	7	(14)	99

TABLE 35

## LEVEL OF INTIMACY BY SIZE

Size	Level of Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
5 or less	(3)	21	(5)	36	(2)	14	(10)	71
6 - 10	(1)	7	(3)	21	(0)	0	(4)	28
11 - 15	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
16 and over	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
Total	(4)	28	(8)	57	(2)	14	(14)	99

All of the therapy groups had informal social atmospheres. Intimacy and openness were compared in Table 36. High intimacy seemed to require high openness in order to exist, but high openness did not necessarily coincide with high intimacy. Presumably, members can be open about a variety of subjects, but in order to be intimate they must be open with each other.

TABLE 36

## OPENNESS BY INTIMACY

Intimacy	Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
High	(3)	21	(1)	7	(0)	0	(4)	28
Medium	(4)	28	(3)	21	(1)	7	(8)	57
Low	(2)	14	(0)	0	(0)	0	(2)	14
Total	(9)	63	(4)	28	(1)	7	(14)	99

We have recorded that many workers perceived the physical atmosphere in which their group meetings were held to be inappropriate. The review of the literature suggests that an informal physical and social environment is most appropriate in terms of achieving the goals of a therapy group. Those that met in formal physical environments all had informal social atmospheres. Tables 37 and 38 describe the way in which the formal and informal atmospheres fall into the gradations for intimacy and openness. None of the formal physical environments had low intimacy or openness. Informal physical environments were related to high openness and intimacy.

TABLE 37

## OPENNESS BY PHYSICAL ATMOSPHERE

Physical Atmosphere	Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formal	(3)	21	(2)	14	(0)	0	(5)	35
Informal	(6)	43	(2)	14	(1)	7	(9)	64
Total	(9)	64	(4)	28	(1)	7	(14)	99

TABLE 38

## INTIMACY BY PHYSICAL ATMOSPHERE

Physical Atmosphere	Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formal	(1)	7	(4)	28	(0)	0	(5)	35
Informal	(3)	21	(4)	28	(2)	14	(9)	63
Total	(4)	28	(8)	56	(2)	14	(14)	98

Intimacy and openness were finally contrasted with the workers' record of previous experience with groups. Half of the workers that were inexperienced had groups with low levels of intimacy between members whereas the ten workers with experience had 90 per cent medium or high intimacy. There was a tendency for all groups to have higher levels of openness than intimacy, but this is not noticeable in the therapy groups

whose workers were experienced. Inexperienced workers had primarily medium or low levels of openness. See Table 40.

TABLE 39

## INTIMACY BY WORKERS' EXPERIENCE

Workers' Experience	Intimacy						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Yes	(3)	21	(6)	43	(1)	7	(10)	71
No	(1)	7	(1)	7	(2)	14	(4)	28
Total	(4)	28	(7)	50	(3)	21	(14)	99

TABLE 40

## OPENNESS BY WORKERS' EXPERIENCE

Workers' Experience	Openness						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Yes	(8)	57	(2)	14	(0)	0	(10)	71
No	(1)	7	(2)	14	(1)	7	(4)	28
Total	(9)	64	(4)	28	(1)	7	(14)	99

Therapy groups were also analyzed to see if there was any relationship between the direction of communication flow and certain aspects of the groups' decision-making. The literature reveals how important the communication is to the success of a therapy group and

because communications are used in decision-making, certain types may be related to certain types of communication flow.

There were few therapy groups where communications were member to member. Of those that were member to member only 25 per cent had a mutual decision-making process about the development of norms and tasks. Worker dominance of norms was related to a worker to member communication pattern. However, some of the groups with worker to member communication had mutual decision-making about goals. Groups with member to worker communication flow had the highest number with mutual decision making about norms. In terms of tasks there was only one group reporting worker dominance and that had a member to member communication flow. Member to worker, again, had the highest percentage of its members with mutual decision-making. The majority of groups with worker to member had been worker dominated in terms of norms. They were now member dominated in terms of tasks. This same trend is evident in the member to member groups where most of its distribution moved from worker dominant in norms to member dominant in terms of tasks.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Member to member	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Member to worker	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Worker to member	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Worker to worker	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

The majority of groups with worker to member had been worker dominated in terms of norms. They were now member dominated in terms of tasks. This same trend is evident in the member to member groups where most of its distribution moved from worker dominant in norms to member dominant in terms of tasks.

TABLE 41

## DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION BY LEADERSHIP RE NORMS

Leadership Re Norms	Direction of Communication							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker Dom.	(3)	21	(2)	14	(2)	14	(7)	49
Member Dom.	(0)	0	(0)	0	(1)	7	(1)	7
Mutual	(2)	14	(3)	21	(1)	7	(6)	42
Total	(5)	35	(5)	35	(4)	28	(14)	98

TABLE 42

## DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION BY LEADERSHIP RE TASKS

Leadership Re Tasks	Direction of Communication							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker Dom.	(0)	0	(0)	0	(1)	7	(1)	7
Member Dom.	(3)	21	(2)	14	(2)	14	(7)	49
Mutual	(2)	14	(3)	21	(1)	7	(6)	42
Total	(5)	35	(5)	35	(4)	28	(14)	98

C. Socialization

We will now move from therapy groups to socialization groups. All but one of the socialization groups had high openness, and one had medium



openness. This is despite the fact that there was a broad distribution of groups by the size of group membership. The majority of these groups met in the afternoon and only two of them lasted for more than two hours.

Usually the larger the group the more probable there will be sub-groups within its membership. Our data revealed that all of the workers with small groups were able to identify sub-groups. Although there were few groups in the 11 to 15 category and 16 and over category, they reported higher percentages of workers who did not recognize sub-groups. These results were incongruent with what was expected.

TABLE 43

## SIZE BY THE PRESENCE OF SUBGROUPS

Subgroups	Size									
	5 or less		6 - 10		11 - 15		16 or over		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	(5)	33	(5)	33	(0)	0	(1)	7	(11)	73
No	(0)	6	(1)	7	(2)	13	(1)	7	(4)	27
Total	(5)	33	(6)	40	(2)	13	(2)	14	(15)	100

Size was also compared with the categories of group leadership in Table 44. Because most of the groups fell into the membership categories of 10 or less, it is difficult to make comments about the relation between group leadership and a large group. Worker dominance of norms seemed quite pronounced in the small groups and decreased as the size of the group increased. The same trend is evident in the relation of group to size (Table 45). Worker dominance seems to decrease with size. The

data for decisions about tasks differ from that for norms and goals. No goals were worker dominated and there was a high number of member dominant groups (Table 46).

