

Chapter 6

Interpersonal Relations: Further Developing Capabilities

This chapter covers many perspectives, principles, and skills that help individuals do the following: (a) take an in-depth look at themselves; (b) determine how they are behaving interpersonally; (c) recognize why; (d) take an in-depth look at those with whom they interact; (e) determine how those with whom they interact are behaving—and why; (f) identify how they themselves might behave more functionally; and (g) further develop their interpersonal awareness, understanding, and sensitivity. All of these contribute to a person's ability to interact functionally and successfully with the “people aspects” of his or her environment—an ability called *social intelligence* by Gill and Borchers (2003).

Human interactions, however, are not the same everywhere. According to Gollwitzer and Oettingen (2004), Ryan and Deci (2000), and Triandis (2004), motivational factors, normative values, and acceptable interpersonal behavior are relative to where you are, what you do, and with whom you interact. Attitudes and behavior that are appropriate in one region, country, city, organization, unit, or group may not be functional elsewhere.

Thus, it is very important that people become (a) more knowledgeable about people's interpersonal motivations and behavior, (b) more aware of their motivations and behavior, (c) more inclined to behave amicably and cooperatively toward others, and (d) more skilled at interacting effectively with the people in their environment. .

In addition, developing interpersonal knowledge and skills improves social interactions and helps anyone do the following: (a) get along better; (b) cope more successfully with their life circumstances and environments; (c) better fulfill their own and others' needs; and (d) increase their own and others' attainment of goals. In other words, these developmental activities can help to make the world go around in a more orderly, congenial, pleasant, and fulfilling manner.

Chapter 6 is aimed at helping our readers do all of the above.

Many frames of reference for describing and explaining interpersonal behavior and its many aspects have been developed. This chapter surveys a number of frames of reference that have been put forth over the years.

The chapter is broken down into five parts:

Part 1 discusses how personal characteristics motivate, enable, or otherwise relate to interpersonal behavior. It also describes key dimensions of interpersonal orientations and the three basic ego states and their associated life positions.

Part 2 describes three evolutionary phases of relationships: (a) initial contact (initiation or approach); (b) relationship formation or development; and (c) relationship maintenance. The coverage of these phases also discusses levels of personal traits that are functional (beneficial or appropriate) and dysfunctional (detrimental or inappropriate) for developing and maintaining relationships.

Part 3 describes several distinctive interpersonal styles in terms of levels of self- and people-orientedness. It also explains them in terms of levels of specific underlying personal characteristics (such as drives, values, personality traits, and capabilities). The section also describes the interpersonal dimensions, ego states, life positions, and managerial style tendencies that are related to the distinctive styles.

Part 4 describes behavior in social groups. It discusses group formation, membership phenomena (such as who plays which roles), and social norms and enforcing sanctions that help maintain a social group and its internal and external relationships.

Part 5 describes interpersonal conflicts in terms of symptoms, types, causes, and approaches (styles) for resolving them.

Again, all this information helps individuals to....

- gain greater insight into and be better able to resolve interpersonal problems;
- more effectively improve or further develop interpersonal knowledge and skills including interpersonal awareness, insight, understanding, empathy, sensitivity, and tolerance; and
- more effectively improve or further develop children's, students', and subordinates' interpersonal knowledge, understanding, attitudes, skills, behavior, and interactions.

Table 6.1: Descriptions of Specific Personal Characteristics

Related Traits & Behavior
(other traits or behavior to which characteristic either relates or contributes)

CAPABILITIES

BASIC MENTAL AND PHYSICAL CAPABILITIES

Academic Intelligence	Basically, the ability that enables one to understand, learn, and think about things of a visual, verbal, or abstract nature. One who is low in this ability tends to understand and think about things in very concrete, specific, factual, or visually-oriented terms. One who is high can also understand, learn, and think in terms of more complex, verbally-oriented constructs such as ideas and concepts, and in terms of abstract constructs such as numbers and symbols. [Tests measure vocabulary and visual, verbal, and abstract (numerical) logic.]	Judgment; Social insight; Communicative skills; Imagination; Creativity; Analytic, goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making abilities; Abilities to learn, grow, and cope with change
Social Insight (Social Intelligence)	The ability to understand and judge social behavior and to respond with understanding and tact in interpersonal situations. The level of this ability is influenced by one's level of intelligence and maturity and by the amount of social interaction that one has experienced.	Social maturity; Mature relations; People sense; Interpersonal awareness and sensitivity; Functional social behavior
Communicative Skills	These include verbal abilities (thought and speech) for expressing information and ideas in oral or written form, and non-verbal abilities involved in communicating feelings, thoughts, and attitudes without using words (e.g., through gestures, tone of voice, and facial expressions).	Persuasiveness; Interpersonal relations; Interpersonal effectiveness
Health/Energy	The vitality, strength, and energy to be alert and active on the job.	Industriousness; Activity; Stamina

SPECIALIZED MENTAL ABILITIES

Mechanical Visualization (Spatial Thinking)	The ability that enables one to visualize and to manipulate objects, parts of objects, or other visual arrangements in space. Influences one's mechanical comprehension.	The specialized mental abilities described here may or may not be involved in the technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job. When they are involved, they influence one's technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness.
Mechanical Comprehension (Mechanical Intelligence)	The ability to comprehend and solve mechanical types of problems. Level of ability is influenced by one's capacity for mechanical visualization, knowledge of mechanical principles, and experience working with mechanical objects or applying mechanical principles.	
Clerical (Perceptual) Speed and Accuracy	The ability to work quickly and accurately with details (to shift the focus of attention from one word, number, or graphic symbol to another quickly and accurately). Not to be confused with secretarial skills such as typing and shorthand.	

OTHER SPECIALIZED SKILLS

Skills (other than the specialized mental abilities described above) that relate to the technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job (e.g., the ability to operate a certain machine or type of equipment, or the ability to perform certain operations on data or information).	Technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; Ability to develop these specialized skills in others
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KNOWLEDGE FACTORS

Learning and Thinking Concepts, Methods, and Practices	Concepts, principles, methods, and procedures involved in learning, and in thinking activities such as analyzing, goal setting, planning, budgeting, decision-making, organizing, evaluating results, and problem solving.	Integrative competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; Ability to cope with and influence change; Ability to develop others' capabilities.
Team Concepts and Practices	Participative, developmental, task- and people-oriented practices that develop and utilize other people's potentials, take account of their needs and feelings, and maximize their performance and fulfillment, motivation, and morale.	Integrative competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; Ability to obtain the best possible task- and people-related results; Ability to develop others' potentials
Role- or Job-Related Data and Information	Information relating to these and other integrative and technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job: job objectives and responsibilities; capabilities, and other traits required by the job; organizational objectives, policies, and procedures; the unit's and organization's operating plans and budgets; and other related types of information or data.	Integrative and technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, effectiveness; Ability to develop personal potentials; Ability to develop others' potentials

		Related Traits & Behavior
Life, Role, Job Experience	Everything learned or experienced, especially a knowledge or "feel" for what can, should, or might happen under various circumstances or when various courses of action are taken.	Judgment; Ability to assess probabilities; Analytic, goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making effectiveness; Technical, functional, professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; Ability to cope with and influence change; Ability to develop others' potentials
Others' Roles or Jobs	Job-related information (as above) pertaining to subordinates' jobs. Includes a knowledge of the characteristics required and the standards of performance that can reasonably be expected.	Integrative competence (efficiency, effectiveness); Ability to select, train, develop and evaluate subordinates effectively
Others' Characteristics	Awareness of each (immediate) subordinate's capabilities, motive/attitudinal traits, attitudes, potentials, strengths, and weaknesses.	Interpersonal Sensitivity & Understanding; Effectiveness of goal-setting, planning, training, development, evaluation, conflict resolution, and problem-solving activities

MOTIVE / ATTITUDINAL TRAITS

BASIC NEEDS / DRIVES^a

Physiological Needs	The needs for food and water, sex, rest, exercise, and shelter from the elements, and the needs to excrete waste and to minimize pain. Self-preservation needs.	
Safety Needs	The needs for protection against physical harm or attack, danger, illness, and deprivation.	
Social Needs	The needs to affiliate with others, to obtain their approval or acceptance, to belong, and to give and receive friendship and love.	Sociability
Ego Needs (Self-Image)	The needs for self-esteem, self-confidence, an identity, independence, power, influence over others, personal achievement, knowledge, competence, a good reputation, status, prestige, recognition, and others' admiration.	Self-confidence; Personal pride; Ambition; Achievement value; Self-centeredness; Dominance; Sociability; Economic & Political values; Self-awareness vs. Ego-defensiveness; Ability to develop/improve oneself
Self-Actualization	The needs to fulfill one's potentials, to become what one can become, and to develop oneself to the fullest.	Ambition; Achievement; Personal development and improvement

VALUED MATTERS^b

Intellectual (Theoretical) Value	Concerns for truth, knowledge, and study, which underlie tendencies to utilize intellectual capacities, to be analytic, to search for causes, and to structure knowledge.	Rationality/objectivity; Judgment; Innovativeness; Original thinking; Depth of thought; Inclination to learn; Inclination to solve problems
Economic (Business) Value	Concerns for monetary matters, material things, the usefulness or practicality of things, and business or financial success.	Practical-mindedness; Cost-consciousness; Competitiveness; Ambition (success consciousness); Concern for task results and operational efficiency
Political Value	Concerns for power, prestige, position, authority, and influence over others. The "Need for Power."	Dominance (Self-assertiveness); Leadership value; Ambition; Competitiveness; Respect for authority
Social (Altruistic) Value	Concerns for people's well-being, social justice, and the public good. Love of, and concern for, people. Altruism. Social morality and ethics.	Self-sacrifice; Selflessness; Benevolence; Social maturity; Social conscientiousness
Religious (Spiritual) Value	Concerns for spiritual truth, religious experiences, religious beliefs, and religious activities. Also, concern with moral ethics espoused by religious groups.	Interpersonal morality; Benevolence; Social conscientiousness; Responsibility
Aesthetic (Artistic) Value	Concerns for beauty, harmony, grace, symmetry of form, and other aesthetically pleasing qualities in one's experiences (even though one may not be an artist).	

