EDITED BY

**ROBERT K.
CONYNE**

The Oxford Handbook *of*
GROUP
COUNSELING

The Oxford Handbook of Group Counseling

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Editor-in-Chief **PETER E. NATHAN**

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OXFORD LIBRARY OF PSYCHOLOGY

The *Oxford Library of Psychology,* a landmark series of handbooks, is published by Oxford University Press, one of the world's oldest and most highly respected publishers, with a tradition of publishing significant books in psychology. The ambitious goal of the *Oxford Library of Psychology* is nothing less than to span a vibrant, wide-ranging field and, in so doing, to fill a clear market need.

Encompassing a comprehensive set of handbooks, organized hierarchically, the *Library* incorporates volumes at different levels, each designed to meet a distinct need. At one level are a set of handbooks designed broadly to survey the major subfields of psychology; at another are numerous handbooks that cover important current focal research and scholarly areas of psychology in depth and detail. Planned as a reflection of the dynamism of psychology, the *Library* will grow and expand as psychology itself develops, thereby highlighting significant new research that will impact on the field. Adding to its accessibility and ease of use, the *Library* will be published in print and, later on, electronically.

The *Library* surveys psychology's principal subfields with a set of handbooks that capture the current status and future prospects of those major subdisciplines. This initial set includes handbooks of social and personality psychology, clinical psychology, counseling psychology, school psychology, educational psychology, industrial and organizational psychology, cognitive psychology, cognitive neuroscience, methods and measurements, history, neuropsychology, personality assessment, developmental psychology, and more. Each handbook undertakes to review one of psychology's major subdisciplines with breadth, comprehensiveness, and exemplary scholarship. In addition to these broadly conceived volumes, the *Library* includes a large number of handbooks designed to explore in depth more specialized areas of scholarship and research, such as stress, health and coping, anxiety and related disorders, cognitive development, and child and adolescent assessment. In contrast to the broad coverage of the subfield handbooks, each of these latter volumes focuses on an especially productive, more highly focused line of scholarship and research. Whether at the broadest or most specific level, however, all of the *Library* handbooks offer synthetic coverage that reviews and evaluates the relevant past and present research and anticipates research in the future. Each handbook in the *Library* includes introductory and concluding chapters written by its editor to provide a roadmap to the handbook's table of contents and to offer informed anticipations of significant future developments in that field.

An undertaking of this scope calls for handbook editors and chapter authors who are established scholars in the areas about which they write. Many of the

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In summary, the *Oxford Library of Psychology* will grow organically to provide a thoroughly informed perspective on the field of psychology, one that reflects both psychology's dynamism and its increasing interdisciplinarity. Once published electronically, the *Library* is also destined to become a uniquely valuable interactive tool, with extended search and browsing capabilities. As you begin to consult this handbook, we sincerely hope you will share our enthusiasm for the more than 500-year tradition of Oxford University Press for excellence, innovation, and quality, as exemplified by the *Oxford Library of Psychology*.

Peter E. Nathan
Editor-in-Chief
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Robert K. Conyne
Robert K. Conyne, PhD, professor emeritus at the University of Cincinnati, is a licensed psychologist, clinical counselor, and fellow of the Association for Specialists in Group Work (ASGW) and the American Psychological Association. With over 200 scholarly publications and presentations, including 11 books in his areas of expertise (group work, prevention, and ecological counseling), along with broad international consultation in these areas, Dr. Conyne is recognized as an expert in working with people and systems.

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DEDICATION

This volume is dedicated to all those leaders and followers over the decades who have envisioned and applied the ever-evolving theory, research, and practice of group counselling, resulting today in a vital and multifaceted method tailored to effectively advance the functioning of people and systems, with the promise of even more robust contributions in the future.

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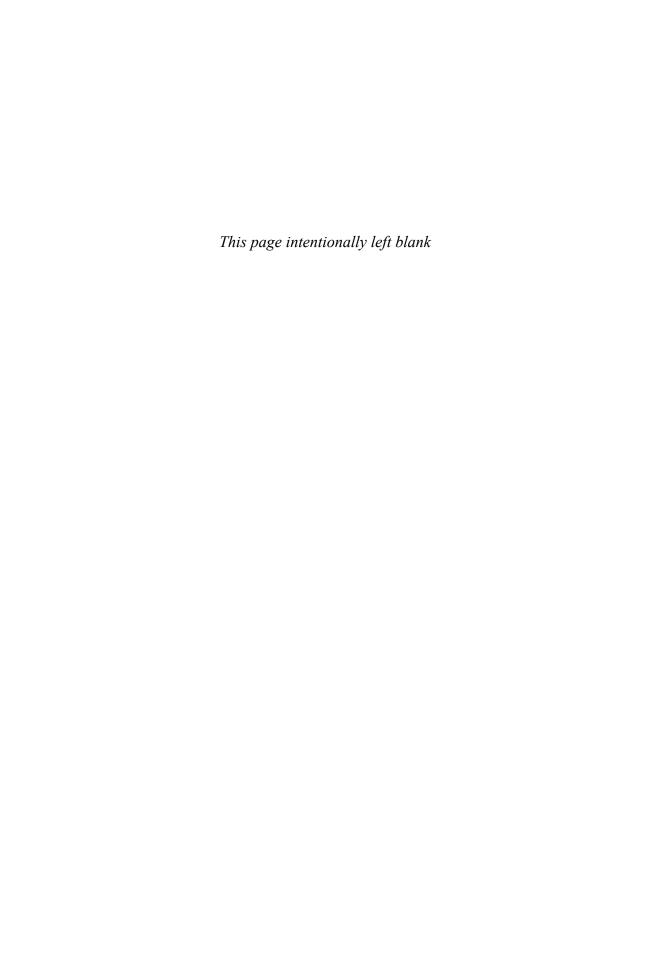**Michael Waldo**
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Introduction

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Introduction: Solidifying and Advancing Group Counseling

Robert K. Conyne

Abstract

This introductory chapter provides a general orientation to the handbook. After a description of how each chapter is formatted to promote consistency of approach, each of the ensuing 31 chapters is highlighted, arranged within the handbook's parts of Context, Key Change Processes, Research, Leadership, Applications, and Conclusion. The remainder of this introductory chapter presents a brief context for understanding group counseling, material that is excerpted from the editor's chapter in the forthcoming *Oxford Handbook of Counseling Psychology*, edited by Altmaier and Hansen.

Keywords: introduction, group counseling

General Orientation of the Handbook

This handbook is intended to assist in solidifying and advancing practice, training, and research in the broad intervention of group counseling. An outgrowth of the *Handbook of Counseling Psychology*, the current edited work falls under the board umbrella of the Library of Psychology of Oxford University Press, an ambitious and exciting project meant to capture the entire discipline of psychology.

In a sense, group counseling is like the "magical mystery tour" of the Beatles. After all the decades of wonderful music, group counseling—whose practice continually increases and expands—retains an elusiveness with regard to what makes it work (i.e., its "magic") and somewhat of a "mystery" in terms of what it is, what its effects are, and how it fits into the present and future kaleidoscope of helping methods. This edited volume explores and examines its journey, seeking to clarify where group counseling has been and is and where it is headed in relation to magic, mystery, and related issues.

Format for the Book Chapters

Edited works frequently have been criticized due to excessive variability across chapters. We have intentionally sought to avoid this problem by asking authors to follow a generally consistent approach. Chapter contents have been structured to (1) reflect a thorough and comprehensive review of the broad and deep group counseling literature base, spanning disciplines (e.g., counseling psychology, counselor education, clinical psychology, social work), journals and other publications of professional associations (e.g., the American Psychological Association's Society of Group Psychology and Group Psychotherapy, the American Counseling Association's Association for Specialists in Group Work, and the American Group Psychotherapy Association), books from differing scholarly perspectives, etc. (i.e., not to be drawn primarily from one disciplinary source); (2) follow the chapter outline, format, and guidelines developed by Oxford University Press; (3) be based on a substantial literature review; and (4) be grounded in, but not limited to, the topics sampler that the editor has developed for each chapter.

This introductory chapter provides synopses of what is to come. Each of the next 30 chapters is briefly highlighted. In the final chapter I identify 50 basic premises of group counseling that are culled from the preceding chapters and conclude by

suggesting that group counseling needs to be "mainstreamed" to a broader range of scholars and practitioners and to the public at large.

Contents Addressed across the Chapters

As the table of contents suggests, the contents of this edited work examine group counseling from multiple directions. Chapters are organized within parts titled

Introduction (this chapter)
Context
Key Change Processes
Research
Leadership
Applications
Conclusion

Chapters are written by an all-star compilation of group-counseling experts, who have organized their discussions using the most current information available. Chapter highlights follow.

Part Two: Context

CHAPTER 2. *THE NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF GROUPS*
BY DONELSON R. FORSYTH

What are groups, and how does group counseling fit in? What are the dominant and significant features?

Forsyth's chapter frames group counseling within the broad panorama of "groups." He points out that to understand group counseling it is necessary to grasp what groups themselves are all about, what defines their basic nature and processes. He indicates that the essential elements of a group are found in the relationships connecting members, boundaries, interdependence, structure, cohesion, and entitativity. The contents of this chapter organize the general working context within which group counseling can be understood, practiced, and researched.

CHAPTER 3. *DEFINITION OF GROUP COUNSELING*
BY DONALD E. WARD

What is group counseling?

This chapter defines it, paying attention to, describing, and elaborating relevant perspectives drawn from the whole literature related to this topic. In doing so, Ward points out that because professional group work has such varied origins, agreement upon a single, concise definition of *group counseling* has been difficult to achieve. He provides an abbreviated review of the literature that focuses on the origins of modern group work. Systems defining and describing group work are presented,

emphasizing the Association for Specialists in Group Work's model of four types: work and task groups, psychoeducation groups, counseling groups, and psychotherapy groups (Association for Specialists in Group Work, 2000). A consensus definition is extracted from these sources, and future directions are identified.

CHAPTER 4. *THE HISTORY OF GROUP COUNSELING*
BY GEORGE R. LEDDICK

How has group counseling evolved historically? What are the chief markers and highlights over the decades? Who have been dominating contributors?

Leddick illustrates how the history of group counseling is rooted in antiquity, with modern practice evolving from the 1940s. The history weaves a tapestry of influences including social justice groups, community organizations, quality-management groups, and numerous therapeutic orientations. Pioneer group-counseling practitioners included Joseph Pratt, Jane Addams, and Jesse Davis, with substantial contributions provided by Moreno, Lewin, Rees, Deming, Alinsky, Rogers, Perls, Yalom, Gazda, and others. The roles of several professional organizations in the development of group counseling are addressed, especially attending to their professional journals, standards, and guidelines. Leddick concludes that group counseling has emerged from its infancy and continues to mature as a professional specialty. As a bonus, photos of several shapers of group counseling are included in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5. *ETHICS, BEST PRACTICES, AND LAW IN GROUP COUNSELING*
BY LYNN S. RAPIN

What ethical, legal, and best-practice guidelines are relevant for group counseling?

Practitioners may not be aware of significant similarities and differences among philosophical foundations, professional association documents, and legal terms that guide practice. Rapin identifies similarities and differences among them, highlights essential issues specific to group practice, and suggests future directions. She makes it clear that ethical practice in group therapy is not a linear process. Rather, she suggests, ethical conduct is a matrix relationship involving numerous variables. According to her, the following equation highlights the essential components: ethical behavior in group counseling = (moral and ethical development) + (professional ethics) + (core knowledge and skills) + (specialty/best-practice guidelines) + (legal parameters) x decision making model(s).

CHAPTER 6. *DIVERSITY IN GROUPS*

BY JANICE DELUCIA-WAACK

How does a full range of diversity and multiculturalism relate to group counseling?

Recognition and appreciation of diversity in groups are essential to helping group members understand themselves and work together. DeLucia-Waack gives particular attention in this chapter to the relationship between diversity in group counseling and group-counselor training and practice. Different types of multicultural group work are described, as are key concepts in multicultural counseling, cultural values, and assumptions inherent in group work, as well as the importance of training for group leaders.

CHAPTER 7. *A SOCIAL JUSTICE APPROACH TO GROUP COUNSELING*

BY SALLY M. HAGE, MARK MASON, AND JUNGEUN KIM

How does group counseling connect with a social justice perspective?

Hage, Mason, and Kim describe in this chapter how a social justice approach is emerging as a central aspect of the work of the mental health professional. In addition, they show how group work holds significant potential to further a social justice agenda. This chapter then provides an overview of a social justice approach to group counseling. The meaning of *social justice* is clarified, and the historical origins of a social justice approach to group work are presented. Existing theory and research related to group work and social justice are reviewed, and current trends in research with social justice groups are summarized. Finally, the authors discuss barriers to a social justice approach to group counseling and the implications of this approach, for counseling training, practice, and research.

Part Three: Key Change Processes

CHAPTER 8. *THERAPEUTIC FACTORS IN GROUP COUNSELING: ASKING NEW QUESTIONS*

BY DENNIS M. KIVLIGHAN, JR., JOSEPH R. MILES, AND JILL D. PAQUIN

What are therapeutic factors, and how do they influence group counseling?

Kivlighan, Miles, and Paquin review therapeutic factors, describe methods of assessment, document research findings related to therapeutic factors, and discuss future research needs. They explore why therapeutic factors are considered to be key change processes. They ask how counselors can apply the research in this area to their practice and emphatically suggest that research on therapeutic factors in

groups will not advance until theorists and researchers begin to develop and test theories and models that have a *group* perspective.

CHAPTER 9. *COHESION IN COUNSELING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY GROUPS*

BY CHERI L. MARMAROSH AND STACY M. VAN HORN

What are the connections between group cohesiveness and group counseling?

