 <p>International Meetings and Journals Research Association ISSN: 2790-1036 (e); 2790-0277 (p) CODEN: SEIN 2202</p> <p><b>Science, Education and Innovations</b> in the Context of Modern Problems</p> <p>Editor-in-Chief: Chir of the Editors Board: Dr. Nafiseh Nafiseh</p> <p>Monthly   Regular   Open Access</p> <p>OCTOBER 2025   Issue 11, Vol. 8</p> <p>imcra-az.org</p>	<p align="center"><b>Science, Education and Innovations in the Context of Modern Problems</b></p> <p align="center"><b>Issue 11, Vol. 8, 2025</b></p> <hr/> <p align="center">Title of research article</p> <hr/> <p align="center"><b>Educational Leadership Styles and Their Influence on the Psychological and Social Climate of the Classroom Group: Revisiting the Lippitt and White Experiment as a Foundational Model in Pedagogical Practice</b></p> <hr/> <p>Dr.</p> <p>Lecturer, Section (A)</p> <p>University of Oran 2 – Mohamed Ben Ahmed</p> <p>Algeria</p>
<p><b>Issue web link</b></p>	<p><a href="https://imcra-az.org/archive/385-science-education-and-innovations-in-the-context-of-modern-problems-issue-11-vol-8-2025.html">https://imcra-az.org/archive/385-science-education-and-innovations-in-the-context-of-modern-problems-issue-11-vol-8-2025.html</a></p>
<p><b>Keywords</b></p>	<p>Educational leadership styles; classroom climate; social psychology; Lippitt and White experiment; pedagogical facilitation</p>
<p><b>Abstract</b></p> <p>The study investigates the profound impact of educational leadership styles on the psychological and social climate of classroom groups, with particular emphasis on the seminal experiment conducted by Lippitt and White under the supervision of Kurt Lewin. Leadership within the classroom is not merely an organizational function but a determinant of the learners' emotional security, motivation, and cooperative behavior. Drawing on social psychology and pedagogical theory, this paper critically examines how different facilitation styles—authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire—shape group interaction, cohesion, and the quality of the learning environment. Findings from Lippitt and White's experiment provide a valuable empirical framework for understanding how leadership behaviors influence both individual student adjustment and collective classroom dynamics. The democratic style, characterized by participatory decision-making, fosters a supportive psychosocial climate, enhancing engagement, creativity, and responsibility among learners. In contrast, authoritarian styles often create dependency, compliance, and reduced intrinsic motivation, while laissez-faire approaches may encourage autonomy but risk generating disorganization and social fragmentation. This study argues that the educational leader must integrate modern pedagogical approaches with cultural and societal contexts, balancing innovation with values and traditions. The discussion highlights the need for teacher training programs that cultivate democratic leadership competencies, equipping educators to act not only as knowledge transmitters but also as facilitators of psychosocial development and ethical citizenship. By situating the Lippitt and White model within contemporary educational discourse, the article contributes to a nuanced understanding of how leadership choices determine the overall psychological well-being and social cohesion of classroom communities.</p>	
<p><b>Citation.</b> Makhoulfi A.. (2025). Educational Leadership Styles and Their Influence on the Psychological and Social Climate of the Classroom Group: Revisiting the Lippitt and White Experiment as a Foundational Model in Pedagogical Practice. <i>Science, Education and Innovations in the Context of Modern Problems</i>, 8(11), 796–808. <a href="https://doi.org/10.56352/sci/8.11.62">https://doi.org/10.56352/sci/8.11.62</a></p>	
<p><b>Licensed</b></p> <p>© 2025 The Author(s). Published by Science, Education and Innovations in the context of modern problems (SEI) by IMCRA - International Meetings and Journals Research Association (Azerbaijan). This is an open access article under the <b>CC BY</b> license (<a href="http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/">http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/</a>).</p> <p>Received: 01.01.2025      Accepted: 12.07.2025      Published: 10.09.2025 (available online)</p>	

## 1. Introduction

Teaching through modern approaches has become a strategic choice. This attempt therefore revolves around the most important roles of the teacher and the techniques of his facilitation, as a key feature indicating the degree of their importance at the didactic and pedagogical level. Accordingly, it is appropriate for the teacher to assume new and effective roles that are in harmony with the spirit of democracy and the achievements of modern education, without, however, neglecting the foundations, values, cultural specificities, and national constants of our society. Learning, in fact, is a process that carries both stimulation and difficulty at the same time, and learning styles differ and vary among individuals, which makes the learning process for each person a complex task. In order for curricula and teaching methods to become more effective in producing the desired human being, it is essential to raise the efficiency of the teacher, to improve his competence in teaching, and to train him in effective facilitation—something that cannot be achieved except through a comprehensive understanding of leadership styles and facilitation methods that make the learning process easier for the learner (Al-Sayyid, 1998, p. 27).

Through this paper, I will attempt to answer the following questions: What is the concept of educational leadership within the classroom group? What are the effective leadership styles that influence the psychological and social climate of learners? And what is the model that society aspires to?