^a From the Maslow "Hierarchy of Needs": Abraham H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper & Row, 1964).

^b From psychological measurement instrument - G. Allport, P. Vernon, and G. Lindzey, *Study of Values* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1960); and R.E. Kopelman, J.L. Ropvenpor, R.B. Allport, and R.D. Cecil, *Study of Values* (New York, New York, 2006).

Related Traits and Behavior**COPING VALUES^c**

Practical-Mindedness	Concern for getting one's money worth (for getting full use or value from something or someone). Related to the Economic Value.	Cost-consciousness; Practicality; Concern for task-related results and operational efficiency
Goal-Orientedness	Tendencies to work toward definite objectives, to persevere until a job is completed, and to think ahead to the future consequences of one's actions.	Persistence; Responsibility; Ambition; Future-orientedness; Judgment in decision making
Achievement	Concern for accomplishing something significant, which underlies tendencies to set personal standards high, to seek challenges, and to try to do something better than it has ever been done before. The "need to achieve."	Initiative; Industriousness; Innovativeness
Orderliness	Concerns for having well-organized work habits, doing things in a systematic manner, and keeping things arranged in an orderly manner.	Organization; Effectiveness of approach to integrative matters
Decisiveness	Tendencies to make decisions quickly, to stick to them, and to hold strong convictions or opinions.	
Variety	Tendencies to pursue new and different activities, to travel to strange or unusual places, to shun the routine, and to seek adventure, risk, and danger.	Risk-taking

INTERPERSONAL VALUES^d

Leadership	Concern for having a position of leadership or authority (for being in charge of, or having influence over, others). Related to the Political Value and the "need for power."	Dominance (Self-assertiveness); Competitiveness; Ambition; Forcefulness
Recognition	Concerns for attracting notice and being admired, looked up to, respected, and considered important.	Ego needs; Self-assertiveness; Success-orientedness
Benevolence	Concerns for helping others, sharing things with them, doing things for them, and being generous to them.	Interpersonal sensitivity and attentiveness; Social conscientiousness; Selflessness; Kindness; Concern for People; Social maturity
Support	The desire or need to be treated with kindness, understanding, and consideration, and to receive encouragement from others.	
Conformity	Concern about doing what is expected, accepted, proper, or socially correct, which underlies a tendency to follow rules, policies, regulations, and group norms closely.	(Can be dysfunctional trait if behavior patterns to which conforming are somehow inappropriate.)
Independence	Tendencies to be self-sufficient, to resist restriction, to do things for oneself, to make one's own decisions, to do what one wants, and to do things one's own way.	

PERSONALITY TRAITS^e

Vigor	Tendencies to be active, energetic, and full of vitality and to maintain a lively, rapid pace when working, moving, or speaking.	Industriousness
Self-Confidence	Tendencies to be poised, confident, self-assured, well-adjusted, and free of self-consciousness, feelings of inferiority, and excessive self-criticism.	Self-assertiveness; Decisiveness; Sociability (Social extroversion); Original thinking; Leadership;
Dominance (Ascendancy or Self-Assertiveness)	Tendencies to be self-assured, self-assertive, verbally ascendant, extroverted, and aggressive (to take the initiative in dealing with people, to dominate conversations, to make independent decisions, to assume authority, or group leadership, to influence or persuade others, to organize social activities, and to promote new projects). Related to the Political and Leadership Values.	Forcefulness; Aggressiveness; Leadership; Self-centeredness; Ego needs/drives; Control of situations; Active participation in activities; Emotional stability
Sociability	Tendencies to be gregarious, outgoing, and genuinely interested in interpersonal contact (to seek and enjoy people's company, to mix well with people, and to make friends easily).	Friendliness; Congeniality; Social needs; Ego needs; Gravitation toward social groups

c From psychological instrument - Leonard V. Gordon, *Survey of Personal Values* (Chicago: Science Research Assoc., 1967).d From psychological instrument - Leonard V. Gordon, *Survey of Interpersonal Values* (Chicago: Science Research Assoc., 1960).

e See next page.

Related Traits & Behavior

Social Conscientiousness	Tendencies to demonstrate high ethical and moral standards in interpersonal relationships, to submerge the satisfaction of one's own drives and motives for the sake of others' feelings and well-being, and to be unselfish, concerned for others, considerate, and loyal.	Concern for People; Social value; Benevolence; Selflessness; Contributes to social maturity (Mature personal relations)
Adaptability	Tendencies to have a healthy self-image, to think honestly and realistically about oneself, others, and the environment, not to be a perfectionist, to get along in situations that are not exactly the way one thinks they should be, to tolerate ambiguity, to adjust easily to changing or uncertain circumstances, not to be self-righteous, to give and take, to be a good compromiser, and not to be arrogant, critical and suspicious of others, or antagonistic toward others.	Flexibility; Tolerance; Self-awareness; Interpersonal awareness; Ability to be a "team player"; Contributes to social maturity
Social Maturity (Mature Personal Relations)	Tendencies to be concerned about others' feelings and well-being, to suppress self-interests for others' sakes, to be considerate of others, to give and take, to speak well of others, and to be cooperative, agreeable, understanding, helpful, trusting, patient, loyal, and tolerant. A combination of social conscientiousness and adaptability.	Interpersonal awareness and sensitivity; Interpersonal effectiveness; Ability to be a "team player"
Responsibility	Tendencies to have high ethical and moral standards regarding work (and similar responsibilities not of a social nature), to be conscientious in one's work, to see a difficult job through to its completion, and to be determined, persistent, persevering, thorough, and reliable.	Industriousness; Initiative; Promptness; Concern for task-related results
Original Thinking	Tendencies to be meditative, thoughtful, intellectually curious, reflective, and analytical and to work on difficult problems, to spend time thinking about ideas especially new ideas), and to join thought-provoking discussions. Related to the Intellectual Value.	Open-mindedness; Judgment; Imagination; Innovativeness; Effectiveness of thought-oriented integrative activities
Emotional Stability	Tendencies to have an even disposition, not to experience "emotional peaks and valleys," to be able to relax easily, to be free of worries, tensions, anxieties, and fears, to be calm, serene, and well-balanced, and not to be easily distracted or irritated by noise and interruptions when concentrating on something.	Approachability; Interpersonal effectiveness; Ability to behave (use capabilities) effectively when under pressure
Self-Control (Cautiousness)	Tendencies to be cautious, careful, self-disciplined, self-restrained, and self-restricting, to think before acting, not to make spur-of-the-moment decisions, not to seek excitement or to take chances, not to be happy-go-lucky, not to be impulsive, not to be excessively competitive or aggressive, and not to look out only for oneself.	Social conscientiousness; Responsibility; Interpersonal effectiveness

e From various personality measurement instruments, including:

- Bernreuter / Humm-Wadsworth
- Gough, Harrison G., California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (Great Britain: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1956).
- Gordon, Leonard V., Gordon Personal Inventory (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1963).
- Guilford / Zimmerman
- Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (SPFQ) (Champaign, Illinois: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1972).
- Thurstone, L.L., Thurstone Temperament Schedule (Chicago: Science Research Assoc., 1953).
- Triadal Equated Personality Inventory (TEPI) (Munster, Indiana; United Consultant / Psychometric Affiliates).