TABLE 44

## SIZE BY LEADERSHIP RE NORMS

Leadership Re Norms	Size									
	5 or less		6 - 10		11 - 15		16 or over		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker Dom.	(4)	27	(1)	7	(0)	0	(1)	7	(6)	41
Member Dom.	(0)	0	(3)	20	(1)	7	(1)	7	(5)	34
Nutual	(1)	7	(2)	13	(1)	7	(0)	0	(4)	27
Total	(5)	34	(6)	40	(2)	14	(2)	14	(15)	102

TABLE 45

## SIZE BY LEADERSHIP RE GOALS

Leadership Re Goals	Size									
	5 or less		6 - 10		11 - 15		16 or over		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker Dom.	(4)	27	(1)	7	(0)	0	(1)	7	(6)	41
Member Dom.	(0)	0	(2)	13	(2)	13	(1)	7	(5)	33
Mutual	(1)	7	(3)	20	(0)	0	(0)	0	(4)	27
Total	(5)	34	(6)	40	(2)	13	(2)	14	(15)	101

TABLE 46

## SIZE OF LEADERSHIP RE TASKS

Leadership Re Tasks	Size								Totals	
	5 or less		6 - 10		11 - 15		16 or over		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Worker Dom.	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
Member Dom.	(4)	27	(3)	20	(2)	13	(2)	13	(11)	73
Mutual	(1)	7	(3)	20	(0)	0	(0)	0	(4)	27
Total	(5)	34	(6)	40	(2)	13	(2)	13	(15)	100

TABLE 47

## WORKER SATISFACTION BY EXPERIENCE

Experience	Satisfaction						Totals	
	Satisfied		Dissatisfied		N	%	N	%
	N	%	N	%				
Yes	(8)	53	(3)	20	(11)	73		
No	(4)	27	(0)	0	(4)	27		
Total	(12)	80	(3)	20	(15)	100		

Workers' satisfaction with their groups was compared with the workers' experience in Table 47. Three of the experienced workers were dissatisfied with their groups compared to none of the inexperienced workers. One would expect that the inexperienced worker might be dissatisfied more than the experienced worker because he does not have the

ability to create the conditions he desires. It is possible, though, that the experienced worker sets higher goals for his group which he may not be as likely to attain. We must also bear in mind that the sample of experienced workers was much larger than that of inexperienced workers.

The literature about socialization groups indicated that a high point in skill was achieved when a socialization group was able to function on a mutual or member dominated level, for setting goals and deciding upon activities. Worker training was compared with the means of goal setting in Table 48.

TABLE 48

## WORKER TRAINING BY LEADERSHIP RE GOALS

Leadership Re Goals	Training									
	Degree		Formal		Informal		None		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker Dom.	(0)	0	(1)	7	(4)	27	(2)	13	(7)	47
Member Dom.	(1)	7	(1)	7	(2)	13	(0)	0	(4)	27
Mutual	(0)	0	(0)	0	(3)	20	(1)	7	(4)	27
Total	(1)	7	(2)	14	(9)	60	(3)	20	(15)	101

Relationships are difficult to distinguish here, again due to the small numbers in two of the categories. Only one worker was a trained social group worker. The greatest number of workers fell into the category of informal training. Of these five out of nine led groups where there was member input into decision-making about goals and one-third of workers with no training led groups with mutual decision-making.

### D. Counselling

As with therapy groups, openness and intimacy and the type of communication is very important in counselling groups. In looking at the data on counselling groups we will contrast the key variables with other parameters of group life.

None of the counselling groups had low levels of intimacy, and three had low openness. The proportion of groups with high intimacy tended to decrease with a lack of formal training in the workers.

(See Table 49). This relationship does not follow for openness where groups with workers of social group work training and no training had the lowest percentages of the membership being highly open.

TABLE 49

#### LEVEL OF INTIMACY BY WORKER TRAINING

Training	Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gp. Wk. Degree	(2)	11	(1)	5	(0)	0	(3)	16
Formal	(2)	11	(3)	17	(0)	0	(5)	28
Informal	(2)	11	(5)	28	(0)	0	(7)	39
None	(0)	0	(3)	17	(0)	0	(3)	17
Total	(6)	33	(12)	67	(0)	0	(18)	100

In tables in which openness and intimacy were compared with whether or not membership was open or closed, there seemed to be a slight propensity for closed groups to have higher levels of openness

and intimacy. Sixty-six per cent of the groups with low openness were open; 62 per cent of the groups with high openness were closed.

TABLE 50

## LEVEL OF OPENNESS BY WORKER TRAINING

Training	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gp. Wk. Degree	(1)	5	(2)	11	(0)	0	(3)	16
Formal	(3)	17	(1)	5	(1)	5	(5)	27
Informal	(4)	22	(1)	5	(2)	11	(7)	38
None	(0)	0	(3)	17	(0)	0	(3)	17
Total	(8)	44	(7)	38	(3)	16	(18)	98

Most of the workers with groups described as being counselling groups had had previous experience with groups so that in our tables this left a low number in the no experience groups to draw relationships from. Nevertheless, groups with experienced workers did seem to be related with both high openness and intimacy. None of the groups with inexperienced workers had high openness or intimacy. Table 53 illustrates this trend.

TABLE 51

## INTIMACY BY OPENNESS OF MEMBERSHIP

Openness of Membership	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Open	(2)	11	(7)	39	(0)	0	(9)	50
Closed	(4)	22	(5)	28	(0)	0	(9)	50
Total	(6)	33	(12)	67	(0)	0	(18)	100

TABLE 52

## OPENNESS BY OPENNESS OF MEMBERSHIP

Openness of Membership	Openness						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Open	(3)	17	(4)	22	(2)	11	(9)	50
Closed	(5)	28	(3)	17	(1)	5	(9)	50
Total	(8)	45	(7)	39	(3)	16	(18)	100

TABLE 53

## OPENNESS BY WORKER EXPERIENCE

Experience	Openness						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	(8)	44	(5)	28	(1)	5	(14)	77
No	(0)	0	(2)	11	(2)	11	(4)	22
Total	(8)	44	(7)	39	(3)	16	(18)	99

Physical atmosphere of meeting was compared with openness and intimacy to see if any pronounced correlations existed between environment and the level of communication. Sixty-one per cent of the counselling groups were held outside the agency, and 66 per cent had informal environments. The expected relationship was that high levels of openness and intimacy would be related to informal environments. Fifty per cent of the informal atmospheres had high levels of openness, compared with 33 per cent of those with formal atmospheres. Neither had low intimacy and again a greater percentage of the informal groups had high intimacy.

TABLE 54

## LEVEL OF OPENNESS BY PHYSICAL ATMOSPHERE

Physical Atmosphere	Openness						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formal	(2)	11	(3)	17	(1)	5	(6)	33
Informal	(6)	33	(4)	22	(2)	11	(12)	66
Total	(8)	44	(7)	39	(3)	16	(18)	99

TABLE 55

## LEVEL OF INTIMACY BY PHYSICAL ATMOSPHERE

Physical Atmosphere	Intimacy						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formal	(1)	5	(5)	28	(0)	0	(6)	33
Informal	(5)	28	(7)	39	(0)	0	(12)	67
Total	(6)	33	(12)	67	(0)	0	(18)	100



Intimacy and openness were then contrasted with group size. Most of the groups had memberships of either 6 to 10 and 11 to 15. The smaller groups did not have the highest levels of openness and intimacy. The groups with memberships of 6 to 10 had the highest in both these categories.