Group cohesion is one of the most studied and theorized factors in group counseling. The relatively large amount of research that has been conducted on group cohesiveness is integrated in this chapter. Marmarosh and Van Horn review the history of group-therapy cohesion and the many challenges to both measuring and studying this frequently elusive group factor. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research and the implications for clinicians who do group work.

CHAPTER 10. *GROUP CLIMATE: CONSTRUCT IN SEARCH OF CLARITY*

BY DEBRA THEOBALD MCCLENDON AND GARY M. BURLINGAME

How is group counseling dependent on group climate?

McClendon and Burlingame review the research related to group climate in group counseling and examine critical questions. Definitions and key measures associated with group climate are examined that underscore definitional confusion and overlap with other group-process constructs, such as cohesion. Research associated with the Group Climate Questionnaire is reviewed and summarized. Finally, findings from an international collaborative research project conducted over the past decade are summarized to provide an alternative definition of *group climate* that encompasses the relationship variables of cohesion, therapeutic alliance, and empathy. A set of questions that this model directly addresses, as well as questions to be addressed by future research, concludes the chapter.

CHAPTER 11. *GROUP DEVELOPMENT*

BY VIRGINIA BRABENDER

What is group development? Why is attending to it by group counselors a key change process?

Brabender provides a historical description of the major models that show how counseling groups change over time. Particular attention is given to the predominant framework, the progressive stage model. In addition, other models reviewed are the life-cycle model, cyclic model, punctuated

equilibrium model, and approaches derived from chaos/complexity theory. This chapter considers the question of whether a group's development affects members' abilities to accomplish their goals. Finally, the chapter addresses the application of developmental thinking in unstructured and structured groups and develops the implications of group developmental theory for leadership activities.

Part Four: Research

CHAPTER 12. *EVIDENCE BASES FOR GROUP PRACTICE*
BY SALLY H. BARLOW
What are process and outcome in group counseling? How do they interrelate?

In this chapter Barlow documents how group treatments represent an efficacious and efficient mental health intervention that rival and at times exceed individual therapy outcomes. It reveals how group psychotherapy capitalizes upon group processes that replicate at the micro level the macro struggle for equal access to life-affirming mental health and how change processes occur as skilled group therapists invoke therapeutic factors within the group climate to promote client change. This chapter demonstrates the importance of mental health professionals keeping current with research process and outcome evidence. Barlow suggests how researchers, practicing clinicians, and future clinicians can benefit from exchanges with each other as evidence bases inform expert intervention for participating group members who seek positive change.

CHAPTER 13. *GENERAL RESEARCH MODELS*
BY REX STOCKTON AND D. KEITH MORRAN
What models exist for group research, and how can they be employed?

The authors focus on how general research models promote academic and practitioner collaboration in group-counseling research, how student/trainee research skills can be developed through well-functioning collaborative research teams, how outcomes add to the storehouse of group knowledge and contribute to real-world application, and how to cross disciplinary lines. Stockton and Morran highlight specific issues related to group-counseling research, including research skills training for graduate students, practical skill-application experiences, use of a research team approach to inquiry, practitioner–researcher collaboration, interdisciplinary research, and programmatic research. Major quantitative and qualitative designs for group research are reviewed.

Suggestions and recommendations for future research in the group field are offered.

CHAPTER 14. *ASSESSING GROUPS*
BY JONATHAN P. SCHWARTZ, MICHAEL WALDO, AND MARGARET SCHWARTZ MORAVEC
How is group counseling assessed? Assessment is critical to understanding the outcomes and processes inherent in group counseling. However, assessment in groups is often ignored or attempted utilizing measures with poor psychometrics.

In this chapter, Schwartz, Waldo, and Schwartz Moravec explore the various purposes of assessment in group counseling, followed by a summary of different types of assessment that may be used. Strengths and weaknesses of various assessments and research designs also are discussed, along with implications for best practice.

CHAPTER 15. *QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACHES AND GROUP COUNSELING*
BY DEBORAH J. RUBEL AND JANE E. ATIENO OKECH
What is qualitative research? How does it apply to group counseling? Why does qualitative research struggle for acceptance and credibility in counseling and related fields? What are its advantages and disadvantages?

Rubel and Okech describe several qualitative research studies in group counseling, probe how a qualitative approach can be activated by group-counseling researchers, and identify how group-counselor practice can benefit from qualitative research applications. The authors explore the fundamental characteristics of qualitative approaches, their strengths and limitations, and various types of qualitative research. They discuss the challenges and needs of group-counseling research and how qualitative approaches may address these needs. An atheoretical research design process aimed at promoting congruent, effective qualitative designs is presented. Finally, Rubel and Okech provide summaries and evaluations of several qualitative group-counseling studies, present key themes from the chapter discussions, and propose future directions for qualitative research applied to group counseling.

Part Five: Leadership

CHAPTER 16. *PERSONHOOD OF THE LEADER*
BY JAMES P. TROTZER
What is meant by the term *personhood*? Why is the personhood of the group counselor important?

The author summarizes research in this area. Questions include, How can a leader's personhood be enhanced, and why is personhood alone not enough for effective group counseling? Trotzer distinguishes between the group leader (who the leader is) and leadership (what the leader does). He explores the role of personhood in relation to a group-work paradigm including the three elements of person, process, and product. Theory and research are examined using a "prism of personhood" developed by the author to identify and validate the central nature and role of personhood in the practice of group counseling.

CHAPTER 17. *GROUP TECHNIQUES*
BY MARK D. NEWMEYER

What are group techniques, and how might they best be used?

The term *group technique* is not well defined. A variety of other terms (e.g., *structured experiences*, *exercises*) are often used interchangeably. Given this current state, Newmeyer suggests it is of little surprise that few conceptual models have developed to assist group leaders in properly considering and selecting group techniques. One model attempting to fill this gap, the purposeful group techniques model, is described. The model consolidates various established elements of how groups work and function, with six core ecological concepts (i.e., context, interconnection, collaboration, social system maintenance, meaning making, and sustainability). Research to examine the model, as well as developing other such models, is needed.

CHAPTER 18. *GROUP LEADER STYLE AND FUNCTIONS*
BY SHERI BAUMAN

What group-leader styles and functions have been identified, and how do they work?

Bauman defines both leader style and function in group counseling and discusses and summarizes the research on leader style and function. She explores what research is needed to advance understanding and test hypotheses and indicates how knowledge of leader style and function connects with group-counseling practice and training.

CHAPTER 19. *GROUP-LEADERSHIP TEACHING AND TRAINING: METHODS AND ISSUES*
BY NINA W. BROWN

What group-counseling teaching and training methods exist? What is the status of teaching group counseling across disciplines?

In her review of the literature, Brown discovered that few evidence-based studies have been reported on group-leadership teaching methods. The consensus from professional experts is that group-leadership training encompasses three dimensions: knowledge, leader personal development, and techniques and skills. She observes that much of the attention is given to the use of experiential groups as a teaching/learning strategy and the procedural and ethical concerns that surround its use. Brown presents in this chapter historical and current research on teaching models, methods, and issues and concludes with a set of recommendations.

CHAPTER 20. *SUPERVISION OF GROUP COUNSELING*
BY MARIA T. RIVA

Why is supervision of group counseling necessary and desirable? What is meant by *supervision*? What models exist to perform it? How are they executed? What works?

Riva points out that supervision of group counseling is a topic that has received little attention, yet it is crucial to the professional development of group counselors and overseeing group clients' care. In this chapter she highlights the role of supervision in group counseling, the responsibilities of the supervisor, and the tasks involved in the supervisory relationship. A section also addresses research that has been conducted and the need for and directions of future research.

CHAPTER 21. *CREATIVITY AND SPONTANEITY IN GROUPS*
BY SAMUEL T. GLADDING

What is meant by creativity and spontaneity in group counseling? What is the research about these factors? What is the value of these two factors in group counseling? How can these qualities be developed in group counselors? How can group counselors use creativity and spontaneity?

Gladding considers these questions in this chapter, examining creativity and spontaneity and how they can be used in groups of all types including group counseling. These concepts are first defined, and steps in the creative process are discussed. Then, the importance and benefits of creativity and spontaneity in groups are examined. Research related to their use and value in group settings is explored. Ways of promoting creativity and spontaneity in groups are discussed next, along with barriers to being creative in a group. Finally, questions regarding the future of using creativity and spontaneity in groups are raised, and Web sites related

to creativity and spontaneity in groups follow the conclusion.

Part Six: Applications

CHAPTER 22. *GROUPS ACROSS SETTINGS*

BY CYNTHIA R. KALODNER AND ALEXA E. HANUS

What settings are especially suited for group counseling?

Kalodner and Hanus observe in this chapter that group interventions exist in a large diversity of settings. Their goal is to provide readers with a sense of the ubiquitous nature of groups. The variety of settings includes a focus on different kinds of groups for clients of different ages with a diversity of clinical issues. Each section provides examples of groups and research to support these groups in particular settings. Selected for depth of coverage in this chapter are Veterans Administration programs, behavioral health and medical settings, college/university counseling centers, and schools. The chapter concludes with suggestions for the future of groups in these settings and an extensive reference list.

CHAPTER 23. *GROUP COUNSELING ACROSS THE LIFE SPAN: A PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE*

BY JEANMARIE KEIM AND DAVID L. OLGUIN

Can group counseling be applied throughout the life span?

Keim and Olguin discuss group work for individuals across the life span, examining it through a psychosocial development lens. They posit that Erikson's contribution of psychosocial stages to the helping professions remains a valuable tool in conceptualizing development, prevention, and treatment and that group work is an appropriate and effective method to promote positive psychosocial growth and assist members to overcome cognitive, behavioral, and emotional difficulties. The authors suggest that due to the broad range of groups that exists it is important for group counselors to conceptualize prospective members within a developmental context, including which psychosocial tasks each person is facing. This chapter opens with a brief overview of Erikson's psychosocial stages, followed by overviews of group literature for 10 specific age groups, related group leader considerations, and future directions.

CHAPTER 24. *GROUP COUNSELING WITH SEXUAL MINORITIES*

BY KATHLEEN RITTER

What is known about how best to work with sexual minority group members? What do group leaders need to appreciate, know, and be able to do?

Ritter demonstrates that when counselors can appreciate the unique life circumstances that lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender clients bring to the group experience and possess the skills to lead the group through its many transitions, it becomes possible for growth to occur for every individual involved. She suggests that understanding the concepts of oppression, minority stress, and cohort and developmental differences provides a context for effective and ethical group facilitation. Ritter briefly reviews the existing literature related to sexual minority group members and examines the relevant guidelines, principles, competencies, and ethical codes of several professional associations. Other concepts discussed include group composition, leader sexual orientation, group management, and sexual minority members and group dynamics.

CHAPTER 25. *PREVENTION GROUPS*

BY MICHAEL WALDO, JONATHAN P. SCHWARTZ, ARTHUR HORNE, AND LAURA CÔTÉ

How can group counseling be used preventively?

The authors focus on the connections between "prevention" and "group." Different perspectives on prevention are described, including methods of classifying preventive interventions, followed by a description of current classifications of prevention group work. Next, the advantages of using group counseling for prevention are outlined. Theory and research explaining how prevention group counseling works are reviewed. Therapeutic factors that frequently occur in group counseling are described, with a focus on how these therapeutic factors can contribute to different forms of prevention. Dynamics that develop in groups are then detailed, including how group leaders may employ group dynamics to foster therapeutic factors. Current examples of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention groups are provided, including evaluative research on their effectiveness. Waldo, Schwartz, Horne, and Côté conclude the chapter with a summary and examination of future directions for prevention group counseling.

CHAPTER 26. *INTERNATIONAL GROUP COUNSELING*

BY J. JEFFRIES MCWHIRTER, PAULA T. MCWHIRTER, BENEDICT T. MCWHIRTER, AND ELLEN HAWLEY MCWHIRTER

What is the status of group counseling globally?

In this chapter J. Jeffries McWhirter and his colleagues consider the field of group counseling from an international perspective. They suggest that the

inclusive definition of group counseling provided by Conyne (in this chapter) is compatible with the broad range of interventions being developed and facilitated internationally. Following a summary of facilitation and training issues, they provide an extensive review of research from a global perspective on a continent-by-continent basis. Next, they describe five group-counseling applications, focusing on international indigenous groups based in diverse regions internationally. Finally, the authors address questions and highlight suggestions for further exploration and consider the growth and impact potentials for group work that cross national and cultural perspectives.

CHAPTER 27. *BRIEF GROUP TREATMENT*
BY JERROLD LEE SHAPIRO

What are brief groups, and how do they work?

In this chapter, Shapiro describes brief groups as being time-limited with a preset termination and a process orientation and being led by a professional. Membership is closed, and members are screened for fit, consistent goals and similar ego strength. A short history of the precursors of brief group treatments is presented. The process stages, or group trajectory, are described and related to the nature and timing of interventions. Extant studies in the area of brief group process and outcome research are explored and recommendations made for more carefully designed studies. Finally, Shapiro offers a combination of prediction and wish list for future research, practice, and training in brief group approaches.

CHAPTER 28. *MUTUAL HELP GROUPS: WHAT ARE THEY AND WHAT MAKES THEM WORK?*
BY PHYLLIS R. SILVERMAN

Why do people find it so helpful to meet others who have similar problems or life-changing experiences? Why does finding others like ourselves give us a sense of hope or of being understood and often a direction to a solution to our problem? Are there other aspects of the experience and the setting in which this kind of encounter takes place that matter?

In this chapter Silverman offers some understanding of how mutual help groups emerge, what they do for those who participate, and the kind of settings in which they occur. Silverman concludes that what seems to matter a good deal in mutual help groups is who controls the program and its resources.

CHAPTER 29. *ONLINE GROUPS*
BY BETSY J. PAGE

What are online groups, and how can counselors and other mental health workers use them appropriately?