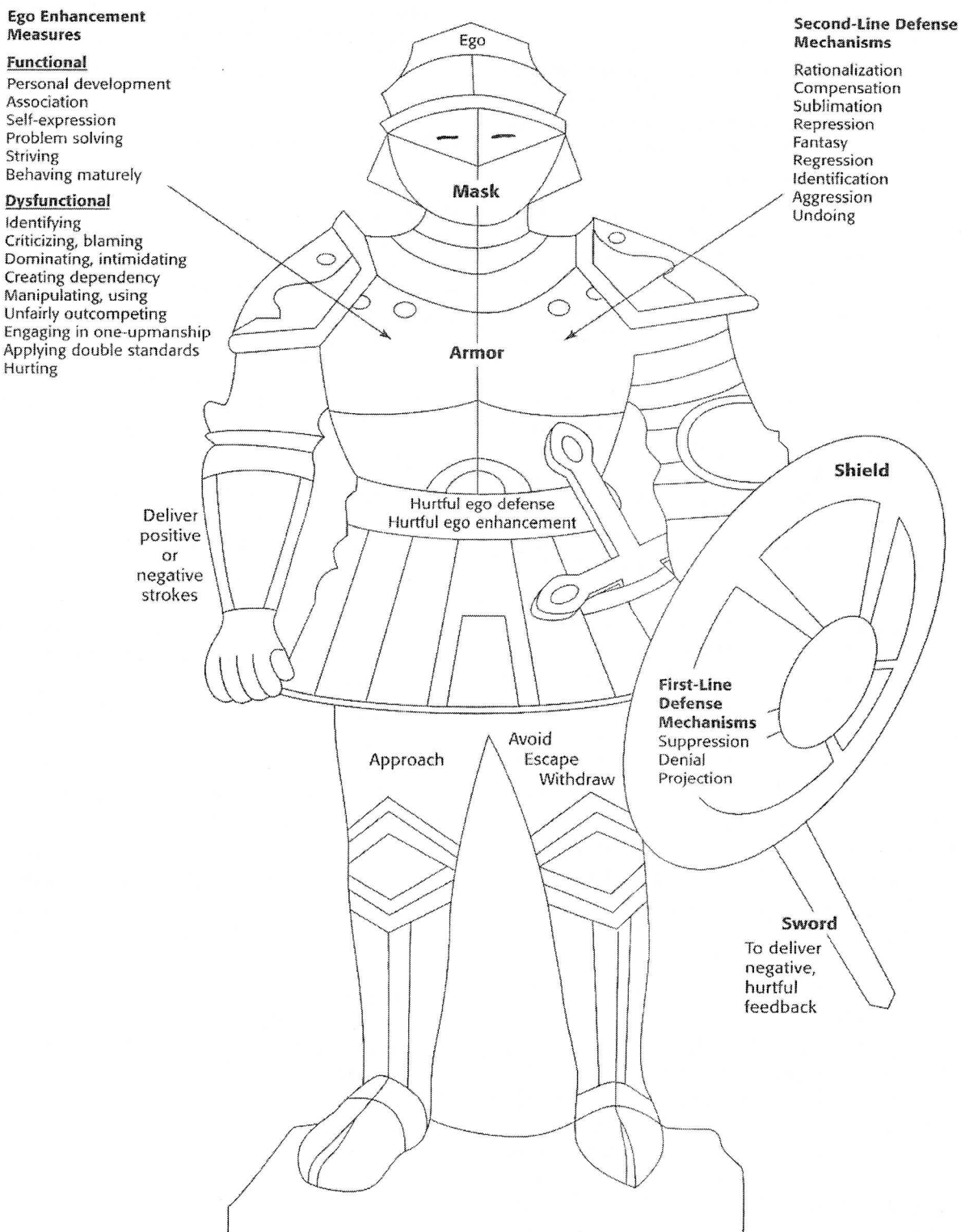
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Table 6.2: What Hurts People and What Makes Them Feel Good

WHAT HURTS PEOPLE (Negative feedback; aversive stimuli; negative strokes; "cold pricklies")	WHAT MAKES PEOPLE FEEL GOOD (Positive feedback; positive strokes; reinforcers; "warm fuzzies")
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Not being liked 2. Not being understood/accepted 3. Not receiving approval/affection 4. Not being respected 5. Not being trusted 6. Not being included/involved 7. Not being allowed to express self 8. Not being listened to 9. Having ideas/opinions questioned, disbelieved, argued with, or rejected 10. Being treated coldly/impersonally 11. Being treated discourteously 12. Not being given time and/or attention 13. Being ignored (presence not acknowledged) 14. Being avoided 15. Being rejected/scorned 16. Receiving insincere flattery 17. Being criticized 18. Being blamed (and/or made to feel guilty) 19. Not having efforts acknowledged 20. Not being thanked 21. Being teased, poked fun at 22. Being treated contemptuously/disdainfully (insulted, called names, subject of sarcasm) 23. Being reprimanded/punished (for making a mistake or causing a problem) 24. Being reminded of past mistakes 25. Having weaknesses pointed out or emphasized 26. Having strengths unacknowledged, ridiculed 27. Being "put on" (made to look foolish) 28. Being lied to 29. Being deceived, cheated, taken, conned 30. Being manipulated or used 31. Being intimidated/threatened 32. Being gossiped about 33. Having a promise broken 34. Being betrayed 35. Not being supported or backed up 36. Being stereotyped 37. Being condescended to 38. Being subject of double standard 39. Being physically mistreated/abused 40. Not being given privacy 41. Having possessions mistreated/damaged/stolen 42. Not having status or role conferred 43. Not having status or role acknowledged 44. Having status decreased or withdrawn 45. Having role withdrawn 46. Being ostracized (from a group) 47. Being excessively directed (by a superior) 48. Being helped 49. Not being informed (told what is going on) 50. Not being given cooperation 51. Being the subject of revenge 52. Having the above done to loved ones 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Being liked, shown friendship 2. Being understood/aAppreciated/accepted 3. Receiving approval/affection 4. Being shown respect 5. Being shown trust/confidence 6. Being included, invited to participate 7. Being allowed to express thoughts/feelings 8. Being listened to 9. Having ideas/opinions acknowledged, accepted, and fairly considered (if not agreed with) 10. Being treated warmly and considerately 11. Being treated with respect/courtesy 12. Being given time and attention 13. Having presence acknowledged; shown attention 14. Being sought out and/or approached 15. Being approved of and accepted 16. Receiving sincere compliment 17. Being praised, recognized, complimented 18. Not being blamed; having mistakes understood 19. Having efforts acknowledged/appreciated 20. Being thanked; having act reciprocated 21. Being shown sensitivity/respect 22. Receiving deference/respect/consideration 23. Having mistakes/problems discussed honestly, tactfully, and constructively 24. Having mistakes forgiven and forgotten 25. Having weaknesses accepted/tolerated/excused 26. Having strengths acknowledged, emphasized 27. Being made to look competent, sensible 28. Being told the truth 29. Being dealt with honestly and fairly 30. Being treated interdependently/trustworthily 31. Being treated conscientiously/unthreateningly 32. Being spoken well of (behind one's back) 33. Having promises (to one) kept 34. Being shown loyalty; having confidences kept 35. Being supported or backed up 36. Having individuality acknowledged/accepted 37. Being treated as an equal 38. Being treated equally, justly, and fairly 39. Being made physically comfortable/secure 40. Being given privacy (personal time and space) 41. Having possessions treated considerately 42. Having status or role conferred 43. Having status or role acknowledged 44. Having status increased or (re)conferred 45. Having role (re)conferred 46. Being accepted into or reinstated by group 47. Being instructed, supported, guided 48. Being asked for help or guidance 49. Being kept informed ("in on things") 50. Being given cooperation/assistance 51. Being forgiven 52. Having loved ones treated with respect/kindness

Figure 6.1. Interaction "Apparel"



Values That Relate to Interpersonal Behavior

The values discussed in the next two subsections are separated into the two categories first mentioned in Chapter 2: valued matters and interpersonal values.

Valued Matters

Chapter 2 defined the “valued matters” (concerns for certain matters) on the *Study of Values* psychological measurement instrument by Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey (1960a) and by Kopelman, Rovenpor, Allport, and R.D. Cecil (2006). [Yes, this Cecil.]

Economic (money, business, material, practical) value
 Political (power, authority, influence) value
 Social (altruistic, people) value
 Theoretical (intellectual) value
 Religious (spiritual) value
 Aesthetic (beauty, artistic) value

People who are more self-oriented are generally higher in the economic, political, and achievement values. On the other hand, those who are more people-oriented are generally higher in the social (altruistic) value and behave more unselfishly, benevolently, conscientiously, morally, and ethically toward others.

Interpersonal Values

Leonard V. Gordon (1960a, 1997a) developed a frame of reference for describing and explaining types of interpersonal behavior. His psychological instrument measures these six values:

Leadership, Recognition, Benevolence,
 Support, Conformity, and Independence.

Each of these values (concerns for various matters) also affects how people behave toward and relate with others. For example, those who are highest in benevolence and conformity will tend to behave in the most kind, sympathetic, moral, conscientious, and self-controlled manner toward others.

Seashore’s Interpersonal “Dimensions”

Psychologist Charles Seashore (1979) developed another very useful frame of reference for gaining insight into one’s own and others’ interpersonal behavior. It consists of ten key interpersonal dimensions: initiative, dependency, self-disclosure, expectations, connection, time

contact, status, resources, emotional range, and conflict. It should be pointed out that the general tendencies described in this section only partially influence an individual’s behavior and relationships. Other influences include (a) the characteristics, attitudes, and behavior of the other person or persons with whom the individual is interacting and (b) other nonpersonal variables affecting a relationship or social interaction.

Initiative: Seashore measures this dimension on a continuum that ranges from “active” (high in initiative) to “passive” (low in initiative). Initiative can be directly associated with a person’s level of *sociability*. At the high end of the continuum, the active and very self-confident and sociable extrovert tends to be outgoing and to approach interpersonal situations. At the low end of the continuum, the passive, insecure, and timid introvert tends to avoid or withdraw from interpersonal interaction. Ambiverts are in the middle of the scale. They can be slightly extroverted in some situations and slightly introverted in others.