Finally, two aspects of group leadership were tabled with the direction of communication flow. It was expected that where there was a worker dominance of leadership that there would also be communication patterns from worker to members, that member to member communication would correspond with mutually or member dominance of decision-making. In Table 59 we note that although our expectation was not perfectly carried through in the data, this trend is evident. In the table comparing leadership norms with communication flow there is a greater frequency of worker dominance, and the expected relationship did not exist. Here both worker to member and member to worker tended to be highly dominated by workers and the majority of member to member groups were member to worker in making decisions about tasks.

TABLE 56

## INTIMACY BY GROUP SIZE

Size	Intimacy						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
5 or less	(0)	0	(2)	11	(0)	0	(2)	11
6 - 10	(5)	28	(6)	33	(0)	0	(11)	61
11 - 15	(1)	5	(4)	22	(0)	0	(5)	27
16 or over	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	0
Total	(6)	33	(12)	66	(0)	0	(18)	99

TABLE 57

## OPENNESS BY GROUP SIZE

Size	Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
5 or less	(0)	0	(0)	0	(1)	5	(1)	5
6 to 10	(5)	28	(4)	22	(1)	5	(10)	55
11 to 15	(2)	11	(3)	17	(1)	5	(6)	33
16 or over	(1)	5	(0)	0	(0)	0	(1)	5
Total	(8)	44	(7)	39	(3)	15	(18)	98

TABLE 58

## DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION BY LEADERSHIP RE NORMS

Leadership Re Norms	Direction of Communication							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker Dom.	(5)	28	(3)	17	(2)	11	(10)	56
Member Dom.	(0)	0	(0)	0	(3)	17	(3)	17
Mutual	(2)	11	(1)	5	(2)	11	(5)	27
Total	(7)	39	(4)	22	(7)	39	(18)	100

TABLE 59  
DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION BY LEADERSHIP RE TASKS

Leadership Re Tasks	Direction of Communication							
	Worker-Member		Member-Worker		Member-Member		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker Dom.	(3)	17	(0)	0	(0)	0	(3)	17
Member Dom.	(0)	0	(3)	17	(4)	22	(7)	39
Mutual	(2)	11	(1)	5	(5)	28	(8)	44
Total	(5)	28	(4)	22	(9)	50	(18)	100

Having discussed selected comparisons of findings within the various typologies we will now consider similar comparisons involving the total sample of groups studied.

#### Total Sample Table Talk

In this final section on data, we would like to report some findings from tables developed from the responses of the total sample of the study. Here it was hoped that information could be discovered about relationships between various factors of group life. It was hoped that this information could be tested for its statistical significance. Unfortunately in most cases the numbers in some categories were too small to make the statistical tests meaningful. We arbitrarily chose .05 as the meaningful level of significance, this being the method and

2

level usually accepted by the literature. As in our last section, decisions about which variables would be relevant will be based primarily on our understanding of the principles set forth in the method, as well as on indications emerging from the data about possible relationships.

All aspects of communication in a group were seen as being closely related to the achievement of its fundamental goals. In a table of our total samples responses to openness and intimacy we found a relationship beyond the .001 level of significance. In this table categories were collapsed to give the data a high enough number to be tested. As Table 60 illustrates there was a very high relationship between high intimacy and high openness, and conversely a high relationships between medium or low openness and medium or low intimacy.

TABLE 60  
OPENNESS BY INTIMACY

Intimacy	Openness				Totals	
	High		Medium and Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%		
High	(26)	33	(4)	5	(30)	38
Medium and Low	(2)	25	(29)	37	(49)	62
Total	(46)	58	(33)	42	(79)	100

Intimacy was compared with communication flow, and the results from this table proved to be statistically significant to the .001 degree.

2

J.P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education, 4th ed (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 151.

The relationship between openness and communication flow was also significant to the same high degree. Following are the two tables in which these significant relationships are found.

TABLE 61

## INTIMACY BY COMMUNICATION FLOW

Communication Flow	Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker to Member and Member to Worker	(7)	9	(23)	29	(12)	15	(42)	53
Member to Member	(23)	20	(12)	15	(2)	3	(37)	47
Total	(30)	38	(35)	44	(14)	18	(79)	100

TABLE 62

## OPENNESS BY COMMUNICATION

Communication Flow	Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker to Member and Member to Worker	(13)	16	(17)	22	(10)	13	(42)	51
Member to Member	(31)	39	(5)	6	(1)	1	(37)	46
Total	(44)	55	(22)	28	(11)	14	(79)	97

In order to compute the statistical significance data columns were again collapsed. The above tables illustrate a highly reliable relationship between member to member communication patterns and high levels of intimacy and openness amongst group members. In the next two tables we present the above tables again, only this time without the categories of communication patterns collapsed. Although statistical significance could not be evaluated on these figures they point to more detailed relationships between certain aspects of the groups' communication system and intimacy and openness.

TABLE 63

## INTIMACY BY COMMUNICATION FLOW

Communication Flow	Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker to Member	(3)	4	(14)	18	(7)	8	(24)	30
Member to Worker	(4)	5	(9)	11	(5)	6	(18)	22
Member to Member	(23)	29	(12)	15	(2)	3	(37)	47
Total	(3)	38	(35)	44	(14)	17	(79)	99

TABLE 64  
OPENNESS BY COMMUNICATION FLOW

Communication Flow	Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker to Member	(6)	7	(8)	10	(10)	13	(24)	30
Member to Worker	(7)	8	(9)	11	(2)	3	(18)	22
Member to Member	(31)	39	(5)	6	(1)	1	(37)	46
Total	(33)	54	(22)	27	(17)	17	(79)	98

Where there was member to member communication there was usually a high degree of openness and somewhat lesser degree of high intimacy. Where there was low openness and low intimacy there tended to be a worker to member communication pattern in the group. If a group had a member to worker communication pattern then it would tend to have a medium level of openness of intimacy. This relationship was not as marked as the the first two mentioned.

Relationships were sought between intimacy and openness, and some other aspects of group life such as the physical and social environment, group size, and the structure of entrance into the group being open or closed. The following two tables indicate the relationship of intimacy to the physical environment of the group meeting and then to the social atmosphere described by the worker.

TABLE 65

## INTIMACY BY PHYSICAL ATMOSPHERE

Physical Atmosphere	Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formal	(4)	5	(11)	14	(1)	16	(16)	20
Informal	(26)	33	(24)	30	(16)	63	(63)	79
Total	(30)	38	(35)	44	(14)	79	(79)	99

TABLE 66

## INTIMACY BY SOCIAL ATMOSPHERE

Social Atmosphere	Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formal	(0)	0	(2)	3	(6)	7	(8)	10
Informal	(30)	38	(33)	42	(8)	10	(71)	90
Total	(30)	38	(35)	44	(14)	17	(79)	100

Groups which met in formal atmospheres were few in number, and even this number was cut in half in the social environments. We recall that, although for certain types of groups such as the task group it was desirable to have a formal social and physical environment, for most typologies the informal setting was preferred. It is evident that for some reason a formal milieu does not automatically generate a formal



social environment for a group. There is an indication that a informal milieu, and more strongly, informal social atmosphere, are related to high degrees of openness between group members. A high percentage of the groups with formal social atmospheres had a low level of intimacy.