## First: Terms and Concepts

### 1. Definition of Leadership

According to Al-Qaryouti (2000), leadership is defined as: *“the ability of a person to influence others in such a way that makes them accept his leadership voluntarily and without any legal obligation, due to their recognition of his role in achieving their goals and his expression of their hopes and aspirations, which enables him to lead the members of the group in the manner he deems appropriate.”*

Operationally, leadership may be defined as: *“the ability to influence the behavior of workers, directing them, and motivating them to work in order to achieve the predetermined objectives.”*

### 2. Definition of Educational Leadership

Mohamed Mounir Morsi defines educational leadership as: *“the ability to direct the behavior of individuals in a specific situation, since at its core it is based on the interaction that takes place between the leader and the members of the group”* (Morsi, 1998, p. 34).

It may also be defined as: *“leading the workforce in the educational process, and improving social interaction among its members in an effective way that achieves their cooperation, raising their level of performance to the highest possible degree, while maintaining the structure and cohesion of the group”* (Abouda, 1995, p. 141).

Operationally, educational leadership may be defined as: *“the ability to influence the behavior of learners, to direct them, and to motivate them to exert effort and diligence in order to achieve the intended educational goals.”*

### 3. Definition of Leadership Style

Al-Sharif (2004) defines leadership style as: *“the activity practiced by the leader within the organization to influence the behavior of those working with him, and to make them cooperate in achieving the desired objectives and in improving the level of job performance.”*

Hassan and Al-Ajmi (2007) refer to leadership style as the behavior adopted or pursued by the leader in any situation with the aim of achieving the intended objectives, and which subordinates emulate in their own behaviors.

Operationally, leadership style in the framework of this study is defined as the behavior exercised by the educational leader in dealing with learners, which influences their level of performance, their behavior, their respect, their loyalty to him, and their willingness to achieve the desired objectives, as measured through the Leadership Styles Questionnaire.

### 4. Definition of Educational Leadership Styles

Studies that addressed the behavioral characteristics of the leader and his way of exercising influence over others classified leadership into **three main styles**:

- Democratic Leadership
- Autocratic (Dictatorial, Authoritarian) Leadership
- Laissez-Faire (Free, Non-directive) Leadership

In order to clarify the characteristics of each of these styles, we shall examine them in some detail.

#### 4-1. Democratic Leadership Style

In the democratic style, the leader works to provide opportunities for the workers to carry out the work themselves without intimidation or coercion, but rather on the basis of sound human relations, participation in decision-making, exchanging opinions, and delegating authority to those working with him. Al-Badri (2001) describes it as: *"a human and collective leadership."* Al-Tawil, for his part, characterizes the democratic leader as tolerant and open in his dealings with all employees.

Al-Nimr and others (1997) indicate that democratic leadership is characterized by collective organization. However, this style of leadership requires the leader to trust the workers, to give them space to present their ideas, and to allow them to freely discuss work issues, with the necessity of respecting these ideas and seeking to respond to them (Yaghi, 1996).

Among the most important positives of the democratic style is that it helps in training and preparing future leaders by giving middle leaders the opportunity to discover and develop their abilities. It also raises workers' morale, satisfies their needs, and makes them feel job satisfaction, thus reducing complaints. All of this motivates them toward work with enthusiasm and mastery (Kanaan, 1992).

On this basis, the democratic style can be considered the most effective and successful leadership style in developing and improving the institution and its workers, as it raises their morale, strengthens their belonging to their workplace, and enhances their loyalty to their leader, all of which positively reflects on performance and, consequently, increases productivity. However, the application of this style depends on the leader's own skills, the level of awareness of subordinates, their readiness to participate in decision-making, and their acceptance of the opinions of others. Democratic behavior is not inherited but rather acquired through training and by providing a suitable environment for it.

Assaf (1982) notes that despite the benefits and advantages of democratic leadership, it can sometimes produce negative results; for example, in situations that require urgent decisions, involving workers and consulting them through meetings and getting to know their different points of view consumes time and slows down the decision-making process and the implementation of necessary measures.

#### 4-2. Autocratic Leadership Style

This style is also called authoritarian, despotic, or dictatorial. In it, all authority is concentrated in the hands of the leader, who makes decisions unilaterally, while subordinates must follow instructions without discussion; otherwise, they may face the harshest forms of punishment (Al-Dhahabi & Al-Azzawi, 2005).

Under this style, communication flows only in one direction—from top to bottom—so others cannot deliver their opinions to the leadership, and if such opinions reach the leader, they may be ridiculed or disregarded. The autocratic leader believes he knows better than others what should be done, therefore he does not delegate authority, and he uses coercive methods based on threats and intimidation. He also occupies himself with monitoring every small and large detail of the work.