Dependency: This dimension ranges from “dependent” (on the high end of the scale) to “interdependent” (in the middle) to “independent” (at the low end). Dependent individuals are usually high in social needs and concerns for others’ understanding, support, kindness, and positive feedback. Independent persons tend to be lower in social needs and concern for others’ support. Unlike the two extremes, interdependent people are generally medium to relatively high in the underlying characteristics and are more socially mature and inclined to give and take in relationships with others.

Self-Disclosure: This dimension deals with how readily and truthfully individuals can talk about themselves—that is, their experiences, thoughts, feelings, characteristics, strengths, weaknesses, problems, hopes, fears, goals, successes, mistakes, and failures. People who are self-disclosing (high in disclosure) tend to possess a healthy self-image and a high level of self-confidence. Those who are non-self-disclosing (low in disclosure) tend to possess a low self-image, high levels of insecurity and ego-defensiveness, and low self-confidence.

Expectations: This dimension ranges from “hidden” to “open.” It basically refers to thoughts and feelings about one’s relationship with the other person or group. People who are open readily express their expectations about relationships. On the other hand, people who are hidden generally hide their expectations.

Connection: This dimension ranges on a scale from “intimate” to “distant.” People who tend to be intimate in their relationships like close, intimate interactions. They also tend to be sensitive, caring, benevolent, supportive,

sociable, interdependent, trusting, tolerant, and communicative. They concentrate on the relationship itself, both giving and taking so that each party benefits emotionally. Individuals who tend to be distant toward most people are generally just the opposite.

Time Contact: This dimension ranges from “little” (little contact time required to establish a relationship) to “long” (long contact time required), especially with respect to close, meaningful, intimate relationships rather than casual, superficial acquaintances. Note that time contact can be as much a function of the other party in a relationship as a function of one’s own needs, values, skills, and personality traits.

Status: This dimension ranges from “one up” (at the high end of the scale) to “equal” (in the middle) to “one down” (at the low end). People who try to get and stay one up on other people in status tend to be higher in self-centered traits than in people-oriented traits. They may be rather insecure in terms of their self-image, identity, and reputation and may need to reinforce their ego by proving to themselves and others that they are superior in some respect. Those who are one down in status tend to be low in self-esteem and self-confidence. They may be introverts who are inclined to be very introspective, self-critical, withdrawn, and emotional. Those who are equal in status treat others as equals and tend to possess a balance in their levels of self-oriented and people-oriented traits.

Resources: This dimension ranges from “competitive for resources” at one end of the scale to “collaborative” at the other. Those who are highly competitive tend to be rather selfish and opportunistic. Those who are more collaborative tend to be more socially mature (less self-centered and more people- or team-oriented). Although Seashore’s scale does not include the term, it is our view that “noncompetitive” is actually the opposite of “competitive” and should be positioned at the other end of the scale, with “collaborative” in the middle. In other words, “collaborative” is to the competitiveness scale what “interdependent” is to the dependence-independence scale.

Emotional Range: This deals with an individual’s capacity to feel a broad spectrum of emotions—for example: fear, pain, anger, and love. Seashore’s scale runs from “all emotions are readily available” to “only _____ is available.” In general, people who have all human emotions available are fairly well adjusted, cope successfully with life, and interact normally with others. On the other hand, people who have a narrow range of emotions available may be repressing, sublimating, compensating for, or trying to control certain positive or negative emotions. Their narrow range of emotions often indicates that they are not well adjusted and do not possess the levels of vari-

ous traits that would enable them to interact normally and successfully with people and with their environment.

We prefer to use the terms *emotionality* and *emotional stability*, which deal with the intensity and volatility of a person’s emotions rather than with a range of their availability. People who are highly emotional (emotionally unstable) experience frequent and rather intense emotional peaks and valleys. They have tendencies to be introspective and self-critical and to have some difficulty coping effectively with their responsibilities and relationships. These tendencies cause self-image and identity problems. Conversely, those who are emotionally stable tend to be above average to high in self-esteem, sense of self-worth, sense of psychological well-being, and self-confidence.

Conflict: Seashore’s conflict dimension ranges on a continuum from “able to generate it” (at one end of the scale) to “moderates it” (in the middle) to “avoids it” (at the other end). People having the greatest tendency to generate conflict are usually very self-centered and not very people-oriented. They are inclined to satisfy their own needs and attain their own goals at other people’s expense. They frequently hurt others’ feelings when they build themselves up by putting others down. People who tend to avoid conflict are usually the most vulnerable and uncertain about themselves. They avoid or withdraw from situations in which they might experience conflict and psychologically painful, ego-diminishing negative feedback. People having the greatest tendency to moderate conflict are well-adjusted and socially mature. Like those who are interdependent and those who are equal in status, they possess a balance between self- and people-oriented traits.

In general, an individual’s levels of Seashore’s interpersonal dimensions are the net result of both personal and nonpersonal influences.

Now do a personal inventory. Mark what or where you think you are on the scale for each dimension.

Initiative: Active _____ Ambivert _____ Passive
 Dependency: Dependent _____ Interdependent _____ Independent
 Self-disclosure: Self-disclosing _____ Non-self-disc
 Expectations: Open _____ Hidden
 Connection: Intimate _____ Distant
 Time contact: Little _____ Long
 Status: One up _____ Equal _____ One down
 Resources: Compet. _____ Collaborative _____ Non-compet.
 Emotional range: All _____ Narrow
 Conflict: Generate _____ Moderate _____ Avoid

“Ego States” and Associated “Life Positions”

Relationships between people involve both verbal and physical interaction. When people interact, they each are “sending transactions” to the other. Eric Berne (1961, 1964), a psychotherapist and the father of transactional analysis, has defined a transaction as either (a) a verbal or physical stimulus (for example, a statement from one person to another) or (b) a verbal or physical response (for example, a reply from the second person to the first). According to Berne, analyzing any transaction can lead one to infer that a particular ego state underlies it. He identified three main ego states: parent, adult, and child. He thought that these terms would help explain complex subconscious phenomena to the average person.

Ego states can be described as learned role patterns, which consist of learned attitudes and behavior concerning oneself, others, and one’s relationships with others. During childhood, we learn what it means to be a child, a parent, and an adult from various role models. Our role models include parents, teachers, coaches, religious figures, other children’s parents, relatives, other adults, siblings, and other children. As children see and hear these various types of role models behaving in certain ways, they record a “script” for each role in memory—as though on a recording tape. Thus, according to Berne, each of us has a “parent tape,” an “adult tape,” and a “child tape.” Which one of the three tapes we “play back” at any given moment depends on the context or circumstances in which we find ourselves and the nature of the stimuli we are experiencing. In other words, we may tend to play one particular tape (behave one way) given one set of conditions and play another tape (behave another way) given another set of conditions.

Thomas A. Harris (1973) translated these ego states into what he called life positions. A life position describes how a person who is operating in a particular ego state views self and others in terms of being “OK” or “not OK.” While being OK can mean different things to different people, it usually means the following to people in general: (a) being knowledgeable, competent, alert, and able to cope successfully; (b) having self-esteem, a strong identity, healthy self-image, and self-confidence; (c) being a good (moral, decent) person; (d) being able to relate well with others; (e) being liked or loved by others; (f) having a desirable reputation (having status, prestige, and others’ trust, respect, and admiration); and (g) having influence (if not control) over one’s life and environment. Being “not OK” means the opposite.

You might already have surmised that our own OK-ness largely revolves around our own ego needs and the level of their satisfaction. You might also have surmised that our attitudes about others’ OK-ness largely revolve

around other people’s behavior toward us and how that behavior affects our ego.

According to Harris, these are the four basic life positions:

I’m OK, you’re not OK	(Parent)
I’m not OK, you’re OK	(Child)
I’m not OK, you’re not OK	(“Hurt child”)
I’m OK, you’re OK.	(Adult – mature)

Parent, child, and adult ego states, several substates, and their associated life positions are depicted on grid frameworks in **Figures 6.2 and 6.3** on page 6-14. The horizontal axis indicates one’s perception of one’s own level of OK-ness. The vertical axis indicates one’s perception of another person’s (or other people’s) level of OK-ness. A particular ego state (or substate) and its associated life position are represented on the grid framework by the intersection of the levels of “own OK-ness” and “others’ OK-ness.” *For example:* The parent state position is where one’s own OK-ness is perceived as being high (I’m OK), while others’ OK-ness is perceived as being low (you’re not OK). These two levels intersect in the bottom right corner.

Both young people and adults should take this opportunity to determine which states or substates they operate in most of the time—and why. They might also do the same with respect to the people closest to them, and then consider the implications for their relationships with others and what they could do to improve them.