Some of the trends just observed among the data on intimacy and atmosphere are apparent in the data on openness and atmosphere. We would again present the tables before discussion.

TABLE 67

## OPENNESS BY PHYSICAL ATMOSPHERE

Physical Atmosphere	Openness						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Formal	(11)	14	(11)	14	(7)	8	(29)	36
Informal	(33)	42	(11)	14	(6)	7	(50)	63
Total	(44)	56	(22)	28	(13)	15	(79)	99

TABLE 68

## OPENNESS BY SOCIAL ATMOSPHERE

Social Atmosphere	Openness						Totals	
	High		Medium		Low		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Formal	(1)	1	(4)	5	(6)	7	(11)	13
Informal	(43)	54	(18)	22	(7)	8	(68)	84
Total	(44)	55	(22)	27	(13)	15	(79)	97

The number of formals dropped from the physical to the social atmosphere. A higher percentage of the informal milieu had high openness than the formals, however the difference is not as marked as in the table with social atmosphere. In the latter, there is a notable relationship between the two variables. Groups with informal social environments tended to have high levels of openness whereas groups with formal social environments tended to have low openness.

There seemed to be no substantiative trends between our categories of group size and openness and intimacy. The data did reveal relationships between certain categories of these parameters when our categories were collapsed. Following is the table for openness and group size with categories of group size collapsed from 4 to 2.

TABLE 69

## GROUP SIZE BY OPENNESS

Openness	Group Size				Totals	
	10 or less		Over 10		N	%
	N	%	N	%		
High	(32)	41	(12)	15	(44)	56
Medium	(11)	14	(11)	14	(22)	28
Low	(7)	8	(6)	7	(13)	15
Total	(50)	63	(29)	36	(79)	99

Groups with memberships of 10 or less had a propensity towards a high level of openness, greater than that of the groups with large memberships.

Group size was again collapsed from our four categories to two. The table of intimacy and group size indicated less substantiative trends between size and intimacy than in the previous example of openness and size.

TABLE 70  
GROUP SIZE BY INTIMACY

Intimacy	Group Size				Totals	
	10 or less		Over 10		N	%
	N	%	N	%		
High	(23)	29	(7)	8	(30)	37
Medium	(21)	27	(14)	18	(35)	45
Low	(8)	10	(6)	7	(14)	17
Total	(52)	66	(27)	33	(79)	99

Here we see that, although groups of 10 or less were highly intimate less than 50 per cent of the time, over 75 per cent of groups which were highly intimate had memberships of 10 or less. The difference between the two types of group memberships decrease as intimacy decreases. Groups with 10 or fewer members were more apt to have a high degree of intimacy between members.

It was expected that groups with a closed membership would be able to develop high levels of openness and particularly intimacy. The total sample responses for intimacy and openness were tabled with the responses for the type of group entrance structure. This trend was evident in relation to intimacy and our results were significant at the

.02 level. Closed groups did not tend to develop high levels of openness, any more so than in the open groups. The results of this table were not statistically meaningful, having a significance level of .2.

TABLE 71

## OPENNESS BY ENTRANCE TO GROUP

Entrance to Group	Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Open	(23)	29	(11)	14	(30)	4	(37)	47
Closed	(21)	27	(11)	14	(10)	13	(42)	54
Total	(44)	56	(22)	28	(13)	17	(79)	101

In this table we note that closed membership groups had more low openness and that open membership groups had a greater percentage of high openness. The expected relationship was not borne out at all. We remember that this is not statistically significant.

TABLE 72

## INTIMACY BY ENTRANCE TO GROUPS

Entrance to Group	Intimacy							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Open	(11)	14	(24)	30	(2)	3	(37)	47
Closed	(19)	24	(11)	14	(12)	15	(42)	53
Total	(30)	38	(35)	44	(14)	18	(79)	100

A significant relationship exists in the above table between closed groups and a high level of intimacy. We had expected that open groups would make up the largest proportion of low intimacies. This was not found. Instead, groups with open-ended memberships had primarily medium levels of intimacy.

Our final table using the parameters of openness was in relation to the level of worker education. It was expected that workers with some form of formal training about groups would have a greater probability of being found in groups where there was high openness. This was based on the importance ascribed to openness in the literature. Since the data have proven a significant dependence of intimacy on openness we felt that if the expected relationship was found it would have implications for intimacy that would be evident without the use of a table.

In the following tables our categories were collapsed to reflect the differences between formally trained and untrained.

TABLE 73

## OPENNESS BY EDUCATION

Education	Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formally Trained	(11)	14	(11)	14	(6)	7	(28)	35
Informal or not Trained	(33)	42	(11)	14	(7)	8	(51)	64
Total	(44)	56	(22)	28	(13)	15	(79)	99

In this table the numbers were too small to prove any statistical significance. The opposite of our expectation was found with a trend showing relationships between informal or no group training and high openness. Because the literature indicated that in some types of groups openness and intimacy are not necessary or sought after, particularly in education and task groups, we tabulated the data without the responses of the education and task groups from our sample.

TABLE 74

## OPENNESS BY EDUCATION

Education	Openness							
	High		Medium		Low		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formally Trained	(9)	16	(6)	11	(1)	2	(16)	29
Informally or no Training	(30)	53	(8)	14	(3)	5	(41)	72
Total	(39)	69	(14)	25	(4)	7	(57)	101

Again, significance could not be computed because of the small numbers. The percentages for both categories of worker training are similar, with the entire data here indicating a trend towards high levels of openness. With the withdrawal of task and education groups from the data the number of lows and medium opennesses did decrease significantly, however there seemed to be no relationship between formal or no formal group work training and the level of openness in the sample.

The data did seem to reveal a relationship between group size and openness and intimacy. The literature also indicates a trend between the aspects of group size and communication flow. It was expected that smaller group memberships would be associated with member to member communications.

TABLE 75

## GROUP SIZE IN COMMUNICATION FLOW

Communication Flow	Group Size									
	5 or less		6 to 10		11-15		16+		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker to Member	(9)	11	(7)	8	(7)	8	(1)	1	(24)	28
Member to Worker	(4)	5	(5)	6	(3)	4	(5)	6	(17)	21
Member to Member	(8)	10	(19)	24	(4)	5	(7)	8	(38)	51
Total	(21)	26	(31)	38	(14)	17	(13)	15	(79)	100

Groups with memberships of 6 to 10 had the highest number of member to member communication patterns. Our expected relationship was not found as there seemed to be no particular relationship between the smallest category of group size and a type of communication flow. Groups with memberships over 16 also tended to have a communication flow in which members were very active. The numbers were too small here to determine whether or not statistical significance existed.