Page indicates that online support groups encourage and offer acceptance, support, and virtual companionship to participants. In a sense, she says, they can serve to offset social isolation. Page addresses the full-range of online groups including social networking, describing how they work and giving some key examples. Research is summarized and benefits and deficits of online approaches are highlighted. How group counselors can become involved appropriately is outlined, and future projections are offered.

CHAPTER 30. *GROUPS FOR TRAUMA/DISASTER* **BY DAVID W. FOY, KENT D. DRESCHER, AND PATRICIA J. WATSON**

How is group counseling being used in trauma and disaster situations?

Foy, Drescher, and Watson describe in this chapter the evolution of trauma and disaster groups. They discuss how group interventions for survivors of trauma were first used following World War II with combat veterans who were struggling with the psychological consequences of their war experiences. Early groups were conducted months or years after combat, while the ensuing evolution of groups for trauma has diversified so that single-session groups are now often used to provide support for disaster survivors within the first few days or weeks after the event. The authors highlight two emerging forms of trauma and disaster groups, psychological first-aid groups and spiritual and trauma groups, and they provide recommendations for group leaders.

Part Seven: Conclusion
CHAPTER 31: *GROUP COUNSELING: 50 BASIC PREMISES AND THE NEED FOR MAINSTREAMING* **BY ROBERT K. CONYNE**

This summative chapter includes two parts. The first results from identifying and briefly describing "basic premises" about group counseling that emerged from a review of the preceding handbook chapters. The second part contains an argument for more assertively ushering group counseling and all its benefits into the "mainstream" of professional and public awareness.

A Brief Context for Understanding Group Counseling
The remainder of this introductory chapter consists of adapted excerpts drawn from my overview chapter on group counseling to be found in the forthcoming *Handbook of Counseling Psychology*

(Altmaier & Hansen, in press). Refer to that chapter for expanded coverage and to the following chapters in this volume, all of which are aimed at solidifying and advancing group counseling. The material below is intended to summarize major components of group counseling and to introduce the informative discussion to come contained in the next chapters.

A Definition of Group Counseling

Group counseling is an important therapeutic and educational method that psychologists, counselors, and other helpers can use to facilitate interpersonal problem-solving processes among members as they learn how to resolve difficult but manageable problems of living and how to apply gains in the future. While being a unique service-delivery method, group counseling also shares much in common with related group-work approaches, including psychoeducation groups and psychotherapy groups. In general, group counseling occupies a broad middle section of the helping goals continuum where prevention, development, and remediation all play important roles, depending on member needs and situational supports and constraints (Conyne, in press).

History

Group counseling has emerged over more than 100 years. This protracted period of time can be arranged into four time periods, as follows:

1. Period 1, the "years of development," 1900–1939: marked by early forays into working with people collectively, group work aimed at changing social conditions and laying a foundation for the progress to come

2. Period 2, the "years of early explosion," 1940–1969: a remarkable two decades beginning with accelerating the spread of group approaches following World War II and noted for innovation and experimentation; for production and organization of theory, techniques, and research; for the formation of group organizations; and for the spread of groups throughout society occurring during the "human potential movement" of the 1960s

3. Period 3, the "years of settling in," 1970–1989: two decades noted for sifting through earlier advancements and documenting what worked through substantial and influential publications, the emergence of group training in universities and elsewhere, and the formation of key group-work organizations

4. Period 4, the "years of standardization and further expansion to the age of ubiquity," 1990–present: a time noted for efforts to define group work and the place of group counseling in relation to it, for products intended to clarify guidelines and standards for group training and practice, for the publication of more sophisticated research into process and outcomes, for the emergence of group handbooks, for the wide expansion of group work to fit differing populations and settings, and for experimentation of group methods using online and other electronic vehicles.

Key Change Processes of Group Counseling
Therapeutic Factors, Group Climate, and Group Development
THERAPEUTIC FACTORS

After considering the large body of literature addressing the importance of therapeutic factors, Kivlighan and Holmes (2004) were led to conclude that little progress has been made in answering an initial basic question raised by Yalom: "How does group therapy help patients?" Complexities of client, therapist, and group variables—and their interaction—continue to vex efforts. Future research into these and other areas raised in this section will help to further clarify how therapeutic factors operate and how group leaders can harness their power. Developing answers to these questions is important to group counseling.

GROUP CLIMATE

Kivlighan and Tarrant (2001) suggest the following:

> Group members will increase their active involvement with the group when group leaders refrain from doing individual therapy in the group and actively set goals and norms while maintaining a warm and supportive environment . . . the group leader's major task is to create a therapeutic group climate . . . unlike individual treatment, where the relationship between the client and therapist is tantamount, in group treatment leaders should probably de-emphasize their relationships with individual group members and focus on creating a therapeutic group climate. (p. 231)

GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Patterns are observable when examining many groups from a distance, although chance and serendipity associated with the unique composition of a group and the often unpredictable interactions occurring among members contribute strongly

to any one group's development. Still, group developmental models can be used by group leaders to assist in managing events under way in a group, to help in predicting general future events, and to guide creation of a plan for a new group (Conyne, 1997; Conyne, Crowell, & Newmeyer, 2008; MacKenzie, 1997; Wheelan, 1997, 2005). A number of studies (e.g., Kivlighan, McGovern, & Corazzini, 1984) have shown that a successful group outcome is strongly dependent on the group being able to move positively through developmental levels (Donigian & Malnati, 1997).

Leadership

Group leadership is the ability to draw from best practices and good professional judgment to

> Create a group and, in collaboration with members, build and maintain a positive group climate that serves to nurture here-and-now interaction and its processing by leader and members, aimed at producing lasting growth and change (Conyne, in press).

FUNCTIONS, TASKS, AND ROLES
OF GROUP LEADERS

Yalom (1995) maintains that the group leader's initial goals are to create a therapeutic culture drawing largely from task-oriented behaviors; this is known as the "technical expert role." As the group proceeds, the leader may shift to providing increased relationship behaviors and modeling of positive attitudes and behaviors, consistent with a model-setting participant role as the group evolves. Both of these roles are important in shaping the group climate and its norms.

PREGROUP PREPARATION AND PLANNING
IN CREATING THE GROUP

Pregroup preparation has been shown to be essential to promoting group cohesion, member satisfaction, and comfort with the group (e.g., Bednar & Kaul, 1994; Bowman & DeLucia, 1993; Burlingame, Fuhriman, & Johnson, 2001, 2004; Conyne, Wilson, & Ward, 1997; Riva, Wachtel, & Lasky, 2004). Pregroup preparation enjoys the strongest empirical support of all structuring approaches.

POSITIVE VALENCE OF THE GROUP LEADER

As stated by Yalom, "The basic posture of the [group] therapist to a client must be one of concern, acceptance, genuineness, empathy. *Nothing, no technical consideration, takes precedence over this attitude*" (italics retained; Yalom, 2005, p. 117).

STIMULATING AND FOCUSING
HERE-AND-NOW INTERACTION

As Yalom (2005) stressed, "[this is] perhaps the single most important point I make in this entire book: *the here-and-now focus, to be effective, consists of two symbiotic tiers, neither of which has therapeutic power without the other*" (p. 141, italics retained). These tiers are (1) stimulating here-and-now interaction and (2) illuminating and focusing process.

USING MEANING ATTRIBUTION

The experience of group counseling can be bewildering due to its ongoing dynamic activity. It also can be emotionally overpowering at times, or conversely, it can sap the patience of everyone involved. In any and all cases, the experience of group participation can become more understandable and meaningful, as was mentioned earlier, when group leaders assist members in converting experience to cognition (Conyne, 1999; Lieberman, Yalom, & Miles, 1973).

LEADER CHOICE OF INTERVENTIONS

Interventions need to be chosen with intentionality to more purposefully stimulate here-and-now experience and its evolving meaning (e.g., Cohen & Smith, 1976; Corey & Corey, 2006; Ivey, Pedersen, & Ivey, 2001, 2008; Jacobs, Masson, & Harvill, 2006; Stockton, Morran, & Clark, 2004; Trotzer, 2004). Building on Cohen and Smith's classic critical incident model (1976), Conyne et al. (2008) integrate several additional elements thought to be important in group leadership to create the purposeful group technique model. This five-step model is used intentionally to guide the consideration and selection of group techniques. It is based on viewing a group as an ecological system.

DRAWING FROM STANDARDS, GUIDELINES,
AND PRINCIPLES TO GUIDE GROUP LEADERSHIP

The increased intentionality in group leadership has been marked by the creation and adoption of various standards, guidelines, principles, and codes that are particular to group work. It is important for group leaders to be aware of and guided by existing ethics, best-practice guidelines, legal statutes, and other professional codes that are relevant to their practice (Wilson, Rapin, & Haley-Banez, 2004).

ETHICAL PRACTICE

Sound ethical practice is accomplished through giving appropriate attention to planning, performing, and

processing groups (Rapin, 2004). Thorough planning, for example, can help control for committing errors in confidentiality, informed consent, and recruitment and selection of members as well as help to design a group that more closely reflects the needs and culture of the participants. Careful attention to performing, that is, attending to what leaders do within sessions, can enhance the effectiveness and appropriateness of leader interventions. Thoughtful processing can protect against ignoring how ethical and legal principles apply to situations being confronted and can promote regular scrutiny and evaluation of the group being led.

DIVERSITY AND MULTICULTURAL PRACTICE

Group leaders need to become comfortable and competent in providing multicultural group counseling. Specific recommendations have been provided to assist in meeting this charge (DeLucia-Waack & Donigian, 2003): (1) develop awareness of the worldviews of different cultures and how these might impact group-work interventions, (2) develop self-awareness of racial identity and one's own cultural and personal worldviews, and (3) develop a repertoire of group-leader interventions that are culturally appropriate. The Association for Specialists in Group Work (ASGW, 1998) principles for diversity-competent group workers offer specific guidance; three areas of multicultural competence for group leaders and group members alike are emphasized in the principles: group leader attitudes and beliefs, knowledge, and skills.

IMPROVISATION

Nearly always there are apparent discordances and conflicting melodies running through group interaction. At times group interaction may "sound" cacophonous. Different members "play" idiosyncratic tunes on their own separate instruments, just as in a jazz ensemble, seemingly at times at odds with each other. Yet, underneath there often is a "matter of consistency" (Kaul, 1990)—a unison refrain, a groove, if you will— and it is the group leader's role to find it, if no one else can, to bring it home to every member's awareness. And then leaders need to show members how their interactive participation can become harmonious even as they continue to express their individuality. Theory, research, and supervised practice contribute substantively to inform and guide group leadership, indeed; but personal factors, along with spontaneity and intuition, may be just as important.

Expansion of Groups in Contemporary Society: The "Age of Ubiquity"?

There are, of course, professionally led groups, commonly referred to as "counseling and therapy groups." These have garnered the attention of this review chapter. As well, many specifications and adaptations exist of ASGW's four types of groups (task, psychoeducational, counseling, and psychotherapy), including a myriad of support groups and self-help/mutual help groups. Groups are multisplendored, therefore. They are tailored to a wide range of specific populations, addressing a myriad of health and mental health–care issues. Groups are offered across the life span and provided in brief therapy formats supported by managed care (but, alas, much more needs to be done in this arena). There are quality circle groups, community action groups, prevention groups, social justice groups, trauma groups, and the list goes on . . . and on.

Brief Group Therapy

Brief group therapy (BGT) is of considerable interest for a variety of reasons. Research attests to its efficacy and wide applicability (e.g., Spitz, 1996). In addition, BGT may be a treatment of choice for specific client problems, such as complicated grief, adjustment problems, trauma reactions, existential concerns, and more recently medically ill patients and in combinations for those with personality disorders (Piper & Ogrodniczuk, 2004).

Mutual Help Groups

Drawing from a national survey, Kessler, Michelson, and Zhao (1997) reported that approximately 7% (about 11 million) of adults in the United States participated in a mutual (self) help group in the year studied and that 18% of Americans had done so at some time during their lives. Klaw and Humphreys (2004) point out that these kinds of groups are low-cost, participation in them can produce positive health outcomes while often lowering health-care expenditures, and professionally led groups can be improved by integrating with self-help approaches.

Social Justice Groups

After decades where group work targeted person-change areas while minimizing attention to social change, the end of the last century was marked by renewed vigor in addressing change approaches aimed at social justice and community development (e.g., Lee, 2007; Toporek, Gerstein, Fouad,

Roysircar-Sodowsky, & Israel, 2005), including attention to using groups for these purposes. Examples of groups being used for social justice and system change can be found in the area of community-based participatory research and action (Finn & Jacobson, 2003; Jacobson & Rugeley, 2007), expanding learning from the group social microcosm to external system application (Orr et al., 2008), and using empowerment groups in schools (Bemak, 2005). Using groups and group processes for social justice is emerging as an important approach.

Online Groups
Groups always have been conducted face-to-face, and nearly all of the existing research and practice knowledge is premised on that direct format. With the explosion in the creation and availability of computers and online technologies, however, a whole new arena has been opened. Although there remains concern about losing the value of personal, face-to-face groups online formats have flourished in what was termed an "electronic frontier" (Bowman & Bowman, 1998)—an eon ago when counting in technological years.

An increasing range of possibilities exist for online group application. These include, but are not limited to, interactive E-journaling (Haberstroh, Parr, Gee, & Trepal, 2006), Internet support groups (Lieberman, Wizlenberg, Golant, & Minno, 2005), online discussions that are synchronous and asynchronous (Romano & Cikanek, 2003), and videos and computer simulations for training (Smokowski, 2003).

Conclusion
Face-to-face group counseling is effective and efficient at promoting change and growth in members. Its more than 100-year history is marked by expansion, solidification, and continued innovation. Standards, principles, and guidelines have emerged as reference points.