Some researchers divide the autocratic style into three main forms (Hashim, 1980):

- **The strict autocrat:** all authority is subject to him, and he manages affairs entirely alone.
- **The benevolent autocrat:** occasionally uses some positive methods such as rewards to gain the loyalty of subordinates and avoid their negative attitudes toward him.
- **The tactful autocrat:** creates the impression among subordinates that they are participating in decision-making by holding some meetings and discussions with them, but ultimately he retains sole decision-making authority.

Although the autocratic leadership style may succeed in controlling work and increasing productivity, it has several disadvantages. Al-Najjar (1980) and Al-Nimr et al. (1997) emphasize the following:

- Subordinates dislike their leader, and their morale declines.
- It kills the spirit of creativity and initiative among them.
- Cooperation between the leader and the workers disappears.
- Work performance becomes tied to the leader's presence; once the leader is absent, the work comes to a halt.

#### 4-3. Laissez-Faire (Free) Leadership

This style is known by several names, most commonly free leadership, permissive leadership, non-directive leadership, or chaotic leadership. In this case, the leader is almost entirely absent from the work environment, leaving workers complete freedom to act as they wish. The leader's role is limited to meeting subordinates' needs for resources and information necessary to perform their tasks, without influencing them or exercising authority over them (Yaghi, 1996).

If autocratic leadership neglects the role of subordinates, laissez-faire leadership neglects the role of the leader. Undoubtedly, the absence of the leader's role results in the emergence of competing informal leaders, and leads to feelings of instability among workers.

Abu Samra and others (2003) argue that the laissez-faire style is not leadership at all and does not even rise to the level of leadership. They consider it instead to be "*laissez-faire management*," since leadership presupposes the exercise of influence over workers—something entirely absent in the laissez-faire style.

However, this style may be appropriate in some institutions such as universities and research centers. Despite the negative consequences of laissez-faire leadership—such as weak cooperation among workers, absence of team spirit, and lack of discipline and organization—it also has certain characteristics. For instance, it gives subordinates the chance to work freely, to evaluate their own performance independently, and to rely on themselves. In addition, it facilitates communication between the leader and the subordinates (Kanaan, 1992).

### 5. Definition of the Psychological and Social Climate

#### 5-1. Climate in Language

The word *mounakh* (climate) is a relatively recent term in the dictionary. In *Al-Ra'id Dictionary*, the word is derived from *anākh*, *inākhah* (*nawkh*). It is said: *anākh al-jamal* (the camel knelt down), meaning: he made the camel kneel, or he made it settle in a place; it also means to reside there, or to come down with humiliation or otherwise (Masoud, 1981, p. 242).

#### 5-2. Climate in Terminology

The term *climate* includes the organizations, individuals, and groups that benefit from these organizations and interact with them. Climate is the main source from which the organization derives the types of resources necessary for its operations. Moreover, climate encompasses systems and rules that regulate work, organize relationships, and define what is acceptable and what is rejected in terms of types and fields of activity.

The psychological literature points to two dimensions of climate: one is specific to the individual, and the other is related to the systemic (organizational) dimension, that is, the systems and determinants surrounding the individual. Each dimension is intertwined and interacts with the other (Al-Sulami, n.d., pp. 12–13).

### 5-3. Definition of the Psychosocial Climate

It was defined in the *Dictionary of Psychology* as follows: “*It is the qualitative aspect of interpersonal relationships, which appears as a total sum of the psychological states that either facilitate or hinder productive activities and the comprehensive development of the individual within the group.*”

Koys and DeCotiis (1991) defined the psychosocial climate as “*a perceptual phenomenon in which the individual participates widely as a supposed organizational unit, whose primary function is to shape individual behavior in accordance with the requirements of the organization.*”

### 6. Definition of the Classroom Group

The classroom group has been defined in light of its nature, its functions, and its objectives—particularly the role it plays in the affective life of the child (the pupil)—through numerous definitions. For Johnson and Banny (1974), it is defined as: “*a group of individuals who collectively perceive their unity, and who adopt the same behavior toward the school environment.*”

Others, such as Dubon (1982) and Journet (1980), define the classroom group through its characteristics and consider it a group of direct interaction, since its members influence one another and because it affects them through the norms that are formed within it. It is an organized work group established to achieve a specific objective. It is also a formal group, because its members were designated to be a group and did not choose it themselves, and because the institution imposed upon them—in the classroom group, as in any small group—a set of variables that generate its dynamics.

These variables can be observed directly or through instruments such as tests, questionnaires, interviews, and role-playing. The classroom, as a psychosocial space, is characterized by being a group that aims, through its very existence, to achieve a specific task under specific conditions. Through its organization, it seeks to fulfill educational purposes and to impart knowledge such as the acquisition of skills and learning experiences, within regulated conditions and according to clear methods and means.

Thus, the essence of the classroom group can only be understood within the framework of the characteristics of the small group, in which work is considered the most important common principle among its members, with the addition of certain features specific to the educational classroom that distinguish it from other forms of organization (Al-Luhiyyah, 2007, p. 64).

