Chapter Five: Social Groups and Formal Organizations

Learning Objectives

- Understand the characteristics of aggregates, categories, and primary and secondary groups.
- Explore how in-groups and out-groups influence behavior.
- Define reference groups and social networks and understand how they influence behavior.
- Describe the small group phenomenon and the “lumpy oatmeal” phenomenon.
- Elucidate the main characteristics of bureaucracies. Understand how these characteristics help bureaucracies reach their goals.
- Understand the dysfunctions of bureaucracies.
- Analyze how self-fulfilling stereotypes affect promotions. Describe the hidden corporate cultures of bureaucracies and the approaches used to manage diversity in the workplace.
- Identify the impact of group size on stability, intimacy, attitudes, and behavior of team members.
- Understand the different types of leaders and leadership styles.
- Understand the power of peer pressure and authority. Define groupthink and determine how it can be prevented.

Chapter Summary

Groups are the essence of life in society. We become who we are because of our membership in human groups. The essential feature of a group is that its members have something in common and that they believe that what they have in common is significant. The largest and most complex group that sociologists study is society (people who share a culture and a territory). Because of what appears to be a “natural” need for human kind to share culture, territory, and to seek significant others, societies developed.

Groups can be typed in terms of their social relationships and functions. Different types of groups within society include primary groups, secondary groups, in-groups and out-groups, reference groups, and social networks.

Bureaucracies are defined as formal organizations characterized by five features that help them reach their goals, grow, and endure. These five features are (1) clear levels, with assignments flowing downward and accountability flowing upward; (2) a division of labor; (3) written rules; (4) written communications and records; and (5) impartiality and replaceability.

Although bureaucracies are the most efficient form of social organization, they can also be dysfunctional. Dysfunctions of bureaucracies can include red tape, alienation and bureaucratic incompetence. Examples of these dysfunctions include an overly rigid interpretation of rules and the failure of members of the same organization to communicate with one another. According to Max Weber, the impersonality of bureaucracies tends to produce workers who feel detached from
the organization and each other. According to Karl Marx, workers experience alienation when they lose control over their work and are cut off from the finished product of their labor.

To resist alienation, workers form primary groups and band together in informal settings during the workday to offer each other support and validation. They also personalize their work space with family photographs and personal decorations. Not all workers, however, succeed in resisting alienation.

One reason bureaucracies endure and are so resilient is because they tend to take on a life of their own through a process called goal displacement. Once a bureaucracy has achieved its original goals, it adopts new goals in order to perpetuate its existence. A classic example of goal displacement involves the March of Dimes. Originally founded to fight polio, the organization was faced with being phased out after Jonas Salk discovered the polio vaccine. Rather than disband, it adopted a new mission, fighting birth defects, and, more recently, changing the mission again to the vaguer goal of “breakthroughs for babies.”

Sociologists use the term “corporate culture” to refer to an organization’s traditions, values, and unwritten norms. Much of what goes on in corporate culture, however, is hidden. To ensure that the corporate culture reproduces itself at the top levels, people in positions of power groom other people they perceive to be “just like them” for similar positions of power. In the United States, personal achievement is central; workers are hired on the basis of what they can contribute to the organization that hires them.

To better understand how different groups work, sociologists study group dynamics, or the ways in which individuals affect groups and the ways in which groups influence individuals. Georg Simmel was one of the first sociologists to study extensively group size and the relationship between group members.

Group dynamics are affected by group size, types of leaders, and leadership styles. As small groups become larger, they become more stable and less intimate. Group leaders can be instrumental (task-oriented) or expressive (socioemotional). Leadership styles include authoritarian (leaders who give orders), democratic (leaders who work toward and/or forge a consensus), and laissez-faire (leaders who are highly permissive).

Groups have a significant degree of influence over people’s attitudes and actions. The Asch experiment demonstrated how difficult it is for individuals to resist peer pressure and how they have a need to belong. The Milgram experiment showed how difficult it is for individuals to challenge people in positions of authority.