The last three tables in this section with which we wish to deal appear in order to look for relationship between categories of group size and certain forms of group leadership and decision-making. It was expected that, broadly speaking, smaller groups would tend to have a

greater mutuality in decision-making. We were aware that the literature indicates the importance of the group typology to the decision-making process, however it could be logically expected, and therefore, more likely that mutuality of decision-making would tend to take place in small groups than in large, if this was desired. Tables were developed of group size by norms, goals, and tasks.

TABLE 76

## GROUP SIZE BY NORMS

Norms	Group Size								Totals	
	5 or less		6 to 10		11 to 15		16+		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Worker Dom.	(13)	16	(16)	20	(11)	14	(7)	8	(47)	58
Member Dom.	(1)	1	(6)	7	(2)	3	(6)	7	(15)	18
Mutual	(7)	8	(9)	11	(1)	1	(0)	0	(17)	20
Total	(21)	25	(31)	38	(14)	18	(13)	15	(79)	96

The expected relationship of the smaller the group the more mutual decision-making processes, will be discovered, was not carried through. However, if the columns of group size are collapsed we find that the trend between smaller groups and mutuality of decision-making does exist, and that very few of the groups with memberships over 10 had mutuality of decision-making. The numbers were too small here to determine statistical significance.



TABLE 77

## GROUP SIZE BY GOALS

Goals	Group Size								Totals	
	5 or less		6 to 10		11 to 15		16-		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Worker Dom.	(16)	20	(15)	19	(9)	11	(7)	8	(47)	58
Member Dom.	(0)	0	(4)	5	(4)	5	(4)	5	(12)	15
Mutual	(5)	6	(12)	15	(1)	1	(2)	3	(20)	25
Total	(21)	26	(31)	39	(14)	17	(13)	16	(79)	98

The expected relationship again appears. Although there are few groups with mutual decision-making here, 17 of 20 are in groups with memberships under 10.

In this last table, we find that the expected relationship is again borne out. Groups with mutuality of decision-making around tasks tended to be within these smaller two categories. Groups which fell into the 6 to 10 range had the greatest affiliation with mutuality, and with member dominance.

TABLE 78

## GROUP SIZE BY TASKS

Tasks	Group Size								Totals	
	5 or less		6 to 10		11 to 15		16-		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Worker Dom.	(3)	4	(5)	6	(7)	8	(4)	5	(19)	23
Member Dom.	(11)	14	(12)	15	(3)	4	(5)	6	(31)	39
Mutual	(7)	8	(14)	18	(4)	5	(4)	5	(29)	36
Total	(21)	26	(31)	39	(14)	17	(13)	16	(79)	98

In this final section we have reported our findings on tables developed from the responses of the total sample of the study.

In the following section we shall draw conclusions from the data presented in Chapters III and IV.

In this final section of the study we would like to present a view of the limited conclusions we have developed, and to raise some questions which the researcher has generated. Before leaving this section, a brief explanation of the purpose of this section is required. The focus of study throughout has changed the scope of this section. Because of the study's exploratory nature, the data reported in this section are not intended to be taken as definitive conclusions. In future chapters, more data are sought as a means of drawing conclusions. In this study the focus, information about the use of groups in research situations, was one of the main goals. Regarding our observations, we stated that we desired to develop a preliminary basis about the use of groups. We did not set out to solve specific questions and draw conclusions from them, yet the data in this section are significant. Because of the importance of satisfying practical requirements for the study, these conclusions are presented in these conclusions. In a sense, these are the study's findings.

The data from this study was developed through an interview, and the data was developed as a rapid development of the use of groups in research situations. From the study's exploratory nature and requirements of this use of groups, we found that the use of groups was not a major growth in the

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

In this final section of the study we would like to present some of the broad conclusions we have developed, and to raise some questions which the research has generated. Before moving into our task, a brief explanation of the purpose of this section is required. The form of study undertaken has shaped the scope of this section. Because our study was exploratory in nature, the data became an end to some extent, rather than just a means to reporting conclusions. To further elaborate, often data are sought as a means to drawing conclusions. In our study the data, information about the use of groups in casework oriented agencies, were one of the goals sought. Recalling our introduction, we stated that we desired to develop an information base about the use of groups. We did hope to be able to raise questions and draw conclusions from these, yet the data in themselves assume a role of added significance. Because of its importance in fulfilling partial requirements for the study, less importance is focussed on these conclusions than in other forms of study.

At the outset, our study was undertaken through an interest, in what some workers had perceived to be a rapid development of the use of groups in some traditionally casework oriented agencies. From our agency histories and recordings of their use of groups, we found that within the past four years there has been a rapid growth in the

group services extended to clients of social casework agencies, and that small agencies tended to be disproportionately slow in the adoption of the new method. This growth encompasses not only a greater usage of groups, but a greater consideration for their values in serving clients. This growth frequently found agencies unready, particularly in the sense that most agencies did not have what workers considered to be appropriate facilities for group work.

We must emphasize the significance of the fact that there were seventy-nine groups studied in these seven casework agencies. We know that there were in fact even more than this number present in the agencies as we did not study all intake groups at the Children's Aid Society.

Tentative explanations of this discovery of the rapid rise of the group movement are diverse. Perhaps the cause of this rapid development is linked with the general popularity of the group and the human potential movement. There is in social work a growing trend towards a generalist approach. Workers seemed to realize that groups could be used to meet some needs that the casework method could not. This trend towards generalism and consideration of client need, before the a priori application of one method, has perhaps played a part in the expansion of the group method. We speculate that there has been a breakdown in the mystique about the methods of casework and group work. More practitioners are sharing ideas and feel that they are capable of using both methods. Caseworkers are moving out of the psychoanalytic tradition which necessitates working on a one-to-one basis. They are

moving into work with families and the extended system and thus are becoming comfortable with more than one person.

Large agencies, obviously had large staffs. A large staff meant a higher number in staff turnover, thus there were always more new staff with fresh ideas. It is speculated that the interaction between large numbers of professional workers will create stimulation of new approaches. Those two attributes of a large staff are held responsible for the proportionately greater energies being invested in groups in the larger agencies. This runs counter to the assumption that larger numbers of staff in agencies leads to bureaucratization which leads to rigidity and thus to resistance to innovations such as the use of group methods. Perhaps a major factor in determining the speed of adoption of the use of groups is the degree of communication between group and caseworkers in an agency. With a greater understanding of what each is doing they can work out differences and thus caseworkers will be more willing to refer clients to groups.

The role of the social group worker was also instrumental in many cases. Only the larger agencies had social group workers except for the Children's Hospital. Although not elicited directly from our questionnaire, it became evident from workers' comments in our interviews that establishment of groups involved a great deal of preplanning, an initial investment which small agencies often do not have the resources to make.