### Second: Importance of the Topic

The importance of this topic lies in the fact that it addresses one of the fundamental factors influencing classroom dynamics, namely the *style of the educational leader* adopted by the teacher in directing the educational process. The leadership style is not only reflected in students' academic performance, but its impact also extends to the psychological and social climate that prevails in the classroom group, in terms of the level of interaction, the sense of belonging, security, and motivation. Moreover, the reliance of the subject on a pioneering experiment in social psychology, conducted by Lippitt and White under the supervision of Kurt Lewin, adds a scientific dimension that allows for a deeper understanding of the nature of the relationship between leadership styles and the educational climate. This, in turn, contributes to equipping teachers and educators with more conscious and effective practices in improving the classroom climate and preparing learning conditions that support learners' growth (Lippitt & White, 1943, p. 503).

### Third: Previous Related Studies

1- The study of Mahmoud Fathi Okasha from the University of Alexandria and Dawood Abdulmalik Al-Hadabi from the University of Sana'a (1991) on the *ideology of classroom control*. This study focused on some methods of classroom management, including leadership styles and teacher personalities. It was based on the study of *Lippitt and White (1943)* in defining two leadership styles: *dictatorial and democratic*.

By the *dictatorial or authoritarian teacher*, the study meant the teacher-centered classroom, in which the teacher maintains high control, the activity is formal or rigid, with minimal participation allowed for students, and communication is centered around the teacher. The *democratic teacher*, on the other hand, is the one who presides over a learner-centered classroom, with more distributed authority, greater independence for the learner, emphasis on students' ideas, concern for divergent thinking, and allowance of high verbal activity for students. Communication is open between the teacher and the students, and among the students themselves. The results of the study indicated that novice teachers at the beginning of their career, as well as student-teachers, were more authoritarian in classroom control. Moreover, high school teachers were found to be more authoritarian than elementary school teachers.

2- The study of *Willower and his colleagues (1967)* on the ideology of classroom control, which focused on the authoritarian style and the humanistic style. The authoritarian style is characterized by concern with maintaining order, lack of trust in students, and the use of punishment to control the class. By contrast, the humanistic style is characterized by viewing students as individuals, providing an atmosphere that allows them to fulfill their desires and needs, and helping them to learn through cooperation, interaction, and the development of self-discipline instead of imposing order upon them.

3- Cheng (1994) emphasized the existence of a strong correlational relationship between the teacher's leadership style in the classroom and the psychosocial climate, as well as between this climate and students' effective performance. In general, personality is determined by social and environmental factors (Pervin, 1980, p. 13).

From the foregoing, it is clear that the two variables, namely ego strength and emotional tranquility, may be influenced by the psychosocial climate, since both are social products. Ego strength expresses sound perception, while psychological security—as emotional tranquility has been called—is the result of experiences and life situations. Hamed Zahran defined the concept of psychological security as emotional or psychological tranquility, explaining it as: “*a state in which the satisfaction of needs is guaranteed and not exposed to danger,*” such as the need for love and affection, the need for safety, physiological needs, the need for self-esteem, and self-respect. Sometimes the satisfaction of needs occurs effortlessly, while at other times it requires striving and exertion to achieve it (Zahran, 1984, p. 297).

### Fourth: The Experiment of Lippitt and White on Leadership Styles and Their Influence on Learners' Behavior (the Classroom Group)

The styles of the educational leader and his facilitation techniques related to the act of learning ultimately aim at enabling learners to acquire certain abilities, to develop them, or to correct them, in a way that serves the achievement of the competencies set at the end of a specific program or part of it. Indeed, modern experimental research on authority, leadership, and methods of management and facilitation has, over the last decades, enabled psychologists and educators to identify three principal styles of facilitation, each characterized by its own features and its general outcomes on the productivity, behavior, and performance of groups. Each of these styles has profoundly different effects on the group, and the adoption of any one of them leads to calculated repercussions with respect to the group's work, its efficiency, and its progress toward its goals.

#### 1- The Experiment and Its Field Procedures

*(Keeping the French text as it is, without translation, as per your instruction — only ensuring orthographic consistency if necessary):*

*Cet étude classique réalisée en 1939 par Lewin, Lippitt White sur trois styles de leadership et les différents climats sociaux qui en résultent, à savoir autocratique, démocratique et laissez-faire. Une extension graduelle de la théorie*

*de champ lewinienne pour inclure des motivations inconscientes dans le comportement individuel et dans le comportement de groupe a permis d'élargir l'influence déjà considérable de cette recherche sur les sciences du comportement. Deux événements récents m'ont incité à écrire cette communication: (1) le 100e anniversaire de la naissance de Kurt Lewin en 1990 (Maccoby, 1992); et (b) un élargissement de la théorie de champ lewinienne pour englober les motivations inconscientes. (Lewin, K., & 1939, 276-278).*