Group counseling and other group forms are conducted across the spectrum of remediation, development, and prevention to address a range of target populations. Groups are located in an array of settings, from private practice to schools, communities, and organizations. They are professionally led, self-help, offered face-to-face and online, and brief or longer-term; and they address trauma and wellness. Mechanisms for positive change have been identified generally, with further refinements

emerging in robust research programs being disseminated through respected scholarly vehicles. We have entered an "age of ubiquity," with a future full of opportunities and challenges.

Future Directions
The future of group counseling is bright. To intensify and expand its glow, the following 10 points are offered, which evolve from the preceding narrative. They are arranged generally into research and practice categories.

Research
1. The group-research agenda needs to deepen, widen, and integrate. The promising lines of research focused on the process engines that drive groups, including cohesion, culture, and therapeutic factors, are revealing important practice applications that invite deepening (e.g., Kivlighan et al., 2000; Riva et al., 2004). A widening of group research will explore multicultural, online, prevention, trauma, and other expansions of group application (Chen, Kakkad, & Balzano, 2008; DeLucia-Waack, Gerrity, Kalodner, & Riva, 2004; Gazda, Ginter, & Horn, 2001).

2. Continued investigation of the evidence basis for group counseling needs to continue and be extended (Burlingame & Beecher, 2008). This focal area is beginning to coalesce around the designation of research-supported group treatment (RSGT) (Johnson, 2008). As well, RSGT efforts need to include cultural and setting differences (Chen et al., 2008) and the whole span of group dynamics (Kivlighan, 2008).

3. Adopting common conceptions of group counseling and other group formats (e.g., the ASGW delineation of group-work types [task, psychoeducation, counseling, and psychotherapy], the multifaceted model of group psychotherapy described by Burlingame, Kapetanovic, & Ross [2005], the group work grid of Conyne [1985]) would assist group research, for example, of therapeutic factors across different types of groups and settings (Kivlighan, 2008; Kivlighan & Holmes, 2004). Such definitions could emerge through coordinated attention by major professional associations in the area of groups, such as the Group Practice and Research Network, which presently includes the American Group Psychotherapy Association, the ASGW, the

Division of Group Psychology and Group Psychotherapy of the American Psychological Association (APA), the Division of Addictions of the APA, and the Group Section of the Division of Psychoanalysis of the APA.

4. The connection among group research, group training, and group practice needs to be bridged more fully (Anderson & Wheelan, 2005). This is a continuing challenge in virtually all areas of counseling psychology, and it certainly exists in the domain of groups. For instance, relevant research findings in social psychology need to find their way more quickly and strategically into group practice.

5. Group research, practice, and training knowledge that is reported through the organs of different professional associations, and sometimes in different disciplines, needs to be interconnected by scholars, with emerging best practices made available to trainers and practitioners (Berdahl & Henry, 2005).

6. Group researchers need to study the various forms of online group systems (Williams, 2002) for efficacy and to determine what modes work best for what situations and which people. As well, tending toward practice, more group counselors need to explore the appropriate use of electronic and online vehicles in their work (McGlothlin, 2003). Ethical guidelines that are specific to these online group systems also await development (Page, 2004). Online offerings would match the daily life practice of millions of teens and adults in contemporary society.

Practice

7. The "age of ubiquity" in group counseling means, in part, that training in counseling psychology must rearrange itself to make obvious room for group work in the curriculum (Conyne et al., 1997; Conyne & Bemak, 2004). Group counseling should not be a postdoctoral specialty only. In addition, it should permeate and support other counseling and psychological interventions and stand on its own as an important method, capable of delivery by a wide range of trained practitioners.

8. Groups are effective (e.g., Payne & Marcus, 2008) and, of course, efficient. Group-counseling advocates must build on these realities to develop concerted strategies to influence the future of health care, particularly managed care, to fully incorporate group-delivery formats as reimbursable

services (Spitz, 1996). Group services must become an integral part of any future renovation of the nation's health-care system.

9. Professionally led group methods—developed largely from group psychotherapy research with a majority of adults in closed groups—need to be intentionally adapted, where needed, to support work with open groups and with groups for children, minorities, and the aged for prevention and social justice (Conyne, 2004).

10. Barriers against group counseling (e.g., ineffective referral processes, cumbersome processes for organizing groups within agencies, or inaccurate myths about group counseling) need to be reduced to allow groups to become more attractive and available to more people (Trotzer, 2006).

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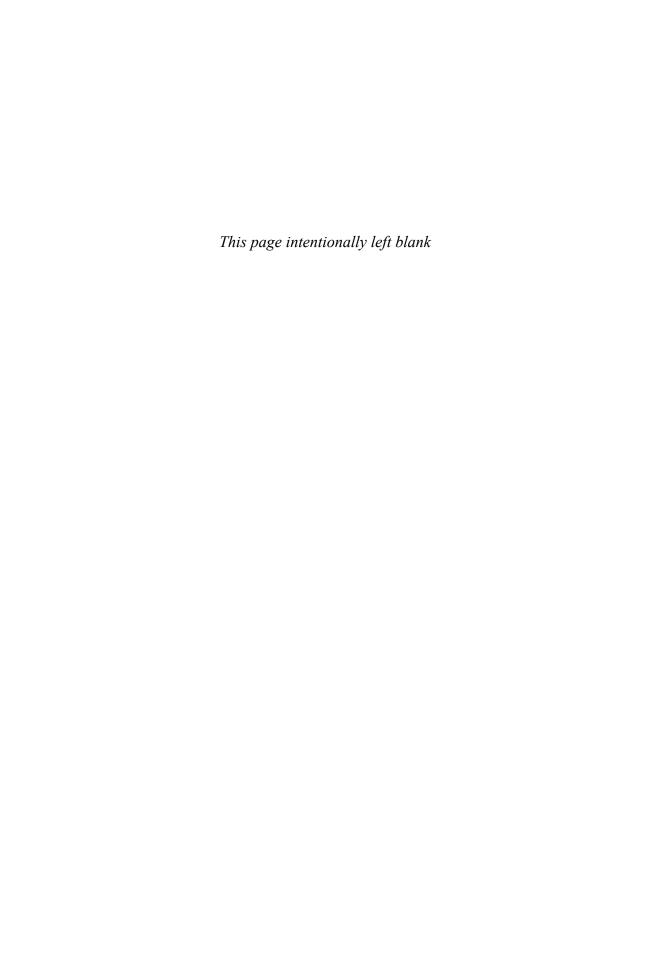
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Context

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The Nature and Significance of Groups

Donelson R. Forsyth

Abstract

An understanding of group counseling requires an understanding of groups themselves, their basic nature and processes. Given that human beings are a social species and spend their lives in groups rather than alone, an individual-level analysis of adjustment, well-being, and treatment, with its focus on internal, psychological processes, should be supplemented by a group-level analysis. The defining features of a group are relationships linking a substantial number of members, boundaries, interdependence, structure, cohesion, and *entitativity* (perceived groupness); and groups with more of these features are more influential than other forms of association, such as social networks. The chapter reviews a number of group-level processes that influence members' adjustment, including loneliness, ostracism, social support, socialization, social identity, and performance, before recommending a synthesis of the individual- and group-level perspectives in a multilevel analysis of human development, adjustment, and potential.

Keywords: individual-level analysis; group-level analysis; cohesion; entitativity; social networks; loneliness, ostracism, social support.

People, no matter what they are doing—working, relaxing, studying, exercising, worshiping, playing, socializing, watching entertainment, or sleeping— are usually in a group rather than alone. Some people seem to keep to themselves, but a preference for solitude is considered unusual by most; sociality is far more typical, for most people live out their lives in groups, around groups, and seeking out new groups. Humans are so group-oriented that at every turn we encounter groups. No one knows for certain how many groups exist at this moment, but given the number of people on the planet and their proclivity to form groups, 30 billion is a conservative estimate.

Groups are ubiquitous, not only in the context of day-to-day living but also in counseling settings. *Group counseling*, by definition, is an intervention that in some way involves groups and group processes. In schools counselors work with small groups of students as they deal with problems of development, adjustment, and achievement. Peers meet to offer each other support and wise counsel as they cope with problems they share in common. Hospital counselors meet with families to help them deal with the consequences of illness, disease, and death. Mental health professionals in a range of settings work with people in groups to set new goals for adjustment and help their clients learn the skills they need to connect with others. In communities social workers and organizers meet with residents to share information and identify solutions to communal issues. Consultants and trainers in organizations teach clients the skills they need to set realistic goals and to identify the steps they must take to reach them. Even when working with single individuals, the influence of groups cannot be ignored, for in many cases individuals' difficulties and satisfactions are intimately linked to groups: those to which they

belong, those that they are seeking to join, those that exclude them, and even those that reject and denigrate them.

This chapter is based on a single assumption: To understand group counseling—and, more generally, to understand people—one must understand groups themselves, their basic nature and processes. All too often a group-level explanation of people's thoughts, emotions, and actions is overlooked in the search for an explanation of the causes of dysfunction and adjustment, just as a group approach to treatment is viewed as a second-best choice compared to an individualistic intervention. A truly multilevel approach, however, requires the integration of many levels of analysis in the development of a comprehensive theory of human adjustment and treatment. The chapters in this handbook stress the group rather than the individual not because the group level is viewed as more important than the individual but rather because the individual level has received favorable treatment for so long that an analysis that takes into account group-level processes is overdue.

This chapter examines three related questions. First, what does the analysis of groups and their dynamics contribute to an overall understanding of human behavior? For those who, by tradition, adopt an individual-centered approach to understanding individuals' thoughts, actions, and emotions, what does a multilevel perspective that recognizes that individuals are also members of larger social units offer? Second, what are the unique characteristics of groups that provide the foundation for their psychological and interpersonal significance? From small, problem-focused, and highly structured psychoeducational groups to large and geographically scattered community groups, groups come in a staggering assortment of shapes and sizes. What qualities do these various groups have in common, and what distinguishes them from other social aggregations, such as networks of associations and communities? Third, what is the connection between the individual and the group? If individuals are not isolates but rather more frequently members of groups, in what ways do these groups influence the individual members, and how do the members in turn influence their groups?

The Reality of Groups

Emile Durkheim (1897/1966), at the end of the nineteenth century, presented evidence that suggested that suicide results more from interpersonal causes than intrapsychic ones. People did not take their own lives, he maintained, because of psychological maladjustment or delusion but rather when

the groups that they belonged to no longer provided them with reliable alliances with others or regulative support systems. He maintained that groups provide a buffer against the stresses of daily life events, and as a result, those who were closely associated with traditional integrative groups enjoyed greater happiness and health (Joiner, Brown, & Wingate, 2005; cf. Kushner & Sterk, 2005).

Many scholars of that period agreed with Durkheim's idea that groups profoundly influence their members (e.g., Le Bon, 1895/1960; McDougall, 1908). Others, however, took a different position. Allport (1924), for example, questioned the need to look beyond psychological processes when explaining why people acted as they did. Groups, according to Allport, were not even real; and he felt that the behavior of individuals in groups could be understood by studying the psychology of the group members since "the actions of all are nothing more than the sum of the actions of each taken separately" (p. 5). He is reputed to have said "you can't trip over a group" (Pepitone, 1981).

Vestiges of Allport's skepticism continue to influence theorists' and researchers' willingness to consider group-level concepts when explaining maladaptive and adaptive processes. Although most, in principle, admit that groups are influential, in practice when they search for the causes of behavior and when they make choices about the best way to solve personal and interpersonal problems, they adopt an individual-centered perspective rather than a group-centered one. This section examines the sources and the ramifications of the tendency to think individual first and group second, in theory, research, and practice.

Perceiving Individuals and Groups

The well-known face–vase visual illusion can be construed as depicting either a vase or the faces of two individuals looking at each other. Illustrating the figure–ground Gestalt principle of perception, when people report seeing a vase, the image of the vase becomes the figure and the individuals become the ground. Conversely, when people report seeing two individuals looking at each other, the faces become figure and the vase retreats into the background. The image hides a third image however: a two-person group, whose members are facing one another. Yet, the group is rarely noticed.

In terms of Gestalt principles of perceptions, groups are the ground, whereas individuals are the figure. The most famous painting in the world depicts a single individual. The number of words in

languages that can be used to describe individuals and their personality characteristics is substantial—Norman (1963), for example, identified 2,800 trait-descriptive adjectives in his study of personality—but how many words describe qualities that are specific to groups? Groups are not generally described as jolly, brave, playful, assertive, nosey, sensual, cool, reasonable, or stingy; but individuals are. Concepts that are used to describe qualities of individuals, such as personality, needs, intelligence, and self, have made their way easily into everyday language; but concepts that were developed to describe aspects of groups—for example, Cattell's (1948) syntality, Bogardus's (1954) groupality, and Moreno's (1934) sociometry—rarely find popular acceptance. Even though people speak of such concepts as teamwork, leadership, and cliques in their discussions of contemporary issues, they tend to translate these group-level processes into individualistic ones. The key ingredient for teamwork, they suggest, is having a particular type of personality that stresses cooperation and communication. Leadership continues to be viewed as a personality trait, rather than a process that emerges during cooperative interactions. Cliques, and their negative tendencies, are attributed to the motives of the clique members, rather than group-level processes.

Individuals, when considering the causes of their own and others' behavior, are less likely to favor an explanation that stresses group-level causes relative to one that stresses such psychological, individualistic causes as motivations, emotions, intentions, and personality. The well-documented fundamental attribution error occurs because perceivers are more likely to attribute a person's actions to personal, individual qualities rather than external, situational forces (Ross, 1977). Evidence suggests that social perception starts with an assumption of dispositionality; the attributor initially categorizes the behavior as one that reflects a particular trait or quality and then uses this behavioral label to characterize the actor. Only then, and only if he or she has the cognitive resources and motivation to process fully information about the situation, does the perceiver consider group-level causes (Gilbert, 1998). Hence, even when individuals engage in unusual behaviors in response to an extreme degree of group pressure, perceivers believe that actions reflect qualities of the person rather than the group (Nolan, Schultz, Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius, 2008). Perceivers also expect that individuals will behave similarly in all groups to which they belong; after all, if personal, individualistic qualities are the primary causes of behavior, then group-level process should play only a minor role in determining outcomes (Darley, 1992).