Smaller agencies could be helped to overcome their task of resources for group development by the larger agencies. Larger

agencies with group work personnel and other resources could develop various programmes and become competent in a certain area. They could then act as consultants to smaller agencies having gone through the experimentation process themselves. Smaller agencies could also have social work students placed in their agency under the supervision of a field instructor. They could assess agency needs and develop new programmes. Perhaps the instructor could act as a consultant to agency workers.

The rapidity of the initiation of the use of groups in larger agencies and their consequent unpreparedness, is also marked by the fact that there was little or no consistent means of report keeping, recording of experimentation or evaluation of group use. The administrations of the two largest agencies were not fully aware of the extent to which groups were being used in their agencies. Fairly independent evaluations, on the part of workers, were made of their own groups. Whereas all agencies kept case files, files were not kept on groups. Some recording was made of members' involvement in groups through their individual case files.

Since evaluation is conducted on an independent, individual-worker basis, feedback that agencies get about groups tends to be very subjective and/or unsystematic lending support to the case of those who view the development of group use in these agencies as a fad. This fadism is opposed to an approach to development where lengthy study of previous experimentation is attempted as well as a sound review of the literature. The Children's Aid Society and the Family

Bureau were the only agencies which had any kind of conscious agency planning, and/or encouragement of the development of the use of group methods. We would recommend that other agencies that wish to have a successful group programme devote time to planning an overall agency approach to use of groups, and undertake educational programmes with all workers whether they will themselves be using groups or not. We also recommend the hiring of qualified persons to be consultants in the agency during the course of this development. We recommend that more consistent, systematic evaluation of group programmes be done. Only in this way can the true value and effectiveness of them be determined. This could be done with the help of an outside qualified consultant, or by knowledgeable persons within the agency devising a means for consistently evaluating groups that would be used as a basis for further planning.

Although a large number of workers were not formally trained about using groups, something of a grasp of the fundamental elements of group life and a look to past experience was usually evident. We cannot fully support a statement that the growth of groups is a fad; however, from our findings we note that elements of this trend can be observed.

It has been stated in our introduction that the group method can assume one or several different roles within a casework agency. Workers often commented on the role it played in the agency. We discovered that group usage in agencies was perceived in four different ways: 1) as a luxury method that they could not always

afford to use; 2) as an expedient method of doing casework with more than one person at a time; 3) as a complementary method to enhance some aspect of the casework relationship; and 4) as a unique method, with many similar and different goals for casework which can replace it as a means of service delivery in some cases. No one view is held predominantly.

Group methods did, however, continue to have a secondary status in these agencies, and by no means, in numbers or perceived importance, tended to replace the casework method. A possible recommendation for agencies that find themselves overwhelmed with keeping up with demands for casework could be to request money to hire a group worker on an experimental basis to innovate new programmes. This would be evaluated to see whether it met client needs and in some way freed caseworkers to work more intensely with their clients by reducing their caseloads.

Generally, those workers interviewed seemed to be aware of the values of groups, as a means of overcoming social alienation and establishing mutuality of support. Although there were cases in which workers were not concerned with the interaction between members as a means of achieving socially beneficial goals, their numbers were few. In some cases, although the value of interaction was recognized, a high degree of support and bond between members was not necessary or even viewed as helpful to the completion of goals, e.g., in some task and education groups.

From our data come several important questions for further study. We found that while there was a high number of persons working



with groups that were not formally trained in regard to the method, in some important areas of group life these persons tended to be found in groups where what could be considered the appropriate level of functioning was achieved. The main question was whether workers, untrained about groups, are really capable of creating high levels of intimacy and openness more frequently than trained workers. Our data indicated that untrained workers were as capable of creating high intimacy and openness as trained workers. Some secondary questions could be raised with regard to why this trend exists and also further study to evaluate the importance of training of the worker in shaping the parameters of group life so that the successful attainment of goals could be carried out. It might be speculated that caseworkers received training, the principles of which are readily transferred to work with groups. A further speculation related to the creation of high levels of intimacy and openness may be that personal attributes of individual workers may have more importance than the training of workers.

Certain questions should be raised about the utility of some characteristics of group life which our data indicated are widely used. Almost all groups had coffee or some form of food and almost all groups met on a weekly basis. Does this indicate that these two factors in group life are taken for granted, assumed always to be appropriate? Are there not situations where the presence of coffee or food retards group goals, e.g., task groups or therapy groups where the use of food may keep interaction on a socializing level and hinder the kind of interaction that will help the group meet its ultimate goals? Is there

no other frequency of meetings that could be of greater benefit in the achievement of group goals?

Many questions arise about the importance of the worker role in the groups. Groups that were meeting in formal physical atmospheres, where the goal was such that an informal atmosphere was desired, were often able to overcome this handicap and create informal social settings. How important is the worker's role in setting the group social environment? How important is the worker's role in determining the level of openness and intimacy? All of these questions relate to the question of how important is worker training, and how are the worker's skills, personality and past group experiences related to the successful goal attainment of the group?

In this section we shall draw tentative conclusions as to why some of the results we obtained occurred, and raise questions for further study arising from the data comparing different types of groups. Our comments will follow the order in which tables were presented in the analysis of data.

The finding that the duration of education groups was shorter relative to counselling and therapy groups is congruent with statements in the literature reported earlier. The former groups do not require as much cohesiveness to develop among members and hence not as much time, as more emphasis is placed on content of learning.

The highest percentage of formal physical and social atmospheres was in task and education groups. This, too, is consistent with the literature. Interpersonal sharing and intimacy are required more in the

other types of groups and require informal settings to put people at ease.

Socialization, therapy and counselling categories accounted for many groups meeting more than once a week and had the smallest percentage of groups meeting less than once a week. This, too, is consistent with our earlier statements about parameters. These groups require members who feel free to be open and/or intimate and who know each other well. Frequent meetings enhance this process. The 50 per cent of task groups meeting more than once a week was surprising to us. This can be explained by the fact that these two groups were children's speech therapy groups at the Child Guidance Clinic. Because members are given tasks to do in relation to the goal of speaking better, the worker classified them as task groups. They are not task groups in the usually accepted sense of the word.

Although therapy groups were expected by the researchers to meet more than an hour to allow for meaningful interaction, the fact that the majority of them did not can be explained by the predominance of children in their membership. The literature states that children cannot be expected to meet for long periods of time because of their short attention span.

The data regarding group size were consistent with what was expected. Most groups in which cohesiveness and intimacy were desired were small. Two task groups with five or fewer members were unexpected. These again were the speech therapy groups.

Overall, workers appear to be quite dominant in decision-making around norms and goals. It would be interesting to determine through

further research how the outcome of groups is affected by the amount of worker and member dominance in decision-making. Are therapy, counselling and socialization groups hindered by too much worker dominance, especially regarding goals? Is it necessary for workers to have considerable input into decisions around norms? Our questions were not refined enough to distinguish between different kinds of worker input - guiding, suggesting, and rule setting. This would be necessary if this question were to be studied further. Are graduate group workers more or less dominant than caseworkers?

Members were much more dominant in decisions around tasks and activities, which would indicate that workers were more willing to let members make smaller, more specific decisions, or that members were more prepared to do this.