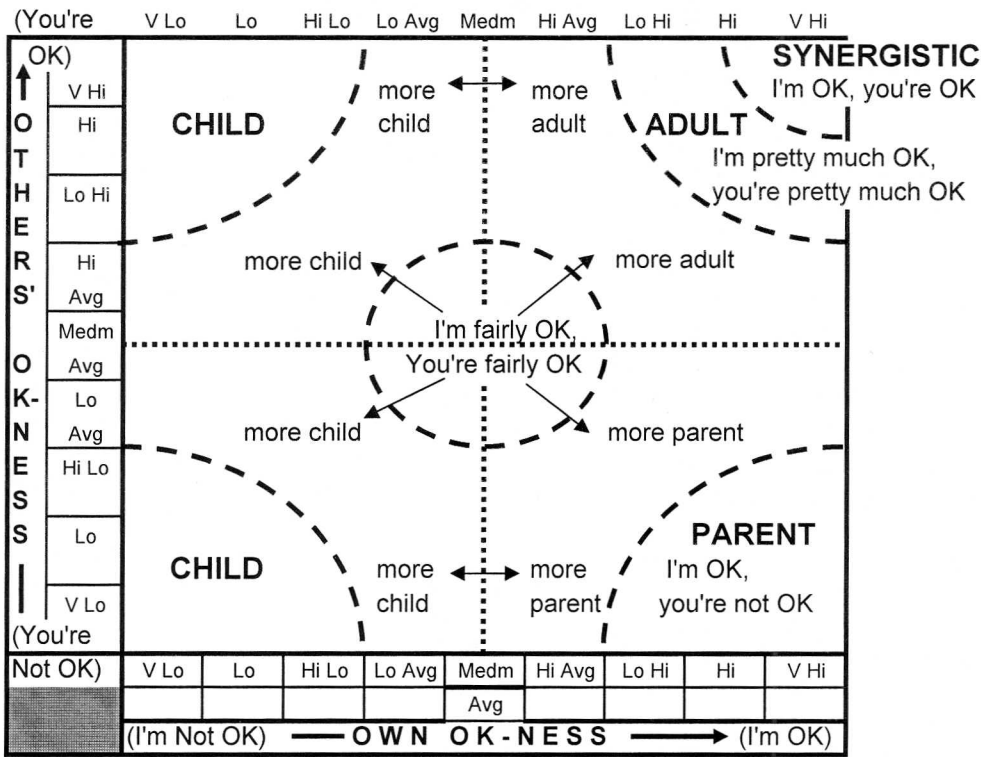
The major ego states and their associated life positions are described in **Table 6.3** on pages 6-16,17. Note that several major ego states are divided into substates. Also note that each is described in terms of (a) the associated life position, (b) the estimated levels of relevant values and personality traits, (c) the estimated levels of Seashore’s interpersonal dimensions, (d) interpersonal style tendencies (which will be discussed later in this chapter), and (e) managerial or leadership style tendencies. The levels of psychological traits and Seashore’s dimensions have been estimated based on the following: (a) the behavior described in the definitions of the ego states and life positions; (b) the behaviors associated with being high or low in values and personality traits (per the definitions and descriptions in the manuals of instruments used to measure those traits); and (c) intercorrelation tables in those instruments’ manuals.

Here are several additional perspectives on ego states and their associated life positions:

Parent ego state: The parent ego state is represented in the “I’m OK, you’re not OK” life position. When people behave according to their parent tape, they are employing learned, value-laden attitudes or behavior patterns. Berne

Figure 6.2: Basic Parent, Adult, Child, and "Synergistic" Ego State Zones

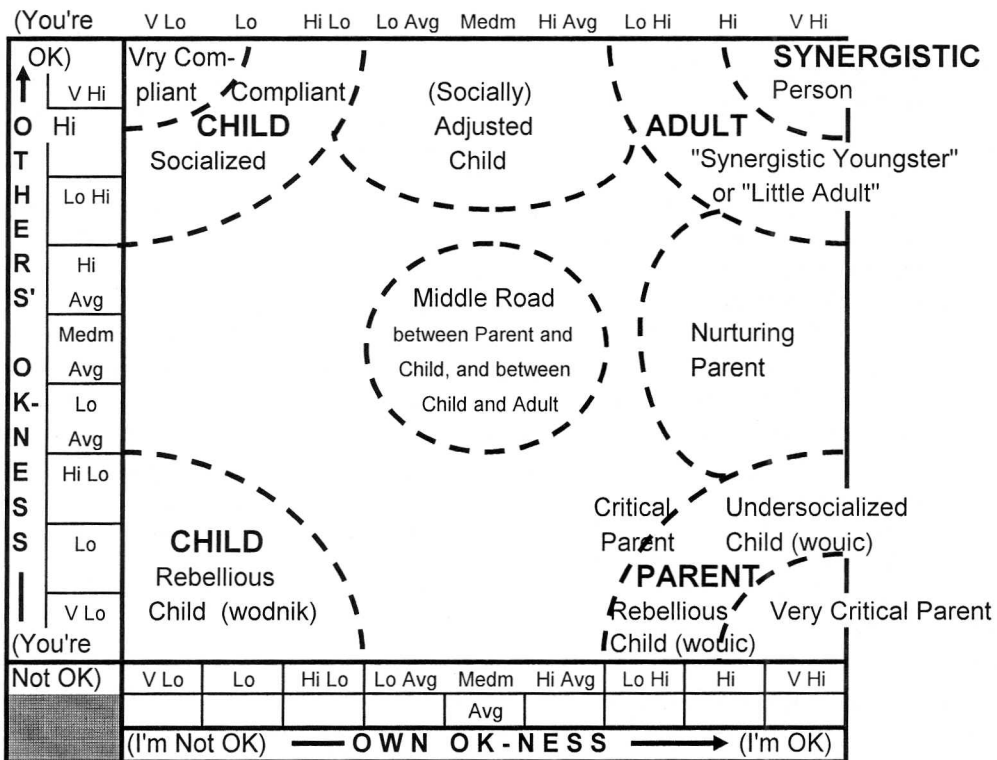
(In terms of own and others' levels of "OK-ness")



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Figure 6.3: Ego States, Their Sub-States, and Their Associated Life Positions

(In terms of own and others' levels of "OK-ness")



wodnic = when "one down" and/or not in control
 wouic = when "one up" and/or in control

and others have identified two parent sub-states: Critical parents “know” what is right and wrong, good and bad, or normal and abnormal. They “know” what people should do and should not do. They lecture, scold, and lay down the law. If they are in a position to threaten, direct, and control others, they do so, normally in an authoritarian manner. In general, they often enhance their own ego at the expense of other people’s egos and feelings. Such behavior makes other people feel not OK. As shown in **Figures 6.2** and **6.3**, and in **Table 6.3**, the critical parent sub-state can be divided into two substates: very critical (autocratic) and critical (authoritarian). Nurturing parents, on the other hand, paternalistically teach, support, and protect. They set limits and provide direction, but are much less inclined to put others down and control them.

Child ego state: As shown in **Figures 6.2-3** and **Table 6.3**, this state can be associated with an “I’m not OK, you’re OK” attitude (life position). Such individuals are easy to spot. When they are getting their own way, they are happy, curious, and imaginative. But when they are not getting their own way and feel frustrated or inadequate, they sulk, whine, throw tantrums, manipulate others, and indulge themselves. Various names for child sub-states have been suggested by Berne (1963, 2004); Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2001); and others: natural child, adapted child, little professor, happy child, destructive/rebellious child, and destructive/compliant child. We prefer to think in terms of these child substates: under-socialized (self-centered) child (who often becomes an authoritarian parent, manager, or leader); compliant child; rebellious child; and socially adjusted child. The different child sub-states are largely functions of the manner in which and the degree to which children have been socialized.

Adult ego state: According to Harris, this involves an “I’m OK, you’re OK” attitude (life position). To us, however, it involves an “I’m pretty much OK, you’re pretty much OK” attitude. You will note in **Figures 6.2-3** and **Table 6.3** (pages 6-16,17) that the adult state has been re-defined and divided into two substates: the adult state and the synergistic state. “I’m OK, you’re OK” is reserved for the synergistic ego state. As discussed later in this chapter, the interpersonal style of people in the adult ego state tends to reflect relatively high self-orientedness and relatively high people-orientedness.

Synergistic ego state: Abe Wagner (1981, 1999) defined the synergistic state as an overlapping P-A-C combination of ego states—a healthy combination of the nurturing parent, the adult, and the adjusted child. When it is appropriate for people with this combination to rely on their value systems to make judgments about their own and others’ behavior, they can let their nurturing parent

state take over. When it is appropriate for them to be rational problem solvers and decision makers, they can let their adult state take over. And when it is appropriate for them to relax, be emotional and spontaneous, and simply have fun, they can let their (adjusted) child state take over. According to Wagner, this combination of substates is functional for several reasons: First, it accounts for the fact that many people tend to operate in different ego states under different sets of circumstances. Second, it is a combination of the most mature and functional substates.