This tendency to see individuals first and groups second may vary from one culture to another. Western countries such as the United States and Great Britain lean toward individualism: the equality of separate individuals and the rights of the individual over the group. Individuals are the center of such societies, and their rights to private property, to express themselves, and to engage in actions for their own personal gain are protected and even encouraged. Many non-Western societies, in contrast, stress collectivism. Individuals in such societies think of themselves as group members first and individuals second and, thus, emphasize the unity of all people in their group rather than each person's individuality. Social existence is centered on group relations, for it is the group that creates social obligations based on respect, trust, and a sense of community (Triandis & Suh, 2002).

Because of these varying priorities, people raised in individualistic cultures differ in many ways from people raised in cultures that are based on collectivism. To speak in general terms (for people vary considerably within any given culture), individuals in Asian, western European, African, and Middle Eastern countries tend to be more loyal to their group and more suspicious of individuals who do not belong to their group. Collectivistic cultures also tend to be more hierarchical in organization, and they stress conformity and obedience to authority. Individuals' self-concepts also differ in individualistic and collectivistic contexts, with greater emphasis on personal identity in the former and greater emphasis on social identity (e.g., roles, membership, relations) in the latter. Triandis and his colleagues illustrated this difference by asking people from various countries to describe themselves. As they expected, these self-descriptions contained more references to social identities—membership in groups, roles in society, ethnicity—when people were from collectivistic countries (e.g., Japan, China). They discovered that some individuals from the People's Republic of China described themselves exclusively in interpersonal terms, whereas some US residents used only personal descriptors: They had no elements of a group-level identity (Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, 1990).

Levels of Analysis

Researchers, theorists, and practitioners, whether they are psychologists, social workers, consultants,

counselors, or clinicians, accept as givens some core assumptions about humans and their basic nature. These guiding assumptions, far from being biases, are instead useful heuristics, for they provide the means of dealing with the countless alternative and correct interpretations of the evidence and issues that they must confront and interpret in their work.

Coan (1968), Rosenberg and Gara (1983), and Watson (1967) present a sampling of the divergent assumptions that have characterized various approaches in psychology since the field's inception. Are unconscious processes influential determinants of behavior, or are actions primarily the result of reinforcement mechanisms? Is behavior caused by forces present in the immediate external environment or historical factors whose force is still felt in the distant future? Can psychological processes be broken down into specific elements, or is a holistic approach that avoids analysis more informative? Watson (1967) suggested that these "prescriptions" serve to orient researchers, theorists, and practitioners when they conceptualize problems and search for solutions.

THE INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL PERSPECTIVE

One of the most enduring prescriptions within the field of psychology is *psychogenicism*: the focus on the internal, psychological determinants of behavior. With behaviorists providing a notable exception, the theorists who provided the foundations for contemporary psychology offered models that included reference to the structure of personality, dynamic intrapsychic mechanisms, and the relationships between the individual's particular qualities and his or her behavior. Adler, Freud, Jung, Horney, Maslow, Murray, and others were generalists; but at the core their theories assumed that personality, needs, motivations, and other psychogenic mechanisms play a pivotal role in adjustment and dysfunction. The psychogenic orientation was summarized by Urban (1983, p. 163), who argued strongly that when psychologists look for causes outside of the individual they "deny and distort the essential quality of human existence. Everything of significance with regard to this entire process occurs within the inner or subjective experience of the individual." Psychogenicism is also compatible with general *endogenism*, in which behaviors are attributed to a host of internal processes such as genetic factors, past events, and biological processes. Psychogenic approaches assume that psychological states mediate the relationship between the external world and the person's reaction to it (Forsyth & Leary, 1991).

THE GROUP-LEVEL PERSPECTIVE

The individual-level approach suggested by psychogenicism contrasts with a group-level approach. This orientation assumes that if one wishes to understand individuals, one must understand groups. As a highly social species, humans are rarely separated from contact and interaction with other humans, and in most cases these connections occur in a group context. In consequence, groups and their processes have a profound impact on individuals; they shape actions, thoughts, and feelings. Although people often consider their cognitive ruminations, including thoughts, decisions, attitudes, and values, to be private and personal, these are shaped by the groups to which they belong. Sherif (1936) and Asch (1957), in early demonstrations of the impact of a group on members' most basic judgments, discovered that people will base their decisions on the statements made by other group members rather the evidence of their own senses. Groups prompt their members to endorse certain ideas and attitudes, and even nonconformists will eventually take on the standards of the groups to which they belong (Newcomb, 1943). People also process information collectively, through discussion and other group communication processes, so such basic cognitive processes as planning, evaluating, judging, decision making, and problem solving are made, not by individuals, but by groups (Kerr & Tindale, 2004).

Groups also influence members' emotions, in both direct and indirect ways. As Schachter and Singer's (1962) classic study of how people label their physiological states indicates, people often rely on cues in the group setting to decide if they are happy, sad, angry, or frightened. Emotions are also sometimes contagious in groups, with the feelings of one individual passing rapidly from one member of the group to the next (Smith, Seger, & Mackie, 2007). Crowds and mobs, for example, often experience waves of strong emotions, to the point that external observers often feel that such groups act as if they possess a shared, or collective, conscious. Even members of more commonplace and highly structured groups, such as work groups and sports teams, become more and more similar in their overall mood the longer they remain together (Kelly, 2004).

Groups also influence members' actions and reactions. As Durkheim concluded, people respond very differently when they are isolated rather than integrated in a group, and this shift has been documented time and again in studies of a wide variety of behaviors in many different situations. Young children imitate the way their playmates dress, talk,

and act (Adler, Kless, & Adler, 1992). Older children's actions are guided by their family's influence, until by adolescence the peer group becomes the primary determiner of behaviors (Harris, 1995). Groups can, in some cases, change people's behavior so dramatically that their behavior in a group bears no relationship to their behavior when isolated. The early group psychologists may have exaggerated the apparent madness of people when immersed in large crowds, but contemporary researchers have confirmed the discontinuity effect: In many cases the actions of individuals when in groups cannot be predicted by studying the qualities and actions of each individual group member (Wildschut, Pinter, Vevea, Insko, & Schopler, 2003).

A group-level approach also assumes that information will be lost, or at least overlooked, if the focus is solely on individuals rather than the larger social unit since groups possess characteristics "that cannot be reduced to or described as qualities of its participants" (Sandelands & St. Clair, 1993, p. 443). A group's cohesiveness, for example, is more than the mere attraction of each individual member for one another (Hogg, 1992). Individuals may not like each other on a personal level, yet when they form a group they experience powerful feelings of unity and esprit de corps. As Lewin's (1951) Gestalt orientation argued that a group is greater than the sum of its parts, so it cannot be understood through piecemeal, individual-only, analysis.

THE MULTILEVEL PERSPECTIVE

Theorists, researchers, and practitioners offer a range of solutions to problems of human adjustment and dysfunction. Some highlight aspects of the individual: their personalities, motivation, emotions, and perceptions. Others focus on interpersonal factors, such as relations with friends and relatives and group memberships. Some stress the larger social context by suggesting that the most important factors to consider are cultural ones. These perspectives are often viewed as mutually exclusive views that resist integration. As Sarason (1981, p. 175) explained, "built into psychology, part of its world view, is the polarity man and society. Call it a polarity or a dichotomy or even a distinction, it makes it easy for psychology to focus on one and ignore the other."

A multilevel perspective, in contrast, does not favor a specific level of analysis when examining human behavior, for it argues for examining processes that range along the micro–meso–macro continuum. Asked why an individual acts altruistically, acts in ways that create conflict with others, or

engages in aberrant actions, a multilevel approach does not stop at the micro level by considering only the qualities, characteristics, and actions of the individual members. A multilevel approach also considers meso-level group processes, including group influence, cohesion, composition, and structure. The approach also considers macro-level factors, which are the qualities and processes of the larger collectives that enfold the groups, such as communities, organizations, or societies. Groups, then, are nested at the meso level where the bottom–up micro-level variables meet the top–down macro-level variables (Forsyth, 2010).

A multilevel approach has several advantages to a one-level-only analysis of human behavior. An individual-level analysis stresses the causal importance of the individual's past and future and best deals with situational factors by filtering them through individual-level mechanisms. Because personality, experience, attitudes, and values must be represented within the individual, a group-level-only analysis tends to ignore them, choosing instead to focus on contemporaneous causes present in the immediate setting. The result is a model that suggests people are mechanistic, static, and purposeless, whereas they are, in reality, motivated, goal-seeking, and dynamic. A multilevel approach is more theoretically egalitarian, recognizing the causal influence of factors that range along the individual–group–organization continuum.

The Nature of Groups

A group-level analysis argues that groups influence their members' adjustment and mental health, but the magnitude of this impact depends on the nature of the group. Groups, unlike individuals, are not all created equal. Some aggregations of individuals seem, intuitively, to deserve to be called "groups": Families, gangs, support groups, school boards, production teams, and neighborhood associations are examples. Other collections of people—bystanders to a mugging, the audience in a theater, or Internet users arguing with one another via commentaries to a blogger's post—may lack the defining features of a group. But what are those defining features?

Relationships

Definitions of the concept of group abound, but most theorists would agree that a group comes into existence when people become connected by and within social relationships. Both Lewin (1948) and Cartwright and Zander (1968) stressed the importance of relationships among members as the key

defining feature of a true group, with Cartwright and Zander (1968, p. 46) concluding a "group is a collection of individuals who have relations to one another that make them interdependent to some significant degree."

Groups create and sustain relationships between individual members, but the relationships that link the members of a group together are not of one type. In families, for example, the relationships are based on kinship, but in the workplace the relationships are based on task-related interdependencies. In some groups members are friends of one another, but in others the members express little mutual attraction, liking, or loving for one another. Nor are the relationships linking members of different types of groups equally strong or enduring. Some relationships, like the links between members of a family or a clique of close friends, are enduring ones, which have developed over time and are based on a long history of mutual influence and exchange. In other cases, however, the ties between members may be relatively weak ones that are so fragile they are easily severed. Nor need all relationships be mutual ones. In a group of friends, for example, some members may be liked by all the group members but these group members may like only a subset of the group members in return. But no matter what the nature of the relations, a group exists when individuals are connected to one another by some type of social tie.

Theoretically, the number of relationships needed to create a completely interconnected group—one where every member is linked to every other member—is given by the equation $n(n-1)/2$, where n is the number of people in group (and if we assume that all relationships are mutual). A relatively small group—for example, a 12-person jury or committee—would require the development and maintenance of 66 relationships if every member was connected to every other member. In consequence, in many cases the number of ties in a group is less than the number of potential relationships. Evolutionary theorist Dunbar (2008) goes so far as to suggest that the need to track connections with others—to remember who can be trusted to share, who will act in helpful ways, or who is owed a favor and who is not—spurred the development of a larger brain in primates. Dunbar's social brain hypothesis assumes that group life is more psychologically demanding than a more isolated, independent one. Moreover, given the number of relationships that must be tracked in larger groups, Dunbar suggests that humans likely evolved to live most comfortably in groups of 150 people or fewer.

In general, the stronger the relationships linking members, the more influence the group has on its members. A young man who is part of a gang, for example, may act in ways that the group requires because the relationships that bind him to the group are so numerous and so strong that the group is too powerful to resist. In contrast, a member of a club may break the group's attendance rules regularly because there are few ties that bind him or her to the group or those ties are relatively weak. As with other relationships, such as friendships and partnerships, the strength of the relationship is determined, in large part, by the rewards the group provides, the costs the relationship incurs, and the member's degree of commitment to the group (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959).

Boundaries

The relationships that sustain a group not only link members to one another but also define who is in the group and who is not. A group is therefore *boundaried*, in a psychological sense, with those who are included in the group recognized as members and those who are not part of the group excluded as nonmembers. These boundaries set the members apart from other people, and hence, they distinguish a group from another psychologically significant aggregate: the social network. To become part of a *social network*, an individual need only establish a relationship of some sort with a person who is already part of the network. If persons A and B already know each other—they are linked by a social relationship—then person C can join their network by establishing a relationship with either A or B. But a group, unlike a network, is more than a chain of individuals joined in dyadic pairings. Even though A and B are friends and B and C are friends, if these individuals are linked only in these dyadic pair-bonds, then they are part of a social network but not a group. A group exists when members form a relationship with the group as a whole and when it is the group that sustains, at least in part, the relationships among each of the individual members. If A, B, and C are not linked to a supervening aggregate, then they are just sets of friends and not members of a group.

Groups' boundaries vary from the stable and relatively formalized to the unstable and highly permeable. As Ziller's (1965) theory of open and closed groups suggests that group membership can fluctuate for various reasons: members are voted out of the group (e.g., governing committees), members voluntarily come and go (e.g., community service groups), and so on. Regardless of the reasons for

group fluctuation, open groups are especially unlikely to reach a state of equilibrium since members recognize that they may lose or relinquish their place within the group at any time. Members of such groups, especially those in which membership is dependent on voting or meeting a particular standard, are more likely to monitor the actions of others. Ziller writes, "In the expanded frame of reference of the open groups in which transfers frequently occur, more accurate and more reliable ratings of the members are possible" (1965, p. 168). In contrast, closed groups are often more cohesive as competition for membership is irrelevant and group members anticipate future collaborations. Thus, in closed groups, individuals are more likely to focus on the collective nature of the group and to identify with the group. Ziller's theory suggests that open groups, by their very nature, are less cohesive.