A potentially dangerous aspect of a group’s influence over its members is groupthink, a narrowing of thought by a group of people, leading to the perception that there is only one correct answer to which all members of the group are impelled, by loyalty and trust, to accept. The key to preventing groupthink is to encourage and circulate research results that provide the greatest number of options for decision makers to consider in an atmosphere of free expression and academic freedom.
Chapter Outline

I. Groups Within Society
   A. Groups are comprised of people who think of themselves as belonging together and who interact with one another.
   1. Sociologists distinguish between aggregates, categories, and groups. An aggregate is made up of individuals who temporarily share the same physical space but do not have a sense of belonging together. A category is a collection of people who have similar characteristics. Unlike groups, the individuals who make up aggregates or categories do not interact with one another or take each other into account.
   B. Sociologist Charles Cooley used the term “primary group” to refer to groups characterized by cooperative, intimate, long-term, face-to-face relationships.
      1. It is essential to an individual’s emotional well-being, as humans have an intense need for associations that promote feelings of self-esteem.
      2. The group becomes part of the individual’s identity and the lens through which life is viewed.
   C. Secondary groups are larger, more anonymous, more formal and impersonal than primary groups, and are based on some interest or activity.
      1. Members are likely to interact on the basis of specific statuses, such as president, manager, worker, or student.
      2. In industrial societies, secondary groups have multiplied and become essential to our welfare.
      3. Secondary groups tend to break down into primary groups within the larger group, such as friendship cliques at school or work. The primary group serves as a buffer between the individual and the needs of the secondary group.
      4. Another type of secondary group is a voluntary association. This group consists of volunteers who organize on the basis of some mutual interest.
      5. Sociologist Robert Michels coined the term the iron law of oligarchy to refer to how organizations come to be dominated by a small, self-perpetuating elite.
   D. Groups toward which individuals feel loyalty are called in-groups, while those toward which they feel antagonisms are called out-groups.
      1. The division is significant sociologically because in-groups provide a sense of identification or belonging, which often produce rivalries between groups.
      2. In-group membership leads to discrimination; given our loyalty, we favor members of our in-group. Sociologist Robert K. Merton identified a double standard produced by this: the behaviors by members of an in-group are seen as virtues, while the same behaviors by members of an out-group are viewed as vices.
      3. Dividing the world into “we” and “them” can sometimes lead to acts directed against the out-groups.
   E. Reference groups are the groups we use as standards to evaluate ourselves, whether or not we actually belong to those groups.
1. They exert great influence over our behavior; people may change their clothing, 
hair style, speech, and other characteristics to match what the reference group 
would expect of them.
2. Having two reference groups that clearly conflict with each other can produce 
intense internal conflict.

F. Social networks consist of people linked by various social ties. Clusters, or factions that 
form within large groups, are called cliques. Cliques, family, friends, and acquaintance 
can all be bases for social networks.
1. Interaction takes place within social networks that connect us to the larger society.
2. Stanley Milgram did an experiment that demonstrated how small our social world 
really is; his study led to the phrase “six degrees of separation”—meaning that, on 
average, everyone in the United States is separated by just six individuals.
3. Other studies have both confirmed and contradicted Milgram’s findings. In order 
to draw solid conclusions, it seems that the choice of samples and how researchers 
measure links will have to be clearly defined.
4. One reason it is so difficult to overcome social inequality is because our social 
networks contribute to inequality.

II. Bureaucracies
A. Formal organizations, secondary groups designed to achieve explicit objectives, have 
become a central feature of contemporary life.
B. Max Weber identified the essential characteristics of bureaucracies, which help these 
organizations reach their goals, as well as grow and endure. These include the 
following:
1. a hierarchy where assignments flow downward and accountability flows upward.
2. a division of labor.
3. written rules.
4. written communications and records.
5. impersonality and replaceability.
C. Weber believed that bureaucracies would dominate our lives through a process he 
called the rationalization of society.
D. Goal displacement occurs when an organization adopts new goals after the original 
goals have been achieved and there is no longer any reason for it to continue.
1. The March of Dimes is an example of this.
   (1) It was originally formed to fight polio, but when that threat was eliminated, the 
       professional staff found a new cause, birth defects.
   (2) With the possibility of birth defects someday being eliminated as our knowledge 
       of human genes expands, the organization has adopted a new slogan—
       breakthroughs for babies—which is vague enough to ensure their perpetual 
       existence.
E. Weber’s model only accounts for part of the characteristics of bureaucracies. 
Dysfunctions can also be identified.
1. Red tape, or the strict adherence to rules, results in nothing getting accomplished.
2. Bureaucratic alienation, a feeling of powerlessness and normlessness, occurs 
   when workers are assigned to repetitive tasks in order for the corporation to
achieve efficient production, thereby cutting them off from the product of their labor.