*Cette théorie du leadership a été reprise par les psychologues scolaires dans la mise au point d'un modèle schématique de l'éducation des enfants. En effet on distingue trois étapes au cours desquelles l'enfant est éduqué de manière paternaliste (interdiction de sortir le soir à 4 ans), puis de manière participative (possibilité de sortir mais négociée avec les parents), et enfin laissé libre (majorité, libre décision de ses actes).*

*Lewin confirme ces résultats en 1943 avec ses expériences sur le changement d'attitude alimentaire des ménagères américaines. Pour modifier durablement les habitudes alimentaires, il apparaît plus aisé d'en faire découvrir la nécessité aux intéressées au travers d'échanges verbaux. (Manuel, pp. 46-47).*

## **2- Defining the Objectives, Boundaries, and Sample of the Experiment**

### **2-1- Objectives of the Experiment:**

- To study the impact of the facilitator's behavior (the teacher) on the behavior of the classroom group (the pupils), whether negatively or positively, when he adopts a particular leadership style: democratic, autocratic, or laissez-faire.
- To study the reaction of the classroom group when moving from one of these climates to another that is different in nature.

### **2-2- Boundaries of the Experiment:**

- **Spatial boundaries:** A primary school.
- **Temporal boundaries:** The year 1943.

### **2-3- The Sample:**

The number of children was 20 pupils from a single class, chosen randomly, all of whom were 10 years old. The classroom group was divided into four clubs, with each club consisting of 5 children and each one given a specific name.

*Lippitt et White distinguent trois styles de leadership utilisés spontanément par des enfants dans des groupes d'une école primaire:*

### **Models of the Climates Tested on the Groups:**

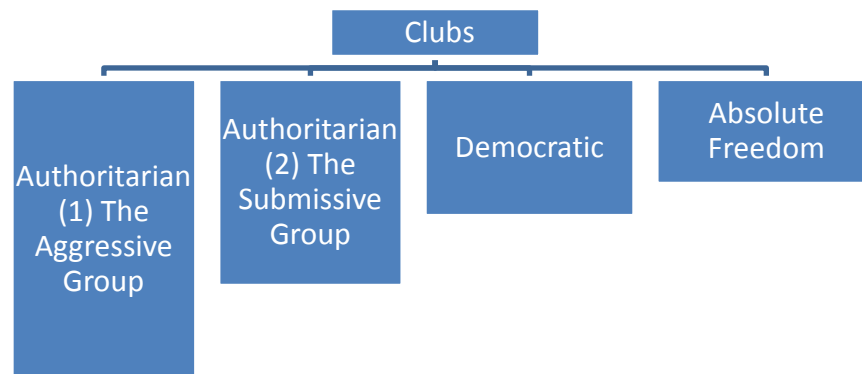


Figure (1) illustrates the three leadership climates.

**Note:** The autocratic climate included two groups.

### 3- Experiment Control

The four clubs were homogeneous in terms of personal and physical traits, level of intelligence, inclination to obedience, readiness for cooperation with the group, as well as types of social and personal relations. The meeting rooms were identical in every detail, whether in terms of furniture or content, and the forms of activity in all the clubs were unified. To ensure such homogeneity, intelligence tests, teachers' assessments, and the sociometric scale of social relations were employed.

#### 3-1- The Democratic Group

In the democratic group, the members met together and collectively determined the types of activities, the raw materials, and the tools required to carry out the chosen task. After discussion, they decided to construct models of wooden airplanes.

#### 3-2- The Autocratic Group

In the autocratic group, the program was imposed on the members without allowing them to have a say in its choice.

- Dans la condition « directive » l'animateur est directif dans sa passation d'ordres et ceux-ci ne peuvent pas être discutés (pas de rétro-action possible). L'animateur occupe donc ici un statut de chef assimilable au paternalisme.*

("In the 'directive' condition, the leader is commanding in giving orders, and these orders cannot be discussed or subjected to feedback. The leader thus occupies the status of a chief comparable to paternal authority.")

(Lewin & White, 1939, p. 290).

#### 3-3- The Laissez-faire Group

In the laissez-faire group, raw materials and tools necessary for the activity were provided, but no specific activity was determined for them. This experiment was conducted by four trained facilitators, well-versed in educational psychology and social psychology. They alternated among the four clubs, taking turns to adopt each of the social climates, and were instructed on the roles they had to assume in each condition. Observation records were kept for

each group, and interviews were conducted with the children, their parents, and their teachers both during and after the experiment (Khwaiss, 2017, p. 14).

#### 4- Description of the Social Climates

##### 4-1- Democratic Climate

The club's policy and activities were decided upon through group discussion and collective decisions based on majority voting, with the leader's encouragement and active participation. The objectives of the activity were clearly known to all, and the steps were discussed democratically. Each child was free to choose his workmates and the tasks he wished to perform. The leader made use of reward and punishment in an objective and impersonal manner, participating in the group morally rather than materially. When asked for advice, he responded flexibly by offering several possible solutions and leaving the members free to choose among them (Al Abdullah, 2012, p. 49).