Nevertheless, we believe that synergistic adults normally behave more functionally and consistently than people who shift from one state to another. They can be described as follows: They are highly socialized and highly developed mentally. They purposefully control their ego and strive for self-actualization. Because they understand and like themselves and others, they have healthy, accepting, mature attitudes about themselves, others, and their relationships with others. Their life position is one step beyond that of the adult: “I’m OK, and you’re OK. Even so, neither of us is perfect. But by working together and sharing our knowledge, feelings, attitudes, and skills with each other, we can develop a more satisfying relationship and can both become what we have the potential to become.” Such individuals are socially mature. Their relatively high levels of prosocial values (social and benevolence values) and social conscientiousness are balanced by a relatively high level of adaptability (the ability to think honestly, realistically, and fairly about oneself and others). Like all human beings, they have emotions. But when their emotions might result in physical or emotional harm to others, they are guided by their prosocial inclinations and exercise self-control. When analyzing situations, solving problems, and making decisions involving their own and others’ behavior, they use their mind and take a calm, rational, balanced, and mature approach. Nevertheless, they fully consider their own and others’ needs, values, and feelings when doing so. They take life, themselves, others, and their relationships with others seriously. Even so, they are good-natured and not always so serious that they cannot occasionally relax and enjoy life. Just as they themselves are well socialized, well developed mentally, well adjusted socially, and otherwise well-rounded, they conscientiously develop others (for example, their children and subordinates) in a well-rounded manner. In short, those operating in the synergistic state do not jump around among various ego states. Instead, they behave in a more consistent manner. They are constantly aware of and sensitive to—and always consider and deal with—the rational, value-related, and emotional content of interpersonal situations. Put another way, their attitudes and behavior are governed by their hearts and their heads. As discussed

**Table 6.3: Ego States (Learned Role Patterns)
and Associated Aspects/Dimensions/Traits/Styles**

EGO STATE	PARENT		ADULT
		Evaluative, emotional. Behaves based on learned concepts of good/bad, right/wrong, and normal/abnormal, which sees as "black and white." Emphasizes do's/don'ts and should's/shouldn'ts.	
Sub-States	CRITICAL		NURTURING
	Emotional rather than rational. Evaluative and highly judgmental. Attacks both behavior and personality of others, putting them down and making them feel "not OK." Mind is made up. Is directive and controlling (autocratic/authoritarian).		Emotional, evaluative, but more understanding and caring. Sets limits, provides direction. Does not put people down. Is paternalistic.
	Very Critical	Critical	
Life Position	I'm very OK, you're definitely not OK.	I'm OK, you're not OK.	I'm OK, you're fairly OK
Childhood Ego State Coming From	Rebellious Child or (Very) Under-socialized Child	Undersocialized Child; can be Compliant Child	Mostly Socially Adjusted Child
Own Ego Enhancement	Use mostly negative mechanisms		Uses some negative, some positive
Ego Defense	High use of ego defense mechanisms		Medium use
Significant Traits	<u>Hi to Very Hi</u> <u>Rel. Hi to Hi</u> Self-confidence Dominance Decisiveness <u>Lo to Very Lo</u> <u>Rel. Lo to Lo</u> Social and benevolence values Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Self-control Original thinking	Rel. Hi to Hi Self-confidence Dominance Decisiveness Avg to Hi Avg Social/benev. values Social conscient'ness Adaptability Social maturity Self-control Original thinking	<u>Hi Avg to Rel. Hi</u> Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Original thinking Achievement value Econ. & pol. values Social/benev. values Social conscient'ness Adaptability Social maturity Self-control
Interpersonal Dimensions (in this ego state) (middle range of three ranges)	Active in initiative One up in status Independent Low self-disclosure Hidden expectations Distant in connection Competitive for resources Emotional Generates conflict		Rather active Rather one up Rather independent Fairly disclosing Fairly open Fairly intimate Rather competitive Somewhat emotional Moderates conflict
Interpersonal Style Tendency (in this ego state)	High Self-centeredness Low People-Orientedness	Rel. High Rel. Low	High Self Orientation, Medium People Orientation
Parental Behavior (of adult in this ego state)	Autocratic: highly critical, strict, abusive	Authoritarian critical, somewhat abusive	Paternalistic (Nurturing)
Managerial or Leadership Style Tendency (of adult in this ego state)	Autocratic; Hard X (Very High Task, Very Low People)	Authoritarian; Theory X (Rela'ly Hi Task, Rela'ly Lo People)	Soft X to Mid-Road (Rela'ly High Task, Medium People)

CHILD				SYNERGISTIC
Emotional, irrational; impulsive, spontaneous; dependent.				Mature, functional, well developed and adju- ted persopnality. Good-natured, amiable. Consistently behaves in manner reflecting rationality, worthwhile values, sensitivity, and reasonableness.
UNDERSOCIALIZED	COMPLIANT	REBELLIOUS	ADJUSTED	
Spoiled, self-indulgent; self-centered, selfish. Tends to be irresponsible, manipulative, deceitful, and vengeful.	Dependent/insecure; rather shy; highly socialized and self-controlled. Experiences considerable inner conflict.	Hurt, unhappy; resentful, suspicious, antagonistic, aggressive; low self-control. Can be vengeful.	Happy; adaptive; (inter)dependent; socially adjusted and affiliative; fairly self-controlled; enjoys people and life	
I'm OK. You are how you treat me.	You're OK, I'm not OK (am I ?).	I'm not OK, you're not OK.	I'm fairly OK, you're OK.	I'm OK, you're OK.
				Synergistic Youngster
Mostly negative	Attempts positive, uses some neg.	Almost entirely negative	Some positive, some negative	Mostly positive
High use	High use	High use	Medium use	Some (benign) use
<u>Low Ranges</u> Social/benev. values Conformity Soc'l conscient'ness Adaptability Social maturity Responsibility Self-control Original thinking	<u>Low Ranges</u> Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Econ./pol. values <u>Rel. Hi to Very Hi</u> Dependence Need for support Conformity Social/benev. values Soc'l conscient'ness Self-control	Low ranges Conformity Benevolence Self-confidence Soc'l conscient'ness Responsibility Adaptability Social maturity Emotional stability Self-control	<u>Rel. Hi to Very Hi</u> Sociability <u>Hi Avg to Hi</u> Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Benevolence Soc'l conscient'ness Adaptability Social maturity Emotional stability Self-control	<u>Rel. Hi to Hi</u> Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Soc'l conscient'ness Benevolence Responsibility Adaptability Social maturity Original thinking Emotional stability Self-control
Active Up; some down Wants independence Low disclosure Hidden expectations Feigns intimacy Competitive Emotional Generates conflict	Passive One down status Dependent Rel. low disclosure Rather hidden Rather distant Non-competitive Emotional Avoids conflict	(Mostly) passive Hi need for status Wants independence Low disclosure Hidden expectations Distant Can be competitive Emotional Generates conflict	Active Fairly equal status Interdependent Rather disclosing Rather open Intimate Rather collab. Emotional Avoids conflict	Active Equal status Interdependent Self-disclosing Open expectations Intimate Collaborative Emotionally stable Moderates conflict
High Self-Centeredness, Low People-Orientedness	Low Self Orientation, High People Orientation	Inconsistent: Hi Self, Lo People when can; otherwise Lo Self, Lo People	Medium Self Orientation, High People Orientation	High Self Orientation, High People Orientation
Tends to be Critical Parent, but can be Permissive under certain circumstances	Critical Parent (many fathers) or Permissive (many mothers)	Tends to be Autocratic Parent, but can be Non-Parent in some situations	Nurturing Parent (many fathers) or Permissive (many mothers)	Synergistic (mental and social developer)
Depends: tends to be Theory X when feels "more OK" and dominant; otherwise is somewhat Permissive	Depends: Tends to be permissive (LT,HP), but can be "X" when feels "more OK" and is in dominant role	Depends: autocrat or authoritarian when in a dominant position, but Non-manager when not	Paternalistic when in dominant position; somewhat Permissive when not	Synergistic (High Task Orientation, High People Orientation)

later in the chapter, people who have a healthy, mature, well-rounded personality also have an interpersonal style that reflects “high self-orientedness, high people-orientedness.”

Behavior of Additional Types of People

In our opinion, much more interpersonal awareness and understanding can be gained by looking at individuals as systems of specific characteristics than by generalizing about them and looking at them as “types of people.” Nevertheless, we must acknowledge that there are identifiable patterns of behavior involving certain combinations of levels of drives, values, and personality traits.

Largely because it is easier for many people to think about themselves and others in simple, general terms instead of more specific terms, a number of psychologists have grouped people having certain combinations of personal characteristics into broad categories. Very often, these typologies (a) look at the same traits or combinations of traits from different perspectives; (b) emphasize certain traits or groupings of traits; and/or (c) focus on the contexts in which people are behaving and interacting.

As you read about the various types of people described below, you might try to determine whether your trait levels put you (a) in the area of one particular type, (b) closer to one type than another, or (c) somewhere between two or more types. You might also consider whether or not the people with whom you have the most contact are more one type than another. If you can generalize, what might the implications be for your relationships with them?

Mok’s Typology

Based on the personality theories of Carl Jung and the Transaction Analysis theories of Eric Berne, Paul Mok described these four types of people: (a) sensors; (b) feelers; (c) thinkers; and (d) intuitors. Think about which one, if any, you resemble.

Sensors: Also called “doers” by others, Mok described Sensors in the following terms: active, spirited, and action-oriented; practical and results-oriented; impulsive and reactive; “now-oriented”; and hurried. They are always busy, move and act quickly, like to get to the point, can be abrupt, and write in brief terms that convey a sense of urgency. Being action-oriented, impulsive, and reactive, and seldom worrying about the past or thinking about the future, they prefer not to sit around thinking and planning. As a result, they give situations little thought, pay little attention to facts and details, allay their own and others’ doubts

or anxieties by taking action, and often become impatient with thinkers and planners. Sensors enjoy the thrill of a challenge, but prefer a quick pay-off. They give and demand total loyalty, but tend to blame others for their own mistakes. Under stress, they tend to become domineering and arrogant. Their surroundings are usually disorganized and cluttered.

Mok estimated that about 40% of Americans are sensors—especially executives, athletes, and salespersons.