3. To resist alienation, workers form primary groups within the larger secondary organization, relating to one another not just as workers, but as people who value one another.

4. Bureaucratic incompetence is reflected in the Peter principle—members of an organization are promoted for good work until they reach their level of incompetence. If this principle were generally true, then bureaucracies would be staffed by incompetents and would fail. In reality, bureaucracies are highly successful.

III. Working for the Corporation

A. Self-Fulfilling Stereotypes in the “Hidden” Corporate Culture
   1. Rosabeth Moss Kanter’s organizational research demonstrates that the corporate culture contains hidden values that create a self-fulfilling prophecy that affects people’s careers.
   2. Corporate and department heads have an image of who is most likely to succeed and they look for those whose backgrounds are similar to their own. These people are provided with better access to information, networking, and “fast track” positions. Workers who are given opportunities to advance tend to outperform others and are more committed.
   3. Those who are judged outsiders and experience few opportunities think poorly of themselves, are less committed, and work below their potential.
   4. The hidden values of the corporate culture that create this self-fulfilling prophecy are largely invisible.

B. Managing with Diversity in the Corporation
   1. With more than half of the U.S. workforce minorities, immigrants, and women, dealing with diversity in the workplace is becoming unavoidable.
   2. Most large companies have diversity training to help employees work successfully with others of different backgrounds.
   3. Not all diversity programs are equal and different programs will produce different results. Specifically, those aimed at setting goals for increasing diversity and holding managers accountable tend to be successful.

IV. Technology and the Control of Workers: Toward a Maximum-Security Society

A. The microchip is affecting all areas of society; it is now easier for governments to monitor our behavior and computers monitor millions of workers.

B. Some analysts suggest that we are moving toward a maximum-security society.

V. Group Dynamics

C. How individuals affect groups and groups affect individuals is known as group dynamics.
   1. The study of group dynamics focuses on group size, leadership, conformity, and decision making.
2. Sociologists recognize a small group as one that is small enough for everyone in it to interact directly with all the other members.

D. As Georg Simmel (1858-1918) noted, the size of the group is significant for its dynamics.
1. A dyad is a social group containing two members. It is the smallest and most fragile of all human groupings. Marriages and love affairs are examples: if one member loses interest, the dyad collapses.
2. A triad is a group of three persons—a married couple with a first child, for example. Triads basically are stronger than dyads but are still extremely unstable. It is not uncommon for coalitions to form in which there is alignment of two members of the group against another. Often, one member becomes an arbiter or mediator because he or she always tries to settle disagreements between the other two members of the group.
3. As more members are added to a group, intensity decreases and stability increases, for there are more linkages between more people within the group. The groups develop a more formal structure to accomplish their goals, for instance by having a president, treasurer, and so on. This structure enables groups to survive over time.

E. Research by Darley and Latané found that as groups grow larger, they tend to break into smaller groups, people are less willing to take individual responsibility (diffusion of responsibility), and they interact more formally toward one another.
1. Darley and Latané’s experiment has serious flaws when it comes to real life.
2. Henslin experienced this firsthand while in Vienna, Austria. He found that no diffusion of responsibility stopped people from immediately helping a man who had tripped and fallen.

F. A leader may be defined as someone who influences the behaviors, opinions, or attitudes of others.
1. Sociologists would disagree that people are born to be leaders. Rather, they find that people with certain characteristics are more likely to become leaders—those who represent the group’s values, are seen as capable of leading the group out of crisis, are more talkative, express determination and self-confidence, are taller or are judged better looking.
2. There are two types of group leaders. Instrumental (task-oriented) leaders try to keep the group moving toward its goals, reminding the members of what they are trying to accomplish. Expressive (socioemotional) leaders are less likely to be recognized as leaders but help with the group’s morale. These leaders may have to minimize the friction that instrumental leaders necessarily create.
3. There are three types of leadership styles. Authoritarian leaders give orders and frequently do not explain why they praise or condemn a person’s work. Democratic leaders try to gain a consensus by explaining proposed actions, suggesting alternative approaches, and giving “facts” as the basis for their evaluation of the members’ work. Laissez-faire leaders are very passive and give the group almost total freedom to do as it wishes.
4. Psychologists Ronald Lippitt and Ralph White discovered that the leadership styles produced different results when used on small groups of young boys. Under
authoritarian leaders the boys became either aggressive or apathetic; under democratic leaders they were more personal and friendly; and under laissez-faire leaders they goofed off a lot, and were notable for their lack of achievement.