- *Le leader démocratique : participe à la vie du groupe, mais ne donne pas d'ordres, fait des suggestions et encourage les autres enfants dans leurs productions.*  
(“The democratic leader participates in the group's life but does not give direct orders; he makes suggestions and encourages the children in their productions.”)
- *Dans la condition « participative » l'animateur est participatif avec tous les membres du groupe. L'apprentissage est basé sur l'interaction entre les membres du groupe et l'animateur occupe un poste d'animation dans l'apprentissage.*  
(“In the ‘participative’ condition, the facilitator engages with all members of the group. Learning is based on interaction among the members, while the facilitator assumes a role of guidance in the learning process.”)  
(Lewin & White, 1939, p. 295).

##### 4-2- Autocratic Climate

In this climate, the club's policy and activities were determined solely by the leader. The steps were dictated one by one, without the goals being previously known to the members. The children had no freedom to choose their workmates, as the leader assigned both the task and the partners. Reward and punishment were used in a subjective and personal way. The leader did not share in the group's activity but intervened from time to time to explain and clarify the method of work explicitly (Khwaiss, 2017, p. 15).

- *Dans la condition « directive » l'animateur est directif dans sa passation d'ordres et ceux-ci ne peuvent pas être discutés (pas de rétro-action possible). L'animateur occupe donc ici un statut de chef assimilable au paternalisme.*  
(“In the ‘directive’ condition, the facilitator is commanding in issuing orders, and these cannot be discussed. He thus occupies the position of a leader comparable to paternal authority.”)  
(Lewin & White, 1939, pp. 297–298).

##### 4-3- Laissez-faire Climate

In this climate, the members enjoyed complete freedom in choosing the type of activity, their behavior, and even whether to work or not, with minimal involvement from the leader. Objectives were set with total freedom, and workmates were chosen without restriction. The leader was entirely neutral in his behavior and made no attempt to evaluate or organize the group's activity. His role was limited to pointing out the available resources and tools and showing readiness to provide advice or assistance if requested. No system of reward or punishment was applied; instead, there was total neutrality.

- *Le leader permissif : apporte ses connaissances techniques, mais ne cherche pas à s'impliquer émotionnellement dans les activités de group.*  
(“The permissive leader contributes his technical knowledge but does not seek emotional involvement in the group's activities.”)

- *Dans la condition « laissez-faire » l'animateur est en retrait face aux demandes du groupe. Son rôle est de surveiller les activités sans intervenir dans le groupe.*  
 ("In the 'laissez-faire' condition, the facilitator withdraws in response to the group's demands. His role is to supervise activities without intervening in the group.")  
 (Lewin & White, 1939, pp. 298-299).

## 5- Results of the Experiment

### 5-1- Results regarding mutual trust:

#### 5-1-1- In the democratic club:

A general atmosphere of mutual trust and spontaneous responsiveness prevailed among the members themselves as well as between them and the leader. The children would share their problems and even their secrets with him. Some of them even offered parts of their production as gifts to the leader. Members were also keen to receive appreciation from one another. Thus, the democratic climate was characterized by greater friendliness and less discontent.

#### 5-1-2- In the autocratic club:

Members became more dependent on the leader, constantly seeking to flatter him and draw his attention in order to gain rewards and avoid punishment. There was no genuine atmosphere of mutual trust, neither among the members themselves nor between them and the leader. It became evident that the autocratic climate fosters feelings of resentment and hostility towards the leader.

#### 5-1-3- In the laissez-faire club:

The level of mutual trust was intermediate, falling between the democratic and autocratic climates.

### 5-2- Results regarding emotional behavior:

#### 5-2-1- Democratic behavior:

In this climate, there were no signs of anxiety. Instead, members experienced feelings of stability, psychological comfort, and peacefulness.

#### 5-2-2- Autocratic behavior:

This climate was dominated by feelings of rejection, frustration, and deprivation, which in turn led to anxiety, instability, irritability, and a decline in group morale (Hanafi, 2002, p. 56).

#### 5-2-3- Laissez-faire behavior:

Here, the level of discontent was moderate, situated between that of democracy and autocracy. It is useful to support this finding with a statement by Gibb, who defined the affective relationship between teacher and learner in the educational setting as being based either on love or on fear:

- If love is strong and fear is strong, the relationship is "parental."
- If love is strong but fear is little or absent, the relationship is "pure."
- If love is little or absent and fear is strong, the relationship is "tyrannical."  
 (Gibb, 1954).

### 5-3- Results regarding the leader's complete withdrawal from the club:

The leaders deliberately absented themselves for short periods from some meetings in all the clubs. The results were as follows:

#### 5-3-1- In the democratic climate:

Production in the absence of the leader was equal to production in his presence. Similarly, the level of activity remained consistent whether he was present or absent.

- *Ils constatent qu'avec un leader démocratique, la production est presque semblable à celle obtenue avec un leadership autoritaire, puisque la quantité est meilleure alors que la qualité est légèrement inférieure.* ("They observed that under a democratic leader, production is almost similar to that obtained under authoritarian leadership: the quantity is superior, although the quality is slightly lower.") (Lewin & White, 1939, p. 300).