Feelers: Also called “emoters,” “affiliators,” “relaters,” and “socializers” by others, Mok described feelers as follows: emotional, excitable, and spontaneous; warm and friendly; interpersonally sensitive, perceptive, empathetic, and sympathetic; introspective; self-indulgent; and both trusting and trustworthy. Feelers love people and relationships with people. Also loving adventure and shunning boredom, they are constantly seeking or trying something new. They base their decisions primarily on their feelings and are oriented to the past. They prefer warm, informal, personalized surroundings and are warm, friendly, and humorous in their spoken and written communications. Being good listeners, Feelers are frequently asked to help solve others’ emotional or interpersonal problems. However, to other types of people, they can often seem impulsive, erratic, and cavalier. When under stress, their impulsiveness, sentimentality, and feelings of guilt can become more apparent.

Mok estimated that about 25 percent of Americans fit this description. Among them, he says, are those in the fields of nursing, psychology, social work, acting, sales, and writing.

Thinkers: Mok described thinkers as being the following: astute, logical, and analytic; objective, cool, composed, and business-like; numbers-oriented; cautious and conservative; organized and systematic; and deliberate, thorough, and accurate. According to Mok, Thinkers prefer to seek facts and think things out, so they seldom leap to conclusions or make snap decisions. Because they consider the past, present, and future, they also have a sense of direction and plan well. Thinkers write in an organized, specific manner and like tidy, functional surroundings. On the negative side, they can get bogged down in details and can be rigid and dogmatic once they have arrived at a conclusion. In addition, they can have rather dull personalities and can lack the spark to motivate and mobilize people.

Mok and others have estimated that about 25% of the American population are the type whose occupations require painstaking research and accuracy—the engineers, accountants, lawyers, data processing specialists, teachers, and professors.

Intuitors: Mok's "intuitors" have also been called "conceptualizers." He described them as follows: intellectual and theoretical/conceptual; imaginative, creative, and innovative; solution-oriented; aloof and impersonal; and future-oriented. They enjoy structuring knowledge and relating information and ideas. They like to think and plan and are confident of their abilities to understand problems and find solutions. Unlike thinkers, who think about the practical applications of ideas, they are more interested in the "big picture" or overall concepts and principles, and are usually bored by technical details and everyday events. Intuitors like futuristic surroundings and are inclined to speak and write in a wordy and abstract manner. Impractical, rigid, uncompromising, erratic, and unpredictable, they become very impatient with people who do not see and appreciate the value of their ideas.

Mok estimated that about 10% of Americans fit this description—especially scientists, inventors, researchers, architects, planners, and some artists and writers.

The "A" and "B" Typology

A second typology was originated in about 1959 by Drs. Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman³¹ of Mount Zion's Harold Brunn Institute. In researching the causes of heart attacks, the two cardiologists wondered whether or not people's personalities might be involved. By comparing personality trait data with the levels of risk involved in suffering heart attacks, they concluded that personality traits can be significant causes. They called people whose personalities put them at the highest risk "Type A," and those whose personalities put them at the lowest risk "Type B."

Type A" Personalities: Friedman and Rosenman described "classic Type A" individuals as being habitually impatient and continually under stress. Because they have an urgent feeling that there is not enough time for them to do all they feel they must do, they display characteristic "hurry sickness" and "free-floating hostility." Highly responsible and serious, Type A people are engaged in many activities. They move briskly, eat rapidly, and speak hurriedly and excitedly. They will hurry others to make their point and will even finish their sentences. It is common for them to work past closing time or take work home. Their bodies always seem tense—never relaxed. They are usually obsessed with numbers that indicate how well they are performing. In addition, they tend to vent hostility on others, verbally abusing them in the process. According to the two doctors, these behavior patterns are outward indicators of inner conflicts and emotional turmoil.

Others have described Type A personalities as being hard-charging, intense, time-obsessed, restlessly impulsive, aggressive, hypertensive, excessively ambitious, overcommitted, out of control, careless, in a panic, and always on the defensive. They talk faster and louder than most people, tend to be workaholics, and take little time to think and plan.

Friedman and Rosenman very often found classic Type As among trial lawyers, salespersons, TV performers, auto racers, and newspaper reporters. They acknowledged, however, that Type As can be found in all occupations.

"Type B" Personalities: Drs. Friedman and Rosenman described Type B individuals as being just the opposite: relaxed and unflappable. This does not mean, they said, that Type Bs are incapable of hard work, achievement, and advancing to high positions. In fact, they found that Type Bs often make better executives because they do not rush decisions, make snap judgments, or antagonize their subordinates. They know their capabilities and limitations, whereas Type As do not—and don't wish to.

The doctors found more Type B personalities among patent attorneys, government clerks, and accountants.

Type C" Personalities: Since the time when Drs. Friedman and Rosenman identified Types A and B, psychologist Robert Kriegel identified another type of people. According to him, these people actually thrive on challenges, pressures, risks, and being on edge. They do so, he says, because they are more self-confident, committed, enthusiastic, and in control. These "Type C" individuals have found what he calls the "C Zone," where they feel great about what they are doing and can stay on top of everything.

The Myers-Briggs Typology

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a psychological measurement questionnaire developed by Katharine Briggs and her daughter, Isabel Briggs Myers (1962). It is based on the typological theory developed by Swiss psychologist Carl G. Jung. Jung believed that people differ in terms of six "processes": Extroversion (E); Introversion (I); Sensing (S); Intuition (N); Thinking (T); and Feeling (F).

Extroversion (E) / Introversion (I): As discussed earlier, extroversion and introversion are at two ends of a continuum. At one end are extroverts—people who are more inclined to focus internally on thoughts concerning concepts and ideas. At the other end are introverts, who are more inclined to be outgoing and to interact readily with people, objects, and activities in their environment.

Part 2

The Initiation, Development, and Maintenance Phases of Relationships

Sensing (S) / Intuition (N): Sensing and intuition are at the ends of a spectrum that measures how people take in information and then use it to make decisions. At one end are sensors, who gather information using their five senses. They tend to be observant, objective, practical, and realistic. At the other end are intuitors, who see possibilities, meanings, and relationships. They value imagination and innovation—and tend to be theoretical.

Thinking (T) / Feeling (F): These are at the ends of a spectrum that measures how people make decisions using information. At one end are people who prefer to think—who make decisions by analyzing data and considering causes and effects. At the other end are those who rely on their feelings, trust their interpersonal relationships, and make decisions based on more subjective considerations (such as how a decision will affect other people).

Judging (J) / Perceiving (P): In 1917, Katharine Briggs and her daughter, Isabel Briggs Myers, identified a fourth dimension or continuum. At one end are people who prefer judging and tend to live in an orderly and planned manner. They manage their time and are systematic and decisive. At the other end are those who prefer perceiving and tend to be open and adaptive. They will keep planning and organization to a minimum so that they can get more data, identify more options, and more easily adapt to changing circumstances.

The MBTI Manual describes sixteen possible combinations of the four basic processes. Even though the Myers-Briggs is popular in certain circles, we do not discuss the combinations for several reasons: First, we believe that, like other generalized typologies, the Jungian typology is based too heavily on just one concept of personality, introversion-extroversion. Second, Myers-Briggs and the other typologies mentioned above describe broad, somewhat simplistic, and rather easily remembered types of people. On the other hand, while we and others do often generalize about people's traits and behavior, we always attempt to encourage and help people (a) think in terms of specific traits, and (b) understand that behavior is not just a matter of a few broad types, and not only a function of drives, ego states, life positions, values, personality traits, or mental capabilities. It is a net effect of all of these and other elements interacting with and upon each other as an extraordinarily complex system operating within a very complex environment. Therefore, we leave it to readers to research the above general typologies further if they wish..

The next four Parts deal with these aspects of interpersonal behavior: the formation, development, and maintenance of relationships; interpersonal styles; behavior in social groups; and interpersonal conflicts.

An interpersonal relationship can be defined as a “short- to long-term pattern of interactions between individuals.” The natures of people's relationships differ, largely because their motives for forming relationships differ, their levels of interpersonal skills and attitudinal traits differ, and the circumstances surrounding their relationships differ.

Relationships may pass through several phases:

1. approach and initial interaction phase;
2. relationship formation or development phase; and
3. relationship maintenance phase.

Many relationships, however, do not pass through all three phases. Some never get beyond the approach and initial interaction stage. Some never fully develop. And some, even though they do become more fully developed, are not maintained over time.

The Approach and Initial Interaction Phase

Individuals make first contact and have initial interactions for many possible reasons. These initial interactions open the door for subsequent interactions to occur. This does not necessarily mean that they will occur, or, even if they do, that a more lasting relationship will develop. Whether a relationship lasts largely depends on personal traits and environmental factors.

Types of Approachers and Their Interpersonal Dimensions and Specific Traits

Table 6.4 (split onto pages 6-22 and 6-24) indicates the “types” of approachers that we have identified and given names. It also describes them in terms of their behavior, motivations, and specific traits. As you read, ask yourself if you are closer to a certain type than the others. Also, do any of the people with whom you have contact stand out as being a particular type?