5. Different situations require different leadership styles.

G. A study by Dr. Solomon Asch indicates that people are strongly influenced by peer pressure. Asch was interested in seeing whether individuals would resist the temptation to change a correct response to an incorrect response because of peer pressure.

1. Asch held cards up in front of small groups of people and asked which sets of cards matched; one at a time, they were supposed to respond aloud. All but one of the group members was a confederate, having been told in advance by the researcher how to answer the question.

2. After two trials in which everyone answered correctly, the confederates intentionally answered incorrectly, as they had previously been instructed to do.

3. Of the fifty people tested, 33 percent ended up giving the incorrect answers at least half of the time, even though they knew the answers were wrong; only 25 percent always gave the right answer despite the peer pressure.

H. Dr. Stanley Milgram sought to determine why otherwise “good people” apparently participated in the Nazis’ slaughter of Jews and others.

1. He conducted experiments in which one person (the “teacher”) was instructed to administer an electric shock to the other person (the “learner”) for each wrong answer given to certain questions and to increase the voltage of the shock after each wrong answer.

2. In fact, the “learner” was playing a role, intentionally giving wrong answers but only pretending to be receiving an electrical shock.

3. Since a person in apparent authority (“scientist, white coat, university laboratory”) continually stated that the experiment had to go on, most of the “teachers” gave in to that authority and continued to administer the “shocks” even when they appeared to produce extreme pain.

4. The scientific community was disturbed not only by Milgram’s findings, but also by his methods. Associations of social researchers accordingly adopted codes of ethics to require that subjects be informed of the nature and purpose of social research, and almost all deception was banned.

I. Sociologist Irving Janis coined the word “groupthink” to refer to situations in which a group of people think alike and any suggestion of alternatives becomes a sign of disloyalty. Even moral judgments are put aside for the perceived welfare of the group.

1. The Asch and Milgram experiments demonstrate how groupthink can develop.

2. U.S. history provides examples of governmental groupthink: presidents and their inner circles have committed themselves to a single course of action (e.g., refusal to believe the Japanese might attack Pearl Harbor or continuing and expanding the war in Vietnam) even when objective evidence showed the course to be wrong. The leaders became cut off from information that did not coincide with their own opinions.

3. Groupthink can be prevented only by insuring that leaders regularly are exposed to individuals who have views conflicting with those of the inner circle.
**KEY TERMS**

*After studying the chapter, review the definition for each of the following terms.*

**aggregate:** individuals who temporarily share the same physical space but do not see themselves as belonging together (p. 126)

**alienation:** Marx’s term for workers’ lack of connection to the product of their labor; caused by their being assigned repetitive tasks on a small part of a product, which leads to a sense of powerlessness and normlessness (p. 137)

**authoritarian leader:** a leader who gives orders (p. 145)

**bureaucracy:** a formal organization with a hierarchy of authority and a clear division of labor; emphasis on impersonality of positions and written rules, communications, and records (pp. 133-134)

**category:** people who have similar characteristics (p. 126)

**clique:** a cluster of people within a larger group who choose to interact with one another (p. 131)

**coalition:** formed when two group members align themselves against one in a triad (p. 142)

**democratic leader:** an individual who leads by trying to reach a consensus (p. 145)

**dyad:** the smallest possible group, consisting of two persons (p. 142)

**expressive leader:** an individual who increases harmony and minimizes conflict in a group; also known as a *socioemotional leader* (p. 145)

**goal displacement:** an organization replacing old goals with new ones in order to continue functioning (p. 135)

**group:** people who think of themselves as belonging together and who interact with one another (p. 126)

**group dynamics:** the ways in which individuals affect groups and the ways in which groups affect individuals (p. 141)

**groupthink:** a narrowing of thought by a group of people, leading to the perception that there is only one correct answer, in which to even suggest alternatives becomes a sign of disloyalty (p. 149)

**hidden corporate culture:** stereotypes of the traits that make for high-performing and underperforming workers (p. 139)

**in-groups:** groups toward which people feel loyalty (p. 129)

**instrumental leader:** an individual who tries to keep the group moving toward its goals; also known as a *task-oriented leader* (p. 145)