#### 5-3-2- In the autocratic climate:

The group showed itself capable of sustained work only in the presence of the leader. However, whenever the leader was delayed, the work was also delayed, and when he left, the activity stopped altogether; members neither resumed previous tasks nor initiated new ones.

#### 5-3-3- In the laissez-faire climate:

An atmosphere of chaos and lack of cohesion prevailed among the team members.

- *À l'inverse, le leader permissif est un style improductif, car apparaît la démotivation au travail, qui place le sujet dans une forme d'apathie et de retrait. Le leader démocratique a l'avantage de permettre que le leader s'efface au profit du groupe qui doit alors s'autogérer. La frustration des membres diminue.* ("Conversely, the permissive leader represents an unproductive style, as it results in a loss of motivation for work, placing individuals in a state of apathy and withdrawal. The democratic leader, however, has the advantage of being able to step back in favor of the group, which then manages itself. This reduces members' frustration.") (Lewin & White, 1939, pp. 300-301).

### 5-4- Results of the Experiment in terms of Social Behavior

#### 5-4-1- In the democratic climate:

There were clear signs of friendliness among the members in their social behavior. The feeling of "we" (collective identity) was stronger than the feeling of individuality. Group morale was higher than in the other two groups.

#### 5-4-2- In the autocratic climate:

In the aggressive group, members displayed hostile behaviors toward one another, with some aggression also directed toward the leader. Their behavior was also characterized by destructiveness, as they destroyed the models they had previously made. On the other hand, in the submissive group, members showed compliance and strong dependence on the leader, accompanied by an inability to engage in cooperative work and frequent low-voiced conversations.

#### 5-4-3- In the laissez-faire climate:

Friendly signals were observed among members toward one another, but at a level lower than in the democratic and autocratic (aggressive) climates, though higher than in the autocratic (submissive) climate.

## 5-5- Results of the Experiment in terms of the Succession of Social Climates

### 5-5-1- Transition from autocracy to democracy or to laissez-faire:

This shift initially resulted in an outburst of violent reactions, especially among individuals who had previously been subjected to the autocratic system. Such an outburst indicated the repression and intense tension that members had felt under autocracy. However, this behavior did not last long, as the children eventually adapted to the democratic or laissez-faire climate.

### 5-5-2- Transition from autocracy to democracy or laissez-faire, then back to autocracy:

This sequence was met with strong opposition, particularly after the members had experienced the democratic climate.

## 6. Summary and Commentary on the Experiment's Results:

This experiment indicates that democratic leadership is the style that should be cultivated and reinforced. The results of the experiment also show that just as an individual rejects a system or authority imposed externally upon them, they likewise do not feel comfortable in the complete absence of any guidance or direction, nor in the absence of a goal to orient themselves toward. An individual's need for freedom is thus balanced by their need for regulation within the framework of a democratic climate (Issawi, 1992, p. 87).

### Conclusion:

Effective educational leadership plays a fundamental role in supporting the transformation of the school model. This necessitates that institutes and training centers affiliated with the Ministry of Education or Higher Education pay greater attention to providing effective academic programs for preparing school leaders capable of generating genuine improvement in students' performance. Furthermore, the study of group leadership within the classroom—what is referred to as the “dynamics of the group”—has provided an opportunity for those interested in this field to explore the latest theories, whether they pertain to psychological or sociological approaches that examine both the individual and the group simultaneously.

This experiment also encourages us to consider the psychological and social needs of learners during the actual practice of the pedagogical process. For a classroom group to achieve its objectives—which are centered on acquiring the competencies necessary to face various life situations—it is essential that a type of positive dynamism occurs. This dynamism allows members of the group to develop their skills, modify their behaviors in the desired direction, and acquire the essential values that enable them to confront challenges in their lives, all through practice in educational situations within the classroom (Maher, 2002, p. 52).

### Acknowledgments

The author expresses sincere gratitude to the University of Oran 2 - Mohamed Ben Ahmed for providing academic and institutional support during the preparation of this research. Special appreciation is extended to colleagues in the Department of Education for their constructive feedback, and to the students whose engagement in classroom practices continues to inspire the exploration of effective educational leadership.

### Conflict of Interest Statement

The author declares no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

### References

1. Al-Abdullah, K. I. (2012). *Modern classroom management: A contemporary vision*. Amman: Dar Al-Fikr for Printing, Publishing, and Distribution, p. 49.
2. Jassim, M. Al-Dhahabi, & Najm, A. Al-Azzawi. (2005). *Principles of public administration - A comprehensive strategic perspective*. Baghdad.