Interdependence

Groups entwine the fates of their members. As Cartwright and Zander (1968, p. 46) noted, it is not just that the members are related to each other but that these relationships "make them interdependent to some significant degree." Shaw (1981, p. 454), in his definition, concluded that a group is "two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person." When individuals are interdependent, their outcomes, actions, thoughts, feelings, and experiences are determined in part by others in the group.

Some groups create only the potential for interdependence among members. The people standing in a queue at the checkout counter in a store, audience members in a darkened theater, or the congregation of a large mega-church are only minimally interdependent; but other groups—such as gangs, families, sports teams, and military squads—create far higher levels of interdependency since members reliably and substantially influence one another's outcomes over a long period of time and in a variety of situations. In such groups the influence of one member on another also tends to be mutual; member A can influence B, but B can also influence A in return. In other groups, in contrast, influence is more unequal and more one-directional. In a business, for example, the boss may determine how employees spend their time, what kind of rewards they experience, and even the duration of their membership in the group. These employees can influence their boss to a degree, but the boss's influence is nearly unilateral.

Interdependence increases the degree of power the group holds over each member, for the greater the members' dependence on the group, the more likely they are to act in ways that will sustain their membership—even if that means engaging in behaviors that they find personally objectionable. As social exchange theory explains, the greater the individual members' commitment to the group—with commitment generally increasing with time spent in the group, the costs already incurred by membership, the level of rewards received from the group, and the lack of alternative group memberships—the greater the group's power.

Structure

Moreno (1934), in his analysis of the nature of groups and their durability, argued that the psychological impact of a group on its members depends in large part on the group's structural integrity. He believed that groups with harmonious attraction and authority relations among members were likely to survive and that the individuals in such groups would be more likely to prosper psychologically.

Groups are structured, rather than unstructured, when roles, norms, and patterned relations organize the actions and activities within them. Sherif and Sherif (1956, p. 144), suggest that these structural features are what differentiate a group from a haphazard assortment of individuals: "A group is a social unit which consists of a number of individuals who stand in (more or less) definite status and role relationships to one another and which possesses a set of values or norms of its own regulating the behavior of individual members."

The more structured the group, the more clearly defined the actions taken by specific members. Many groups are structured by design, for by defining roles, norms, and relations the group and its founders hope to facilitate goal attainment. But even without a deliberate attempt at organizing, the group will probably develop a structure anyway. Initially, members may consider themselves to be just members, basically similar to each other. But over time each group member will tend to perform a specific range of actions and interact with other group members in a particular way. The role of leader emerges in many groups, but other roles arise in groups over time. Benne and Sheats (1948), in one of the earliest analyses of the roles that members take in groups, concluded that a group, to survive, must meet two basic demands: it must accomplish its tasks and the relationships among its members must be maintained. They suggested that the roles

that frequently emerge in groups match these two basic needs, with task roles including coordinator, elaborator, energizer, evaluator-critic, information-giver, information-seeker, and opinion-giver and the relational, socioemotional roles including compromiser, encourager, follower, and harmonizer. Benne and Sheats also identified a third set of roles: the individualistic roles occupied by individuals who stress their own needs over the group's needs.

Norms are the consensual and often implicit standard that describe what behaviors should and should not be performed in a given group context and are part of the group's socially shared structure. Although agreement among members is often implicit and taken for granted, only when a degree of consensus emerges regarding a standard does it function as a norm. Sherif's (1936) seminal work confirmed the interpersonal, group-level status of norms by experimentally creating norms in a laboratory setting. The norms his groups generated had a reality independent of the individual members who supported them so that when new members joined the groups they learned, and subsequently passed on, the standards that they themselves had acquired through group interaction.

Roles, norms, and other structural aspects of groups, although unseen and often unnoticed, lie at the heart of their most dynamic processes. Individuals who occupy roles that grant them more status within the group tend to be more influential, even when examining issues that fall outside their areas of expertise. When several members form a subgroup within the larger group, they exert more influence on the rest of the group than they would individually. When people manage to place themselves at the hub of the group's information-exchange patterns, their influence over others increases. As Moreland and Levine (1982) explain in their theory of group socialization, when people join a group, they initially spend much of their time trying to come to terms with the structural requirements of their group. If they cannot meet the group's demands, they might not remain a member for long. As their commitment to the group increases and the group becomes increasingly committed to the individual, individuals transition into the role of full member and tend to fulfill the requirements of their position within the group.

Cohesion

A group is not just the individuals who are members or even the dyadic pair-bonds that link members to one another. A group, viewed holistically, is a unified whole; an entity formed when interpersonal forces bind the members together in a single unit with boundaries that mark who is in the group and who is outside of it. This quality of "groupness," solidarity, or unity is generally termed *cohesion* and is a necessary, if not sufficient, condition for a group to exist. A group without cohesion would disintegrate since forces that keep the group intact are insufficient to counteract the forces that pull the group apart (Dion, 2000).

Durkheim (1897/1966, 1900/1973) discussed how groups vary in terms of cohesiveness; he proposed that groups with greater solidarity had more influence over their members. A more formal analysis of cohesion was supplied by Lewin (1948), who suggested that cohesion involved both individual-level and group-level processes. At the individual level, cohesiveness derives from each member's attraction to other group members, whether this attraction is based on liking, respect, or trust. At the group level, cohesiveness reflects that "we-feeling" that joins people together to form a single unit (Cartwright, 1968; Festinger, 1950). Many factors combine to determine a group's level of cohesiveness, including attraction among members, similarity of members to one another, group size, and structural features such as the absence of subgroups, a flatter status structure, and so on.

Cohesion is a uniquely group-level concept, for cohesion comes about if, and only if, a group exists. Although a group with low levels of cohesiveness may be a durable one, cohesiveness usually signals the health of the group. A cohesive group will be more likely to prosper, over time, since it retains its members and allows them to reach goals that would elude a more incoherent aggregate. The group that lacks cohesion is at risk, for if too many members drift away, the group may not survive. The concept of cohesiveness, too, offers insights into some of the most intriguing questions people ask about groups: Why do some groups fail to retain their members, whereas others grow rapidly in size? Why do some groups stand loyally behind the decisions of their leaders, whereas the members of other groups dissociate themselves from their group at the first sign of conflict? When do members put the needs of their group above their own personal interests? What is the source of the feeling of confidence and unity that arises in some groups and not in others? If one understands the causes and consequences of cohesion, then one is further along in understanding a host of core processes that occur in groups, including productivity, members' satisfaction and

turnover, morale, formation, stability, influence, and conflict.

Entitativity (Groupness)

Groups are real not just in a physical sense but also in a perceptual sense. Groups are often construed to be unified Gestalts whose parts mix together to form a single thing by members and nonmembers. Perceivers readily hypostasize groups: They perceive them to be real and assume that their properties are influential ones. Brown (2000, p. 3) considered this aspect of a group—that members define the group as real and see themselves as members of it—to be the sine qua non of a group. He writes: "A group exists when two or more people define themselves as members of it and when its existence is recognized by at least one other." Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, and Wetherell (1987, pp. 1–2) similarly suggested "a psychological group is defined as one that is psychologically significant for the members, to which they relate themselves subjectively for social comparison and the acquisition of norms and values . . . that they privately accept membership in, and which influences their attitudes and behavior."

Campbell (1958) believed that this aspect of a group was so essential to understanding how people perceive groups that he coined the word *entitativity* to describe a group's perceived unity. Entitativity, as perceived cohesiveness, depends on certain perceptual cues that perceivers rely on intuitively to decide if an aggregation of individuals is a true group or just a collection of people. Many aggregates of individuals occupying the same physical location—commuters waiting for a bus or spectators at a sporting event—may lack entitativity since they seem to be a disorganized mass of individuals who happen to be in the same place at the same time, but if they begin to cheer, express similar emotions, and move together, they may look more like a group to those who are observing them. Entitativity, according to Campbell, is substantially influenced by degree of interdependence (common fate: Do the individuals experience the same or interrelated outcomes?), homogeneity (similarity: Do the individuals perform similar behaviors or resemble one another?), and presence (proximity: How close together are the individuals in the aggregation?).

Calling an aggregation a "group" is not mere labeling. Groups that are high in entitativity tend to be more cohesive (Zyphur & Islam, 2006), and their members also experience enhanced feelings of social well-being (Sani, Bowe, & Herrera, 2008).

When people believe they are part of a highly entitative group, they are more likely to respond to the group's normative pressures (Castano, Yzerbyt, & Bourguignon, 2003); and this tendency is particularly strong when people feel uncertain about themselves and the correctness of their beliefs (Hogg, Sherman, Dierselhuis, Maitner, & Moffitt, 2007). The concept of entitativity also helps to explain the varied reactions people display when they are part of groups that are created using technology, such as conference calls or Internet-mediated connections. Some members do not consider such groups to be very entitative because they lack physical presence, but others report that such groups are as high in entitativity as any face-to-face group to which they belong (Lowry, Roberts, Romano, Cheney, & Hightower, 2006). Entitativity, then, is often in the eye of the beholder. As Zander and his colleagues demonstrated many years ago, simply telling a collection of people they constitute a group is sufficient to trigger intragroup dynamics. When they repeatedly told women working in isolation that they were nonetheless members of a group, the women accepted this label and later rated themselves more negatively after their "group" failed (Zander, Stotland, & Wolfe, 1960).

Entitativity also influences nonmembers' perceptions of the group and its members. Perceivers are more likely to stereotype specific individuals when they are members of a group that is thought to be high in entitativity (Rydell, Hugenberg, Ray, & Mackie, 2007). Observers are more likely to assume the members of such groups are highly similar to one another (Crawford, Sherman, & Hamilton, 2002) but different in significant ways from nonmembers (Pickett, 2001). Their perceptions of such groups also reveal a tendency toward *essentialism*: the belief that the group has deep, relatively unchanging qualities that give rise to their more surface-level characteristics (Haslam, Rothschild, & Ernst, 2002; Yzerbyt, Judd, & Corneille, 2004). When people think that a group is entitative, they assume that the group members act as they do because that is simply the nature of people who are members of that particular group.

The Significance of Groups

Groups are scientifically, practically, and clinically significant. Groups—particularly groups with many, rather than few, of the defining features of groups, including relationships linking a substantial number of members, boundaries, interdependence, structure, cohesion, and entitativity—influence the thoughts,

emotions, and actions of their members, so a scientifically informed understanding of people requires understanding groups. Groups, as the final section of this chapter concludes, provide members with the resources they need to meet the demands they encounter in a wide range of environmental contexts across the span of their lives.

Groups and the Need to Belong

Baumeister and Leary's (1995) belongingness hypothesis argues that "human beings have a pervasive drive to form and maintain at least a minimum quantity of lasting, positive, and impactful interpersonal relationships" (p. 497). Although groups with superficial relationships among members do not satisfy this need, members of long term, emotionally intensive groups—therapeutic groups, support groups, combat units, and high-demand religious organizations—display strong bonds between themselves and other group members—to the point of showing withdrawal when someone leaves the "family." A psychodynamic perspective suggests that groups provide a means of regaining the security of the family by creating emotional ties among members by providing a sense of security like that of a nurturing parent and making possible relations with others that are similar in affective tone to sibling bonds (Freud, 1922; Lee & Robbins, 1995).

Loneliness

Studies of people who are socially isolated attest to the distress caused by too few connections to others. Loneliness covaries with depression, anxiety, personality disorders, and interpersonal hostility; and prolonged periods of loneliness have been linked to such physical illnesses as cirrhosis of the liver, hypertension, heart disease, and leukemia (Hojat & Vogel, 1987; Jones & Carver, 1991). Individuals who are extremely lonely display elevated levels of Epstein-Barr virus and reduced levels of B lymphocytes—characteristics that are associated with reductions in immunity and increased vulnerability to mononucleosis (Kiecolt-Glaser, Speicher, Holliday, & Glaser, 1984). Loneliness is also linked to suicidal thoughts and suicide attempts (Van Orden et al., 2010).

Individuals who are members of social groups report less loneliness than individuals with few memberships. Weiss (1973) draws a distinction between social loneliness, which occurs when people lack ties to other people in general, and emotional loneliness—the absence of a meaningful, intimate relationship with another person. Open, transitory groups do little to prevent either social or emotional loneliness; but closed, highly engaging groups are sufficient to prevent social loneliness, and a group with many of the defining characteristics of a group (relationships, boundaries, interdependence, structure, cohesion, groupness) may meet members emotional as well as social needs. People who belong to more groups and organizations report less loneliness than those who keep to themselves, and this effect is stronger for groups with many interconnections among members (Kraus, Davis, Bazzini, Church, & Kirchman, 1993; Stokes, 1985) and highly cohesive ones (Anderson & Martin, 1995; Schmidt & Sermat, 1983).

Isolation and Rejection

Membership in a group promotes a range of positive social and psychological outcomes, but these benefits are not as positive as the effects of exclusion are negative. Voluntary isolation apparently has few negative consequences, but unintended, involuntary isolation is associated with emotional instability, insomnia, memory lapses, depression, fatigue, and general confusion (Suedfeld, 1997). Deliberate social exclusion, or ostracism, has particularly negative consequences, in part since the isolation from groups it produces is intentional rather than accidentally produced. When Williams (2007) asked people who had been ostracized to describe themselves, they used words such as "frustrated," "anxious," "nervous," and "lonely." They evidence physiological signs of stress, including elevated blood pressure and cortisol levels (a stress-related hormone), and brain-imaging research suggests that the pain of exclusion is neurologically similar to pain caused by physical injury (Eisenberger, Lieberman, & Williams, 2003; MacDonald & Leary, 2005).