The lack of formal power structures in therapy, counselling and human potential groups was consistent with our earlier comments about leadership. Such formalized structures are not necessary for these groups because they do not have specific tasks that must be accomplished expediently.

The fact that age and sex were so often used together as criteria for membership seems consistent with the literature. For instance, single sex groups are usually thought of as best for certain age groups, e.g., latency age children.

The expected trend in content of discussion was generally borne out, with therapy, counselling and socialization groups having predominantly content of a personal nature, and task and education and

recreation groups predominantly information discussion. These findings were congruent with the purposes of the groups.

The low percentage of therapy and counselling groups with member-to-member communication was unexpected. We do not know if this was because there was a disproportionately high percentage of these groups that had met for only a short time so that desired communication patterns had not had an opportunity to develop yet. We do know that most communication patterns were reported as moving in the desired direction, so perhaps these results are not as incongruent with expectations as they appear to be. A question raised by these results is whether or not it is easier to foster member-to-member communication in recreation and socialization groups than therapy and counselling groups because they are less personally threatening.

For intimacy the differences between these two sets of groups are not as marked. However, the same questions could be asked regarding therapy and counselling groups. Why were so few in the high category despite the fact that very few of them fall into the low category?

We were surprised by the high percentage of workers untrained and informally trained in group work leading therapy and human potential groups. We expected that these types would require workers with some training in working with groups since group interaction is so important in the helping process in these groups, and that interaction must be guided carefully to avoid harming rather than helping individuals. We felt that these results indicated a need for further study. Do agencies consider the amount of training workers have in group work when groups

are begun? Do untrained workers and informally trained workers produce noticeably different outcomes in the groups with which they work?

We shall not comment upon all the specific findings within our analysis of types of groups. We conclude that for the most part, in the groups studied, parameters were described as we had expected from surveying the literature. Most of the results were not clearly significant and/or trends were not clear, but few showed trends that were opposite to what we expected. Some of the unexpected results raise questions that we have already recorded in our conclusions about comparisons between types of groups. We see possibilities for further in depth study of some of the questions raised that would lead to an enhancement of our knowledge in this very important area of social work in Winnipeg.

... of traditional... in the...  
 ... will be... of the...  
 ... in Winnipeg was... for the future.

It is to be hoped that... involved with groups.  
 It is hoped that... the qualitative...  
 group... the...  
 which... the...  
 ... of group...  
 ... in relation to...  
 ...  
 ...

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDY ENTITLED  
THE USE OF GROUPS IN TRADITIONALLY CASEWORK ORIENTED AGENCIES  
FOR MSW II RESEARCH THESIS

Content - Two Parts

I. To be responded to by a senior staff person of the agency being studied who can respond for the agency. This area covers information pertaining to the characteristics of the agency and the overall development of the group method within the agency's history. These questions are raised to compile information as to the history of the development of groups in our sample of agencies, throughout Winnipeg. It is thought that our sample is representative of all aspects of traditionally casework oriented agencies in this city. Some conclusions will be drawn here about the progress of the group movement in Winnipeg and perhaps some directions for the future.

II. To be responded to by the workers involved with groups. It is hoped that a worker will complete the questionnaire for each group operating under agency auspices. Questions are raised here from which some conclusions can be drawn as to the appropriateness of the worker's development of group structure and other parameters of group life, in relation to stated goals. It is also hoped that some general conclusions regarding the reliance of workers on traditional method can be made. We do not intend to study the success-failure of any

group, but are more concerned with the kinds of general decisions that are being made in the group movement throughout the casework agencies in Winnipeg.

#### PART I:

Date:

Name of Agency:

Name of Person Interviewed:

Position Held in Agency:

Formal Training Level:

#### AGENCY

What are the purposes of the agency, its reason for being?

What are the agency's goals, the way in which it will meet its purposes?

What types of needs do clients present to this agency?

What are the general social characteristics of clients served?

What types of service are offered?

Geographical area of agency services?

What is the number of clients served by the various categorizations of service?

Are there workers from other agencies working with groups of this agency's clients at the request of this agency?

What number of agency workers are involved in group work?

#### DEVELOPMENT OF GROUP PROGRAM

How long has the agency been using groups with clients?

How did the concept of working with the groups of clients originate in the agency?

Has the concept developed?



What were some of the reasons for the development of the use of groups?

What are some of the ideas the agency has for the future use of groups?

In what ways does the agency evaluate its use of groups?

What form of data, records are collected on group activities?

## PART II:

Name of Agency:

Name of Worker:

Name of Group:

### GOALS FROM WORKER'S PERSPECTIVE

What are your goals for individual group members?

What are your goals for the group as a whole?

What learning or benefits do you see yourself deriving from working with this group?

How do you see this group fitting into the agency's purpose?

### CATEGORIES

Which categories most closely describe what kind of a group this is? Number in order that most closely approximates that nature of this group in a maximum of four categories.

a) Task-oriented group - those whose primary goals and focus involve the completion of certain tasks. Committees, councils and parliamentary groups, and social action groups are examples.

b) Educational group - those which bring their members together with the primary purpose of diffusion of information to the members or so that they can learn certain content, e.g., training groups.

c) Therapy group - those which bring together dysfunctional or sick persons with the primary focus being on the dysfunctional portion of their personality and with the primary goal of alleviating the problems creating the dysfunction, e.g., psychotherapy with a group of persons in a mental institution.

d) Discussion group - here the primary focus is on bringing people together to discuss content relevant to themselves. Goals are learning about content, interaction and fellowship, e.g., youth groups which meet to talk about common experiences.

e) Human potential group - focus is on bringing persons together to expand their human capacities. Emphasis on greater awareness of self and upon expanding potential of already functioning persons. Here and now learning experiences are developed, e.g., sensitivity training groups, leadership training groups.

f) Socialization group - primary focus is on members' ability to adopt new modes of response to other persons (usually peers) and society, through learning values and norms. There are many types of activities which will enhance individual social development, e.g., cubs, scouts, groups of teenagers who want to meet peers.

g) Recreational group - primary emphasis here is on activity enjoyment and obtaining pleasurable experiences. Benefits of socialization are secondary, e.g., bridge club, hockey team, ceramics class.

h) Counselling group - primary focus here is that members have problems (in the broadest sense of the word) which they bring to the group to search for resolutions. Differ from group therapy in that the emphasis is not on a dysfunctional psyche, but on interactional problems with external world.

i) Situational group-- groupings of persons who are experiencing a common process of becoming. Group that forms around crisis change points in life or during a common status change. Emphasis on coping with the change, at the time of change, e.g., pre-marital group, widow group.

#### ENVIRONMENT AND TIME

Where are the meetings held?

What is the atmosphere of the meeting place? e.g., bright and warm, cold and sterile. Describe the physical setting, seating arrangement, etc.

What is expected duration of the group?

What is the frequency of meetings?

What time of day are they held and for how long?

Is food available?

Is the location convenient for all members?

GROUP SIZE

How many people are in the group?