**laissez-faire leader:** an individual who leads by being highly permissive (p. 145)

**leader:** someone who influences the behaviors, opinions, or attitudes of others (p. 145)

**leadership styles:** ways in which people express their leadership (p. 145)
out-groups: groups toward which people feel antagonism (p. 129)

Peter principle: a tongue-in-cheek observation that the members of an organization are promoted for their accomplishments until they reach their level of incompetence; there they cease to be promoted, remaining at the level at which they can no longer do good work (p. 138)

primary group: a group characterized by intimate, long-term, face-to-face association and cooperation (p. 126)

rationalization of society: term coined by Weber to describe the process of how bureaucracies would increasingly dominate our lives (p. 134)

reference group: a group whose standards we refer to as we evaluate ourselves (p. 130)

secondary group: compared with a primary group, these groups are larger, more anonymous, more formal, and impersonal and are based on some interest or activity (p. 126)

self-fulfilling stereotype: preconceived ideas of what someone is like that lead to the person’s behaving in ways that match the stereotype (p. 139)

small group: a group small enough for everyone to interact directly with all the other members (p. 141)

social network: the social ties radiating outward from the self that link people together (p. 131)

triad: a group of three people (p. 142)

voluntary association: a group made up of volunteers who organize on the basis of some mutual interest (p. 128)

KEY PEOPLE
Review the major theoretical contributions or findings of these people.

Solomon Asch: Asch is famous for his research on conformity to peer pressure. (pp. 146-147)

Charles Cooley: It was Cooley who noted the central role of primary groups in the development of one’s sense of self. (p. 126)

John Darley and Bibb Latané: These researchers investigated how group size affects members’ attitudes and behaviors. They found that as the group grew individuals’ sense of responsibility diminished, their interactions became more formal, and the larger group tends to break down into small ones. (p. 143)

Lloyd Howells and Selwyn Becker: These social psychologists found that factors such as location within a group underlie people’s choices of leaders. (p. 145)

Irving Janis: Janis coined the term “groupthink” to refer to the tunnel vision that a group of people sometimes develop. (p. 149)

Rosabeth Moss Kanter: Kanter studied the “hidden” corporate culture and found that for the most part it continually reproduces itself by promoting those workers who fit the elite’s stereotypical views. (p. 139)
Ronald Lippitt and Ralph White: These social psychologists carried out a classic study on leadership styles and found that the style of leadership affected the behavior of group members. (p. 145)

Robert Merton: Merton observed that the traits of in-groups become viewed as virtues, while those same traits in out-groups are seen as vices. (p. 129)

Robert Michels: coined the term “the iron law of oligarchy” to refer to how organizations come to be dominated by a small, self-perpetuating elite (p. 128)

Stanley Milgram: Milgram’s research has contributed greatly to sociological knowledge of group life. He did research on social networks and individual conformity to group pressure. (pp. 132, 147-149)

George Ritzer: Ritzer coined the term the “McDonaldization of society” to describe the increasing rationalization of modern social life. (p. 136)

David Sills: Sills studied goal displacement in the March of Dimes, as well as identifying four additional functions that some voluntary groups perform. (p. 135)

Georg Simmel: This early sociologist was one of the first to note the significance of group size; he used the terms dyad and triad to describe small groups. (p. 142)

Max Weber: Weber studied the rationalization of society by investigating the link between Protestantism and capitalism and identifying the characteristics of bureaucracy. (pp. 132-134)

Discussion Topics to Encourage Student Participation

- Using the class as the focus of this exercise, have the students evaluate the degree to which their class qualifies as a group, an aggregate, a category, a primary group, a secondary group, an in-group or out-group, or a reference group.

- In an effort to solicit quality feedback from students (and not just gripes), lead a discussion on which aspects of college life are the most bureaucratic and tend to alienate students. Be careful to concentrate on the service provided and not personalities. Following each example offered by a student, ask the rest of the class if the assessment made is valid.

- Ask your students to share some of their personal experiences of working for corporations. Ask them if they noticed some of the hidden values that Rosabeth Moss Kanter identified in her organizational studies of corporations. If so, have your students address the following question: Did these hidden values personally benefit you or hurt you? How? Also, if these values were truly “hidden,” how is it that workers were able to identify them in the first place?
Classroom Activities and Student Projects

- Divide the class into three groups based on the type of community in which they were raised (city, suburbs, or country). Have each group of students meet together and compose a list of the groups to which they belonged while growing up. Include primary groups, in-groups, and reference groups, as well as a description of their social network. Have each group elect a spokesperson to address the class. Then analyze how these three groups were similar and different in their group affiliations.