Leary (1990) suggests that people are satisfied when a group takes them in but a group that actively seeks them out provides maximal inclusion. In contrast, individuals respond negatively when a group ignores or avoids them, but maximal exclusion—the group rejects, ostracizes, abandons, or banishes—is particularly punishing (Williams & Sommer, 1997). He and his colleagues found an association between ostracism and acts of violence, often aimed at those group members who were the rejectors (Leary, Kowalski, Smith, & Phillips, 2003).

Exclusion also influences self-esteem. Leary's sociometer model, for example, suggests that self-esteem is not based on private, personal appraisals of worth. Instead, Leary maintains that "self-esteem is part of a sociometer that monitors people's

relational value in other people's eyes" (Leary, 2007, p. 328). Self-esteem drops when exclusion is likely and is designed to motivate individuals to identify the steps they should take to decrease the risk of social exclusion. In consequence, self-esteem rises when people feel included in groups and liked by others or when they think about a time when they were in a group that made them feel they belonged (Srivastava & Beer, 2005).

Groups and Social Support

When people find themselves in stressful, difficult circumstances, they often cope by forming or joining a group (Dooley & Catalano, 1984). In many cases support is drawn from dyadic relationships, such as a single close personal friend or intimate partner, but in other instances the support stems from membership in an informally organized friendship group or some other type of social aggregate. Hays and Oxley (1986), for example, found that college students cope with the stresses of entering college by forming extensive social networks of peers, which evolve into friendship clusters. Stressful life circumstances increase the risk of psychological and physical illness, but groups can serve as protective buffers against these negative consequences (Herbert & Cohen, 1993; Uchino, Cacioppo, & Kiecolt-Glaser, 1996; Wills, 1991). This buffering effect argues that individuals who are part of a group may not be able to avoid stressful life events but they respond more positively when these stressors befall them.

It should be noted, however, that the bulk of the research has focused on the effects of support from friends and loved ones rather than groups per se. Hence, until recently, it has not been possible to distinguish between support drawn from close relationships, such as dyadic relationships or a family member, and support drawn from friendship cliques, networks of acquaintances, or social groups such as clubs, sports teams, church groups, work units, or self-help associations. Overall, however, the evidence suggests that people who belong to groups are healthier than individuals who have few ties to other people (Stroebe, Stroebe, Abakoumkin, & Schut, 1996). Work by Stroebe and Stroebe (1996) and Sugisawa, Liang, and Liu (1994) even suggests that group members have longer lives.

Attitudes and Values

Cooley (1909) drew a broad distinction between two types of groups: primary groups and secondary groups (or complex groups). *Primary groups* are small, close-knit groups, such as families, friendship cliques, or neighbors. *Secondary groups* are larger and more formally organized than primary groups. Such groups—religious congregations, work groups, clubs, neighborhood associations, and the like—tend to be shorter in duration and less emotionally involving. Both of these types of groups provide members with their attitudes, values, and identities. Cooley maintained that groups teach members the skills they need to contribute to the group, provide them with the opportunity to discover and internalize the rules that govern social behavior, and let them practice modifying their behavior in response to social norms and others' requirements. Groups socialize individual members (Parsons, Bales, & Shils, 1953).

In most cases, when conflicts over opinions, choices, and lifestyle occur, they can be traced back to the socializing effects of groups. Norms in gangs encourage members to take aggressive actions against others. Adolescent peer cliques pressure members to take drugs and commit illegal acts. Fraternities insist that members engage in unhealthy practices, such as drinking excessive amounts of alcohol. Work groups develop such high standards for productivity that members experience unrelieved amounts of stress. Sororities may convince members to adopt habits with regard to dieting and exercise that trigger bulimia (Crandall, 1988). Some groups can adopt even more unusual standards, and members may come to accept them. Radical religious groups, for example, may be based on beliefs that nonmembers consider extraordinary but that members accept without question.

These emergent group norms are sustained by a common set of group-level informational, normative, and interpersonal processes (Forsyth, 1990). Informational influence occurs when the group provides members with information that they can use to make decisions and form opinions. People who join a group whose members accept bizarre ideas as true will, in time, explain things in that way as well. Normative influence occurs when individuals tailor their actions to fit the group's norms. Many people take such norms as "Bribery is wrong" and "Contribute your time and resources to the community" for granted, but some societies and some groups have different norms which are equally powerful and widely accepted. Normative influence accounts for the transmission of religious, economic, moral, political, and interpersonal attitudes, beliefs, and values across generations. Interpersonal influence is used in those rare

instances when someone violates the group's norms. The individual who publicly violates a group's norm will likely meet with reproach or even be ostracized from the group. These three factors—informational, normative, and interpersonal influence—can be readily observed in groups as diverse as military units, street gangs, college fraternities, and religious denominations.

Identity

The self is often viewed as an aspect of personality—the outgrowth of private personal experiences and self-reflection. But the self is also shaped, in part, by group-level processes. Just as Freud (1922) believed that identification causes children to bond with and imitate their parents, identification with the group prompts members to bond with, and take on the characteristics of, their groups. The psychological experience of group membership is a central premise in social identity theory of groups and intergroup relations. Tajfel and Turner (1986) and their colleagues originally developed social identity theory in their studies of intergroup conflict. In their studies they created what they thought were the most minimal of groups, for their groups were temporary assemblies of completely unrelated people with no history, no future, and no real connection to one another. Yet, they discovered, even in these minimal conditions, that group members began to identify with their groups, even to the point of favoring their group and its members over other groups. The groups became, very quickly, psychologically real for members.

Social identity theory suggests the group becomes represented in each individual member, so their selves share some qualities in common (Turner et al., 1987). Brewer and her colleagues further divide the group-level side of the self into two components: the relational self and the collective self (Brewer, 2007; Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Brewer & Chen, 2007). The *relational self* is defined by ties to other people, particularly dyadic and reciprocal roles such as father–son and leader–follower, whereas the *collective self* is determined by membership in larger groups and categories if individuals consider these groups important and relevant to their self-concept. Individuals may, for example, come to define themselves as employees of the place where they work, as dedicated followers of a particular religious group, or as patriotic citizens of their nation.

People who identify with their groups experience a strong sense of belonging in their groups and take pride in their membership. They are more involved in the group's activities and willingly help the group meet its goals (Abrams, Hogg, Hinkle, & Often, 2005). But with the increased identification with the group comes the tendency to engage in self-stereotyping: the integration of stereotypes pertaining to the group in one's own self-descriptions (Biernat, Vescio, & Green, 1996). Social identity is also connected to feelings of self-worth. People who belong to prestigious groups tend to have higher self-esteem than those who belong to stigmatized groups (Brown & Lohr, 1987). However, as Crocker and Major (1989) noted in their seminal analysis of stigma, even membership in a socially denigrated group can sustain self-esteem. In many cases members of stigmatized groups and minority groups protect their personal appraisals of their groups from unfair negative stereotypes by rejecting the disparaging elements of their group's label. So long as individuals believe the groups they belong to are valuable, they will experience a heightened sense of personal self-esteem.

The identity-sustaining aspects of group memberships have a downside however. Membership in a group or social category may provide a social identity, but it can set in motion the tendency to derogate members of other groups. Group-based identities sow the seeds of conflict by creating a cognitive distinction between "us" and "them." According to Tajfel and Turner (1986, p. 13), the "mere perception of belonging to two distinct groups—that is, social categorization per se—is sufficient to trigger intergroup discrimination favoring the in group." Groups thus sustain individual members' self-esteem but at the cost of creating animosity toward those who belong to other groups.

Goal Attainment

Groups, in addition to yielding substantial psychological benefits for members, are the means by which most of the world's work is accomplished. Although the accomplishments of lone explorers are often highlighted by historians—Columbus, Marco Polo, Sir Edumund Hillary—these individuals were supported in their efforts by groups. Most inventions are not developed by single individuals working in isolation but by teams of collaborators. In some cases even great artists—such as the impressionists and da Vinci—produced their works as members of groups. A hundred years ago single craftspeople created commodities which were then sold to others, but in modern times most things are built by groups. Groups also make nearly all

decisions—at least ones dealing with complex or consequential matters.

McGrath (1984) uses two dimensions (generate/negotiate and choose/execute) to generate an eight-category typology of group goals. *Generating groups* concoct strategies to be used to accomplish their goals (*planning tasks*) or to create altogether new ideas and approaches to problems (*creativity tasks*). *Choosing groups* make decisions about issues that have correct solutions (*intellective tasks*) or answer complex questions that defy simple solution (*decision-making tasks*). *Negotiating groups* must resolve differences of opinion among members regarding their goals or decisions (*cognitive conflict tasks*) or resolve competitive disputes among members (*mixed-motive tasks*). *Executing groups* do things, including competing against other groups (*contests/battles/competitive tasks*) or working together to create some product or carry out actions that require coordinated effort (*performances/psychomotor tasks*). McGrath's model thus distinguishes between conceptual–behavioral goals and purely collaborative goals—they require that group members work together to accomplish their goals—versus those that pit individuals and/or groups against each other.

Adopting the Group-level Perspective: Future Directions

Twentieth-century theorists, researchers, and practitioners made great strides in their quest to understand human behavior. They maintained that individuals are psychologically complex, that that their inner mental life can be described and examined systematically, and that issues of psychological adjustment and dysfunction are determined, in large part, by such psychological states and processes as needs, motivations, thoughts, personality, and perceptions. As Baars (1986, p. 412) concluded, "psychodynamic thought, broadly conceived, has probably provided the richest and most humanly relevant vein of psychological theorizing in the century." What is the next step that will be taken in the analysis of the human condition?

What Level of Analysis?

A multilevel approach recommends augmenting the individual-level perspective with other perspectives, including one that focuses squarely on groups and group processes. At the level of the individual, people's actions, thoughts, and emotions cannot be understood without taking into consideration the groups they belong to and the groups that surround them. Culturally, all kinds of societies—hunting/gathering, horticultural, pastoral, industrial, and postindustrial—are defined by the characteristics of the small groups that compose them. On a practical level, much of the world's work is done by groups, so enhanced understanding of their dynamics may mean they can be designed to be efficient. To improve productivity in a factory, problem solving in a boardroom, or learning in the classroom, one must understand groups.

What Discipline Will Take Responsibility for the Study of Groups?

A multilevel approach requires that researchers share the study of groups with researchers in a variety of scientific disciplines and professions. Groups are and will continue to be studied in psychology, sociology, communication studies, business, political science, economics, and anthropology; but in many cases researchers in these fields are not mindful of one another's work. By tradition, researchers tend to publish their findings in their own discipline's journals and to present their findings at conferences with colleagues from their own fields but only rarely explore connections between their work and the work being done in other disciplines. Since no one discipline can claim the study of groups as its rightful domain, future investigators should strive to adopt a multidisciplinary, as well as a multilevel, perspective on groups, and changes in communication across fields should facilitate that process.

Will Groups Continue to Be Influential?

Political scientist Robert Putnam (2000) wrote, in his whimsically titled book *Bowling Alone*, about the declining frequency of traditional groups. His analyses suggested that, since the 1960s, the number of groups and people's involvement in groups have steadily declined. He did not fully consider, however, changes in the nature of groups that have occurred recently. Interest in some types of groups—community groups, fraternal and professional organizations, or even church-based groups—has decreased, but other types of groups—book groups, support groups, teams at work, and so on—have taken their place. In fact, even though Putnam's book title suggests that people are bowling alone rather than in groups, bowling remains a popular social activity, for hardly anyone bowls alone. They now bowl with friends, coworkers, and family members. Given that the desire to join groups is likely woven into humans' genetic makeup, it is likely that groups—in one form or another—will continue to play a central role in human existence.

Will Group-Level Approaches Gain Momentum?

In 1950 Slavson predicted that group therapy would largely replace individual methods of treatment. In 1954 Bogardus predicted that researchers would soon develop extensive measures of group personality and that groupality would become as important a concept in group psychology as personality is in individual psychology. In 1974 Steiner predicted that the 1980s would see groups emerge as the centerpiece of social psychology.

These predictions have not been fully confirmed. Group approaches have proven themselves to be effective, but they are not the preferred mode of treatment for most therapists and clients (Durkin, 1999). Concepts like groupality and syntality have failed to generate theoretical unity or empirical interest. The surge of interest in groups predicted by Steiner did not occur, for groups are understudied relative to such topics as personality, social cognition, attitudes, and relationships (Wittenbaum & Moreland, 2008).

What does the future hold for the group-level approaches to understanding human adjustment and well-being? Although the course of science, because of its stress on discovery and innovation, is difficult to predict, the contents of this volume suggest that group-level approaches are garnering increased interest among theorists, researchers, and practitioners. Past theoretical, empirical, and applied work has built a sturdy foundation for the continued development of the study of groups. Interest in meso- and macro-level processes has increased steadily in recent years, suggesting that a purely individualistic orientation is giving way to a multilevel orientation. Therapeutic applications that utilize a group setting are becoming increasingly common, and empirical studies of their utility have documented their therapeutic effectiveness (Burlingame, MacKenzie, & Strauss, 2004). As theorists, researchers, and practitioners confirm the central importance of groups in people's lives, people will in time begin to think of themselves as group members first and individuals second (Forsyth, 2000).

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Definition of Group Counseling

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Abstract

Because professional group work has such varied origins, agreement upon a single, concise definition of group counseling has been difficult to achieve. An abbreviated review of the literature highlighting the origins of modern group work is presented. Definitions provided by various professional organizations of group workers are presented. Systems describing group work are presented, emphasizing the Association for Specialists in Group Work's model of four types: work and task groups, psychoeducation groups, counseling groups, and psychotherapy groups. A consensus definition is extracted from these sources, and future directions are identified.