Is the group closed or open ended, i.e., can new members join throughout its duration?

What are the attendance patterns?

GROUP LEADERSHIP

What is the worker's role and the members' role in making decisions about:

- a) group norms
- b) group goals
- c) group activities and tasks
- d) meeting place, times, extra group communication?

Is there an established executive?

Is there evidence of an informal leadership pattern?

SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

What social characteristics of members were considered when recruiting for the group? Around what characteristics were they brought together?

COMMUNICATION NETWORK

In what ways do communications flow, e.g., worker to members?

What lines of communication have developed since the group's inception? Have communication sub-groups formed?

Is parliamentary procedure followed? Is there a chairman? Does worker act as chairman?

Is communication open?

High degree of openness - all members feel free to and are able to communicate directly with all other members and worker. They feel that they can be honest in what they say.

Low degree of openness - members direct most communication to worker when it would be appropriate to speak to other members. They feel that they cannot express what they really feel and think.

What degree and level of intimacy exists between members?

High degree of intimacy - members feel a sense of personal closeness and are free to express personal feelings, thoughts, anxieties.

Low degree of intimacy - members are not free to express personal feelings, thoughts, anxieties. They are still playing games with each other. They do not feel close to one another.

What is the usual content of discussion; personal, intellectual, superficial, meaningful?

### WORKER'S EXPERIENCE

How do you feel about the progress of your group?

What is your training in group work?

What is your experience with group work?

What do you think are the values of work with groups?

Do you think that there is potential for greater use of groups in this agency?

Do you have any critique to make of the formal training you received in preparation to working with groups?

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### Books:

- Bartlett, Harriet. Analyzing Social Work Fields of Practice by Fields. New York: The National Association of Social Workers, 1961.
- Doby, John T. (ed.). An Introduction to Social Research, 2nd edition. New York: Appelton-Century-Crofts, 1967.
- Family Service Association of America. The Use of Group Techniques in the Family Agency. New York: The Family Service Association of America, 1959.
- Fenton, Norman; Wiltse, Kermit. Group Methods. Palo Alto, California: Pacific Books, 1963.
- Goldstein, Arnold; Heller, Kenneth; Sechrest, Lee. Psychotherapy and the Psychology of Behavior Change. New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1966.
- Guilford, J.P. Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965.
- Hare, A. Paul. Handbook of Small Group Research. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1962.
- Hare, A. Paul; Borgatta, Edgar F.; Bales, Robert F. Small Groups Studies in Social Interaction. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1966.
- Hopkins, T.K. The Exercise of Influence in Small Groups. Tatowa, New Jersey: The Bedminister Press, 1964.
- Hyman, Herbert H., et al. Interviewing in Social Research. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954.
- Kahn, Robert L.; Cannell, Charles F. The Dynamics of Interviewing. New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1957.
- Kemp, C. Gratton, (ed.). Perspectives on the Group Process. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1964.
- Konopka, Gisela. Group Work in the Institution. New York: William Morrow and Co., 1954.
- Konopka, Gisela. Social Group Work: A Helping Process. Englewood-Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1963.

- Levine, Baruch. Fundamentals of Group Treatment. Chicago: Whitehall Co., 1967.
- Miller, Delbert C. Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement, 2nd edition. New York: David Mackay Co., Inc., 1970.
- Northen, Helen. Social Work With Groups. New York: Columbia University Press, 1969.
- Olmstead, Michael S. The Small Group. New York: Random House, 1959.
- Perlman, Helen Harris. Social Casework: A Problem-Solving Process. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957.
- Phillips, Helen U. Essentials of Social Group Work Skill. New York: Association Press, 1960.
- Polansky, Norman A. (ed.). Social Work Research. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.
- Schaff, Adam. Marxism and the Human Individual. New York: McGraw-Hill Books, 1970.
- Schreiber, Meyer (ed.) Social Work and Mental Retardation. New York: The John Day Co., 1970.
- Schwartz, William. The Social Worker in the Group: New Perspectives on the Service to Groups. New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1961.
- Selltiz, Claire, et al. Research Methods in Social Relations. Revised edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1957.
- Shepherd, Clovis R. Small Groups: Some Sociological Perspectives. San Francisco, Calif.: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964.
- Skinner, B.F. Beyond Freedom and Dignity. New York: Alfred Knopf, 1971.
- Toffler, Alvin. Future Shock. New York: Bantam Books, 1970.
- Trecker, Harleigh. Social Group Work Principles and Practices. Revised edition. New York: Whiteside Inc., 1955.
- Wilson, Gertrude. Group Work and Casework. New York: Family Welfare Association of America, 1941.

Articles:

- Barclay, Lillian E. "A Group Approach to Young Unwed Mothers." Social Casework, Vol. 50, No. 7 (July 1969).
- Bartlett, Harriet M. "The Place and Use of Knowledge in Social Work Practice." Social Work, Vol. 9, No. 3 (July 1964).
- Gifford, C.G. "Sensitivity Training and Social Work." Social Work, Vol. 13, No. 2 (1968), pp. 78-86.
- Gordon, William E. "Knowledge and Value: Their Distinction in Social Work Practice." Social Work, Vol. 10, No. 3 (July 1965), pp. 32-37.
- Hagburg, K.L. "Combining Social Casework and Group Work Methods in a Children's Hospital." Children, Vol. 16, No. 5 (1969), pp. 192-197.
- Kolodny, Fred; Frey, Louise. "Illusions and Realities in Current Social Work With Groups." Social Work (April 1964), pp. 80-89.
- Lessor, L.R. "A Small Agency Broadens Its Scope." Social Casework, Vol. 50, No. 3 (1969), pp. 157-161.
- O'Connor, Alice L. "A Creative Living Center For the Mentally Ill." Social Casework, Vol. 51, No. 9 (November 1970).
- Paul, J.E. "Family Group Methods in Child Welfare." Child Welfare, Vol. 8, No. 2 (1970), pp. 79-85.
- Silverstein, Sandra. "A New Venture in Group Work With the Aged." Social Casework, Vol. 50, No. 10 (December 1969).
- Smith, D.H.A. "A Parsimonious Definition of a 'Group' Towards Conceptual Clarity and Scientific Utility." Sociological Inquiry, Vol. 37, No. 2 (1967), pp. 141-167.
- Tropp, Emanuel. "The Group Life and Social Work." Social Casework, Vol. 49, No. 5 (May 1968), pp. 267-275.
- Wyers, Norman L. "Adaptations of the Social Group Work Method." Social Casework, Vol. 50, No. 9 (November 1969).

Unpublished Articles

- Klein, Alan. "Group Work Revisited." A position paper of the University of Pittsburg Graduate School of Social Work.
- Papell, Catherine P. "Sensitivity Training: Revelance for Social Work Education." Published in the latest issue of the Journal of Social Work Education. A paper presented at the annual meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Seattle, Washington, 1971.
- Yalom, Irwin D. "Synopsis of the Theory and Practice of Group Therapy," 1970.