- Ask your students to talk about the power of peer pressure while addressing the following questions: How is peer pressure different in college than in high school? Was there more peer pressure or less peer pressure in high school? Looking at the clothes you wear, the products you buy, the car you drive (or hope to drive someday), and the forms of entertainment you enjoy—how many of these are the result of truly independent choices versus the influence, at least to some degree, of peer pressure?

- Assign your students to call their hometown town council and request a copy of the minutes of the last council meeting. Afterward, have them report the following information to the class: How successful were they in obtaining the minutes? If unsuccessful, what accounted for that lack of success? If successful, how long did it take to obtain the minutes? How many people did students have to speak to before they were able to obtain the minutes or were told, for certain, that they could not have them? How helpful or unhelpful were the various people with whom they were in contact? What signs of bureaucratic alienation did they encounter, if any, in their quest for the minutes?

- Thinking about the various dysfunctions of bureaucracies, ask your students to discuss the following: Which of these dysfunctions have you personally experienced in your interactions with bureaucracies? Of these dysfunctions, which have you found to be the most frustrating? When you last encountered such a dysfunction, what, if anything, did you do about it? How successful were you? Of the various dysfunctions, which do you think is the most damaging to bureaucracies? To the people who work for bureaucracies? To the people who rely on bureaucracies?

Service Learning Projects and Field Trips

- Conduct a half-hour field trip walking around the campus. Ask your students to look for and note any “signs” of peer pressure in action. These can include clothes, products, foods, games, activities, verbal interactions, forms of popular culture or entertainment, or anything else that is currently “in” on campus because young people think it is “cool.” If you want to make the exercise even more engaging, turn it into a contest. Give your students a half-hour to race around campus and compile a list of as many “signs” of peer pressure as they can find. Afterward, have your students meet back in the class, share their lists, and finish by awarding a small prize to the student with the biggest list.
- Instruct students to attend a meeting or participate in an activity on campus where they can observe small group interaction. They should take notes on the group dynamics, paying attention to the intimacy of group activity based on group size, the stability of the groups, and other observations. Students should also take note of the leadership styles demonstrated by the activity’s actual leader, as well as those of the other leaders that emerge during the exercise.

- Identify the leader of a major student organization, such as the student government association or a local elected official, and invite him or her to your class to discuss leadership. Ask the leader to include an assessment of his or her own leadership style; ask whether or not he or she considers leadership to be more of an art or a science, justifying the conclusion. At another class following the presentation, ask the students if they agree with the speaker’s assessment of his or her leadership style and why they either agree or disagree.

- Arrange a class tour of the county courthouse, or encourage your students to tour it on their own. Simply walking the halls and sitting in on parts of a public trial will be a good experience, demonstrating many aspects of a formal organization and bureaucracy in action. Have the students compare the observable features of the bureaucracy as listed by Weber to what they observe.

- Ask a president of a large union or a union official to visit the class and discuss the need for a union in today’s society. Ask him or her to focus on the dysfunctions of the bureaucracy and what the union does to maintain the dignity of workers, to cut back on red tape, and to increase communication. How does the need for a union today differ from the beginning of the industrial age? How do union workers upset the original thesis of Marx on the revolution, when he predicted that the laboring force would rise up against the owners of the means of production?

- Have your students spend an hour walking around the college campus searching for and recording as many signs of rationality and dysfunctions of bureaucracy as they can find. Tell them to explore, for example, the registrar’s office, bursar’s office, Dean’s Office, library, cafeteria, and even the college webpage, for such signs of rationality and dysfunctions of bureaucracy. Ask them, as well, to collect any paperwork, such as applications, rules, and forms that illustrate the rationalization of society and/or dysfunctions of bureaucracy. After the hour has ended, have your students return to the classroom and share the results of their “field trip.”

**Suggested Films**


Three case histories involving groupthink. They include the space Shuttle Challenger, Pearl Harbor, and the Bay of Pigs invasion.

MySpace. YouTube. Facebook. Friendster. Nearly every teen in America is on the Internet every day. They socialize with friends and strangers alike. Peer inside the world of this cyber-savvy generation through the eyes of teens and their parents, who often find themselves on opposite sides of a new digital divide.

This program explores the social impact of time pressure in the workplace.