Keywords: group counseling, group work, classification of group work, group types

Introduction

Humans are a social species. We need others, we want to be with them, and our relational connections are a major aspect of who we are. Forsyth clearly expressed the importance of social interaction when he stated that "The tendency to join with others in groups is perhaps the single most important characteristic of humans, and the processes that unfold within these groups leave an indelible imprint on their members and on society" (Forsyth, 2010, p. 1). In fact, one of the most surprising aspects of the technological revolution of the last three decades is that, far from the expected consequence of driving people further and further away from one another into isolated, self-absorbed beings, it sometimes appears that humans find it even more important to be in almost constant contact with others, if not in face-to-face communication, then through electronic means such as cell phone conversations, texting, e-mailing, blogging, and social networking in its myriad and rapidly expanding electronic formats.

The early years of the modern, systematic study of and psychological applications to human functioning were dominated by behavioral paradigms in experimental and academic study and by the powerful influence of the Freudian psychoanalytic perspective in treatment. These major influences emphasized the individual to such an extent that group work in mental health services settings was generally seen as a very weak, palliative method, appropriate only for supportive or minor educational applications to human problems characterized by psychological pain and distress. Although this emphasis upon the individual may have been necessary to begin the systematic investigation and treatment of human beings given the enormous complexity of the task, it impeded efforts to investigate and apply knowledge of the interpersonal nature of human beings in models for helping people increase their understanding of themselves and overcome psychological problems.

Despite these impediments, group counseling has developed and evolved into a major method of working with people to help them to learn and change. Jerry Corey, one of the current major authors in the area of group counseling, states that "Group counseling offers real promise in meeting today's challenges (2008, p. 3)." Considered one of

the leading experts on group therapy, Irvin Yalom has stated that "Group therapy methods have proved to be so useful in so many different clinical settings that it is no longer correct to speak of group therapy. Instead, we must refer to "*group therapies*" (Yalom, 2005, p. 475, italics retained). Conyne (2012) suggests that group work is currently in an "age of ubiquity," with rapidly increasing applications in many heretofore unimagined settings. He goes on to say,

> The use of group work approaches, in general, has grown exponentially over the last two decades, finding application in the major settings of society. These settings include education, private practice, religious organizations, social service agencies, planning boards, health care organizations, mental health care agencies, and business and industry. At the same time, successful incorporation within managed care occurs but awaits more progress. (Conyne, 2012, p. 3)

The growing use of group work has led to evidence of the effectiveness of the group medium. In fact, Barlow, Burlingame, and Fuhriman (2000) summarized the evidence in the following manner:

> With few exceptions (cf. Piper & McCallum, 1991), the general conclusion to be drawn from approximately 730 studies that span almost three decades is that the group format consistently produced positive effects with a number of disorders using a variety of treatment models. (p. 122)

Since it has become evident that group work has earned a major position in counseling and mental health, it would seem that the fundamental nature of group counseling ought to be clear and easily definable. However, this is far from the case. Some of the reasons for the complexity and lack of consensus may be inferred from an abbreviated review of the literature highlighting the myriad origins of modern group work theory and practice.

Historical Influences

A number of detailed historical reviews of the development of group work are available, including Andronico (2001); Barlow et al. (2000); Barlow, Fuhriman, and Burlingame (2004, 2005); Bertcher (1985); Burlingame, Fuhriman, and Mosier (2003); Burlingame, Fuhriman, and Johnson (2004a, 2004b); Gazda (1982, 1985); Gazda, Ginter, and Horne (2001); Forester-Miller (1998); Gladding (2002); Hadden (1955); Leddick (2008); and Scheidlinger and Schmess (1992). However, a brief description highlighting major

people and events will demonstrate the multiple origins of various approaches to modern group work. This diversity has both enriched and complicated group work to the extent that defining group counseling is a challenging and, some would suggest, impossible task.

Joseph Pratt's work with patients suffering from tuberculosis in 1905 is generally accepted as the origin of modern group work (Gazda et al., 2001; Hadden, 1955). Two years later Jesse B. Davis held weekly group meetings at a high school to initiate the use of guidance groups in schools (Gazda et al., 2001). Shortly thereafter, Jane Addams introduced deliberate group process work as part of social work programming at Hull House in Chicago. By the second and third decades of the twentieth century, Alfred Adler was using collective counseling and family councils as group applications of his individual psychology and Jacob Moreno had created psychodrama, all innovative approaches to helping people at the time.

Following these seminal efforts to infuse group methods into such diverse settings as psychological support of patients with medical problems, students in schools, and individuals and families needing assistance from social workers, the deliberate lack of attention to the importance of interpersonal relationships that had characterized formal counseling and mental health treatment heretofore began to be reversed during the second quarter of the twentieth century. Trigant Burrow developed group analysis in the late 1920s, a major deviation from the highly introspective and intrapsychic Freudian psychoanalytic model predominant at the time. By 1931, group work in the schools had developed to such an extent that Richard Allen published an article describing a curriculum for group guidance in high schools, referring to this guidance method as "group counseling" (Gazda, 1982). A very influential new group approach was initiated by Bill Wilson and Dr. Bob Smith in 1935 in the form of the first formal self-help group in the United States, Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) (Alcoholics Anonymous, 1981). The American Association for the Study of Group Work was formed in 1936. Samuel Slavson established the American Group Psychotherapy Association (AGPA) in 1943. AGPA's influential journal, the *International Journal of Group Psychotherapy*, was established in 1951.

Lewin's work in the area of social psychology and action research moved specifically into the study of group leadership and other group dynamic factors

in the 1930s and 1940s (e.g., Lewin, 1944; Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). His emphasis upon the fundamental social nature of human beings stimulated dramatically increased development and use of group methods over the last half-century to facilitate self-exploration, learning, growth, problem solving, remediation, and improved functioning. In fact, a major impetus to this increased emphasis upon the importance of interpersonal relationships and group interaction patterns was the discovery and development of basic skills training groups, or T-groups, in New Britain, Connecticut, and the establishment of the National Training Laboratories at Bethel, Maine, in 1946 by Lewin, Bradford, and Benne. Following Lewin's unexpected death less than a year later, this method of working in groups of normally functioning people to facilitate self-exploration and personal growth through interpersonal learning grew in many directions and was a major influence, leading to the incorporation of interpersonal and group-level theory and interventions in counseling and mental health applications and, therefore, to the prominent role that group work plays in mental health treatment today. That Lewin's work was so influential in the development of modern group work is especially appropriate since one of his fundamental principles was his "law" of change in groups: "It is usually easier to change individuals formed into a group than to change any one of them." (Lewin, 1951, cited in Forsyth, 2006, p. 525).

The emerging T-group movement in all of its manifestations (i.e., sensitivity training, encounter groups, personal growth groups, etc.) stimulated scholarly inquiry and the publication of a number of articles and books describing aspects of the T-group process. Wilfred Bion identified and applied group-level processes such as group cohesiveness, dependency, and fight–flight mechanisms in working with groups in England at the Tavistock Institute following its establishment in 1946 (Gazda, 1968). Bales (1950) and Benne and Sheats (1948) studied consistent patterns of behavior as members learn to work together in groups and independently published very similar summaries of their finding of common member roles that develop as a group progresses. Cartwright and Zander (1953) and Hare, Borgatta, and Bales (1955) published influential books describing research related to social psychology and groups. Helen Driver then published what is considered to be the first textbook on group work, *Counseling and Learning through Small-Group Discussion*, in 1958.

Further important publications followed throughout the 1960s, and a number of prominent counseling and psychotherapy theorist-practitioners described their incorporation of group methods and interventions into their theoretical models. Leland Bradford, Jack Gibb, and Kenneth Benne wrote *T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method: Innovation in Re-education* in 1964, and Robert Golembiewski and Arthur Blumberg edited *Sensitivity Training and the Laboratory Approach: Reading about Concepts and Applications* in 1970 (see Golembiewski & Blumberg, 1977). William Fawcett Hill and Will Schutz created and published sophisticated models for describing, categorizing, and measuring interpersonal styles and group-level processes in the *HIM: Hill Interaction Matrix* (Hill, 1965) and the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior Scale (FIRO-B), respectively. Hill's book *Learning through Discussion* described his model (1969). Schutz described his model in his book *FIRO: A Three-Dimensional Theory of Interpersonal Behavior* (1958), and he later went on to publish popular books in the human potential movement, especially *Joy: Expanding Human Awareness* (1967). Variations of the T-group gained great popularity in a variety of settings as part of the human potential movement with little regard for the appropriateness of the specific group for specific members. Counselor education training programs began to include a course in group work, often entirely experiential in nature, into their master's degree curricula.

By the 1960s and into the 1970s, a number of prominent counseling and psychotherapy theorists and practitioners had incorporated group work into their work, such as Rogers (1970), Berne (1970), Perls (Corey, 2008), and Ellis (Corey, 2008). Rogers' work with groups was firmly in the T-group and human potential movement tradition in the form of his basic encounter groups and would now be understood to be most suitable for helping humans functioning in the normal range to explore and expand their self-awareness. On the other hand, these other major theorists applied their original theories of counseling and psychotherapy in psychologically oriented treatment groups, incorporating interpersonal and group-level processes to varying extents (see Ward, 1982, for a more complete analysis of these theories and group processes).

From the mid-1960s through the early 1970s, a number of articles and books were published that strongly stimulated theoretical understanding of group dynamics and processes and the application of the knowledge gleaned from the earlier studies to

group treatment. Bruce Tuckman conducted a literature review of models of group development (1965) and summarized his findings by identifying four major stages of group development, which he labeled "forming," "storming," "norming," and "performing." His follow-up summary of the literature on group development over the next 12 years (Tuckman and Jensen, 1977) supported the original four stages but added a fifth stage, which he labeled as "mourning or adjourning." Although variations of the five-stage model have been described, most can be reformatted into the five-stage model, and Tuckman's work has been one of the seminal influences in moving group-treatment models to more than simply individual treatment in a group setting. Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles's *Encounter Groups: First Facts* (1973) identified four foundational group-leadership functions, and a number of styles that their empirical investigation had demonstrated were related more directly to outcome than the leaders' self-identified counseling theoretical style. Another seminal set of publications systematically described the conceptualization and application of three levels of potential group activity: the individual or intrapsychic, the interpersonal or relationship, and the group-as-a-whole level (Cohen & Smith, 1976a, 1976b). Their model for application included two other dimensions, the target modality at which a leader intervention is directed, consisting of cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements, and high, medium, or low intensity of the target of leader intervention. The entire model consisted of a 27-cell cube for the conceptualization and choice of interventions aimed at specific aspects of member, member–member, and group-level activity.

In 1970, Yalom published the first of five editions of his influential text *Theory and Practice of Group Psychotherapy* (see Yalom, 1970, 1975, 1985, 1995, 2005). His extensive description of an interpersonally based, process-oriented approach to group therapy has been extremely influential and enduring, influencing group treatment for four decades. Particularly seminal was his list of 11 curative factors, later renamed "therapeutic factors" (Yalom, 2005), most responsible for positive outcome in group therapy, which he identified through his clinical experience, expert consensus, and major research investigations of therapy groups. A number of additional textbooks were published during these years that provided the beginnings of a conceptual foundation to add to the primarily experiential T-group model that had stimulated the rapid growth of group work and the

study of group dynamics for two decades (e.g., Luft, 1963; Gazda, 1968, 1971; Napier & Gershenfeld, 1973: Ohlsen, 1973, 1977; Shaffer & Galinsky, 1974; Hansen, Warner, & Smith, 1976, 1980). Gerald and Marianne Corey published the first of two of their textbooks specifically directed toward group counseling (Corey, 1981; Corey & Corey, 1977) that have proven to be widely used through eight editions. Their books may be viewed as representing the beginnings of the plethora of textbooks that are now available on the topic of group work in its various manifestations (e.g., Berg, Landreth, & Fall, 2006; Bernard & MacKenzie, 1994; Bieling, McCabe, & Antony, 2006; Brabender, 2002; Brabender & Fallon, 2009; Brabender, Fallon, & Smolar 2004; Brown, 2009; Capuzzi, Gross, & Stauffer, 2006; Chen & Rybak, 2004; Conyne, 1989; Conyne, Crowell, & Newmeyer, 2008; Corey, 2008; Corey, Corey, Callanan, & Russell, 2004; Corey, Corey, & Corey, 2010; Day, 2007; DeLucia-Waack, 2006; Drossel, 2008; Gazda, 1982; Gazda et al., 2001; Gladding, 2008; Hulse-Killacky, Killacky, & Donigian, 2001; Ivey, Pedersen, & Ivey, 2001; Jacobs, Massen, & Harvill, 2009; Kline, 2002; Kottler, 2001; Macgowan, 2008; MacKenzie, 1992; Ohlsen, Horne, & Lawe, 1988; Posthuma, 1999; Rutan, Stone, & Shay, 2007; Toseland & Rivas, 2001; Trotzer, 2006; Wheelan, 2005a, 2005b).

The experimentation with various interpretations of group work and group methods provided so much new information that a number of scholars attempted to organize the current knowledge base by joining together to publish useful handbooks and focused literature reviews. Among the most prominent have been those edited by Altmaier and Hansen (2012); Anderson and Wheelan (2005); Barlow et al. (2004, 2005); Bednar and Kaul (1978); Burlingame and Fuhriman (1994); Burlingame et al. (2004a, 2004b), DeLucia-Waack, Gerrity, Kalodner, and Riva (2004); Fuhriman and Burlingame (2004); Kaplan and Sadock (1993); Lubin, Wilson, Petren, and Polk (1996); Moreno (1966); Petrocelli (2002); and Wheelan (2005a, 2005b).

Perhaps most significant over the last 25 years of the twentieth century in the emerging descriptions and definitions of group work in general and group counseling in particular were the founding and subsequent activities of professional organizations devoted to group work, such as the Association for Specialists in Group Work (ASGW), a division of the American Counseling Association (ACA, then known as the American Personnel and Guidance