3. Al-Hasan, L. (2007). *Social psychology and its educational applications* (1st ed.). Kenitra, Morocco: Dar Al-Harf for Publishing and Distribution.
4. Hassan, H., & Al-Ajmi, M. (2007). *Educational administration*. Amman, Jordan: Dar Al-Maseera for Publishing and Distribution.
5. Hanafi, A. A. (2002). *Classroom management: Concepts and strategies*. Cairo: Maktabat Al-Rushd, p. 56.
6. Khuweis, H. (2017). *Patterns of educational leadership and their impact on classroom management*. Amman: Dar Al-Ayyam for Publishing and Distribution, p. 15.
7. Al-Dhahabi, A. R., & Al-Azzawi, Q. H. (2005). *Educational administration: Its concepts, foundations, and applications*. Amman: Dar Al-Shorouk.
8. Zaki, M. H. (1980). *Behavioral aspects in management*. Kuwait: Agency for Publications.
9. Saud, M. Al-Nimr, et al. (1997). *Public administration: Principles and functions*. Riyadh, Saudi Arabia: Al-Farazdaq Press.
10. Al-Salmi. (n.d.). *Al-Raed Dictionary* (4th ed., Vols. 1-2). Egypt: Dar Al-Ilm.
11. Al-Sayyid, A. H. (1998). *Effective teaching strategies*. Cairo: Dar Al-Fikr Al-Arabi.
12. Al-Sharif, M. M. (2004). *Educational administration: Concepts and foundations*. Amman: Dar Al-Fikr for Printing and Publishing.
13. Tarek, A. Al-Badri. (2001). *Leadership and administrative methods in educational institutions*. Amman, Jordan: Dar Al-Fikr for Printing and Publishing.
14. Talal, A. M. Al-Sharif. (2004). *Leadership styles and their relation to job performance from the perspective of employees in the Mecca administration* (Unpublished master's thesis). Naif University for Security Sciences, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.
15. Abdul-Ghani, A. (1995). *Philosophy of elementary education and its applications* (1st ed.). Cairo, Egypt: Dar Al-Fikr Al-Arabi.
16. Abouda, A. Q. (1995). *Educational leadership: A theoretical and applied approach*. Amman: Dar Al-Fikr.
17. Assaf, S. M. (1982). *Educational leadership: Concepts and foundations*. Amman: Dar Al-Furqan.
18. Akasha, & Al-Haddabi. (1991). Ideology of classroom control. *Contemporary Education Journal*, 18, August. Cairo, Egypt.
19. Issawi, A. R. (1992). *Social psychology*. Cairo: Dar Al-Ma'arifa Al-Jamia'iya.
20. Maher, A. (2002). *Organizational behavior: An approach to skill building*. Alexandria, Egypt: University Press.
21. Al-Qaryouti, J. A. (2000). *Organizational behavior*. Amman: Dar Wael for Publishing.
22. Maher, H. (2002). *Group dynamics in the educational field*. Casablanca: Dar Al-Aman.
23. Mohamed, A. F. Y. (1996). *Job satisfaction level of employees in the lower geographic center in Amman, Jordan*.
24. Mohamed, A. N. (1980). *Scientific foundations of organizational theory and administration*. Damascus: Dar Al-Fikr.
25. Mohamed, Q. Al-Qaryouti. (2000). *Organizational behavior in educational institutions management*. Amman, Jordan: Dar Jarir for Publishing and Distribution.
26. Mohamed, M. M. (1998). *Educational leadership test and a set of objective tests in educational sciences* (1st ed.). Cairo, Egypt: Dar Alam Al-Kutub.
27. Mahmoud, A. A., Qamar, A. Q., & Ahmed, F. J. (2003). Problems facing faculty members in Palestinian universities. *Journal of the Union of Arab Universities*, Palestine.
28. Mahmoud, A. (1982). *Principles of management*. Alexandria, Egypt: Dar Al-Jam'iyat.
29. Mona, K. (2011). *Faces of the leader*. Beirut, Lebanon: Dar Al-Saqi, e-book edition.
30. Nawaf, K. (1992). *Administrative leadership*. Amman, Jordan: Dar Al-Thaqafa for Publishing.
31. Hashim, M. (1980). *Administrative leadership: Its foundations and theories*. Cairo: Maktabat Al-Nahda Al-Masriya.
32. Beauvois, J.-L., Joule, R.-V., & Monteil, J.-M. (1993). *Manuel de psychologie sociale* (2nd ed.). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
33. Cheng, Y. C. (1994). Teacher leadership style: A classroom-level study. *Journal of Educational Administration*.
34. Gibb, J. (1954). Leadership. In G. Lindzey (Ed.), *Handbook of social psychology* (Vol. 2). Addison-Wesley.

35. Koys, D. J., & Decotiis, T. A. (1991). Inductive measures of psychological climate. *Human Relations*, 44.
36. Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10. New York.
37. Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1943). The “social climate” of children’s groups. In R. G. Barker, J. S. Kounin, & H. F. Wright (Eds.), *Child behavior and development: A course of representative studies* (pp. 503–517). McGraw-Hill.
38. Pervin, L. A. (1980). *Personality: Theory and research* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.