Type 1: Self-centered, Utilitarian, “Success-Oriented”

Because of the specific traits listed in the table, these people approach others in order to establish relationships that will enable them to enhance their own power, au-

thority, or influence and their own economic (material or financial) success. Obtaining these traditional indicators of success gives them status and makes them feel as though they are “OK people.” Even though they are highly self-confident with respect to their jobs and social relationships, they are still rather insecure. To reinforce and enhance their egos (to be OK), they tend to use the “self-superiorizing” measures that put others down and put themselves up (e.g., domination, manipulation, intimidation, the use of double standards, etc.). (In Seashore’s terms, these people want to be “one up” in status.) They also use ego-defense mechanisms to a great extent. Being relatively low in social maturity, they compete for power, economic success, and self-gratification at other people’s expense. In short, these individuals tend to be “people users,” and approach others in order to establish relationships that will build up their own egos and serve their own ends.

In general, these individuals are most often found in executive and leadership positions, sales, the legal profession, and politics.

Type 2: Self-Oriented, Highly Achievement-Oriented

While Type 1 individuals’ egos focus on traditional, success-oriented values (the economic and political values), Type 2 individuals’ egos focus on concerns for achievement and recognition. They strive to do something better than it has ever been done before—not for the sake of money or power, but for the sake of their own sense of competence and achievement and for the sake of others’ admiration, respect, and recognition. They approach and get interpersonally involved with others in order to get done what they must to achieve their own goals. Even so, they are not Type 1 “people users.” Although it sometimes seems that they do not especially like people, they do. In fact, they will treat other people fairly well—when they take the time to relate with them.

Such people can be found in all occupations. Those who are very intelligent, well-educated, thought-oriented, and creative or innovative are often found in fields such as psychology, social science, philosophy, science, and technology. Those who are more artistically gifted can be found in art, music, and dance. These people can tend to be more introverted than extroverted—largely because they may receive more personal satisfaction from their occupational pursuits than from interpersonal relationships. In other words, they are less interested in people than in their own personal achievement. Athletes, on the other hand, can also be high achievers; but they generally tend to be more sociable than the thought-oriented, creative individuals.

Type 3: Rather Self-Oriented, But Paternalistic

These approachers are not as cold-hearted, selfish, and utilitarian as Type 1s. They tend to be slightly lower (relatively high to high) in self-confidence, dominance, and the economic and political values, while being higher (low average to high average) in social maturity (and related traits such as the social and benevolence values, social conscientiousness, and self-control). These individuals can be found in all occupations.

Type 4: (a): Self-Centered, Self-Indulgent

(b): Self-Centered, Insecure (Undersocialized)

When these people can feel more OK than (superior to) others, and/or when they can exercise power or authority over others, they tend to be self-centered and self-indulgent. Having an insecure ego and being relatively low in self-control and social maturity, they will selfishly seek personal gratification or pleasure at other people’s expense. They approach others in order to use them and get what they want (as do Type 1 approachers).

On the other hand, when those coming from the undersocialized child state cannot feel more OK than others, and/or when they cannot exercise power or authority over others, they tend to become Type 4(b). They will use what seems to be more people-oriented, submissive behavior as a smoke screen—while they actually manipulate others in order to get what they want.

Behaviorally, the big difference between 4(a)s and 4(b)s is basically tactical. In other words, when they are “one up,” they use their position, authority, or influence selfishly; but when they are “one down,” they use manipulative tactics selfishly.

Type 5: (a): Self-Centered, Insecure (Rebellious)

(b): Self-centered Passive-Resistant (Difficult)

When these individuals feel more OK than other people, and/or when they are in a position to exercise power or authority over others, they tend to be Type 5(a). The “a”s approach others for the following reasons: (a) to establish relationships in which they can use ego enhancement and defense mechanisms to get “one up” on others; and/or (b) to use their power or authority to dominate, successfully rebel against, or get even with others.

On the other hand, when others are dominating or controlling them and putting them down, they feel defeated, hurt, resentful, and antagonistic, and tend to become Type 5(b). If they can do nothing to alter the situation, they may resist by being passive and uncooperative. If they are angry

Table 6.4: Traits, Dimensions, and Ego States Involved in Approaching Others and in Developing and Maintaining Relationships (continued on page 6-24)

A P P R O A C H - - - - - ▶

Types of Approachers, Their Primary Ego States and Significant Trait Levels

Percentile Range:	1-4	5-11	12-23	24-40	41-60	61-77	78-89	90-96	97+
Range Name:	V Lo	Lo	Hi Lo	Lo Avg.	Avg.	Hi Avg.	Lo Hi	Hi	V Hi

Type 1: Self-Centered, Utilitarian, "Success-Oriented" [Critical Parent]									
Economic value	Low							High	
Political value	Low							High	
Self-confidence	Low							High	
Dominance	Low							High (1 Up Status)	
Resources	Collaborative							Competitive	
Social maturity	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 2: Self-Oriented, Highly Achievement-Oriented [Part Adult, Part Critical Parent]									
Achievement value	Low							High	
Recognition (need)	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 3: Rather Self-Oriented, But Paternalistic [Nurturing Parent]									
Self-confidence	Low							High	
Dominance	Low							High (1 Up Status)	
Social maturity	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 4: (a) Self-Centered, Self-Indulgent [Undersocialized Child (when can feel superior, dominate)]									
(b) Self-Centered, Insecure [Undersocialized Child (when cannot feel superior, dominate)]									
Ego needs	Satisfied							Unsatisfied	
Social maturity	Low							High	
Self-control	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 5: (a) Self-Centered, Insecure [Rebellious Child (when can dominate, feel superior)]									
(b) Passive/Resistant, Difficult [Rebellious Child (when cannot dominate, feel superior)]									
Ego needs	Satisfied							Unsatisfied	
Self-confidence	Low							High	
Social maturity	Low							High	
Self-control	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 6: People-Oriented, Selfless, Insecure [Compliant Child]									
Self-confidence	Low							High	
Self-assertiveness	Low							High	
Dependence	Low							High	
Support (need)	Low							High	
Social value	Low							High	
Benevolence	Low							High	
Soc'l conscien'nss	Low							High	
Self-control	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 7: Relationship-Oriented (Reciprocal) [(Socially) Adjusted Child]									
Social needs	Low							High	
Dependency	Low							High	
Sociability	Introvert							Extrovert	
Social maturity	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 8: "Balanced" Orientations -- Medium/Average Self- and People-Orientedness [Middle Road]									
Sociability	Low							High	
Social maturity	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 9: "Balanced" Orientations -- Above Average Self- and People-Orientedness [Adult]									
Self-confidence	Low							High	
Social maturity	Low							High	
<hr/>									
Type 10: "Balanced" Orientations -- Highly Self- and People-Oriented [Synergistic]									
(See levels of traits on facing page.)									
<hr/>									
Type 11: Non-Approacher (Highly Introverted) ["Childlike"]									
Self-confidence	Low							High	
Sociability	Low							High	

and resentful enough, they may openly and aggressively rebel against domination or control. Either way, they generally avoid interaction—especially with those against whom they are rebelling. Occasionally, however, they will approach those whom they think they might be able to enlist as allies in their rebellion.

Such individuals can be found in most all occupations.

Type 6: People-Oriented, Selfless, Insecure

The opposite of Type 1, these individuals are relatively high to very high in social needs, dependence, the need for support, the social value (love of and concern for people), benevolence, social conscientious, and self-control. On the other hand, they tend to be relatively low to very low in the sense of self-worth, the sense of psychological well-being, self-confidence, and self-assertiveness. Although some can be ambiverts if not extroverts, many if not most are introverts (are in the lower percentile ranges in sociability).

Type 6s tend to love all humanity. But, because of their dependency and insecurity, they can have difficulty becoming closely or intimately involved with more than one or two individuals. As a result, they generally approach others not so much to establish close relationships with them, but to help them and to be kind and benevolent toward them. Especially in larger groups of people, they tend to be stand-offish. Even so, they yearn for others' attention, support, understanding, acceptance, and approval. As a result, they strive to generate positive feedback from others in order to feel that they themselves are OK. Thus, they do approach others—but rather cautiously. They want to make sure that people like them and will give them positive rather than negative feedback.

Type 6s are generally found in social service occupations. Among them are many nurses and social workers and a number of ministers, priests, rabbis, and nuns. Type 6s are also likely to be those who are dominated by someone in authority over them (e.g., a boss, spouse, or parent).

Type 7: Relationship-Oriented (Reciprocal)

These individuals are relatively high to very high in social needs and in sociability (social extroversion). They are also average or high average in (social) self-confidence and (inter)dependence. In addition, they are high average to high in social maturity, and tend to give and take in interpersonal relationships.

As a result of these trait levels, Type 7s have experienced considerably more positive than negative feedback in most of their interpersonal relationships. Over time,

therefore, they have come to *expect* more positive than negative feedback. Thus, they approach people easily and confidently.

These people are most likely to be found in occupations that emphasize direct interpersonal contact (e.g., personal selling, public relations, and customer relations).

Type 8: “Balanced” Orientations – Medium/Average Self- and People-Orientedness

These individuals are neither self-centered nor selfless. They are “about average” (low average to high average) in self-oriented traits such as the political, economic, and achievement values. They are also medium or average in people-oriented traits such as the social and benevolence values, social conscientiousness, and social maturity. In other words, their (average) self-centered, selfish tendencies are balanced by (average) social motives. They are not especially extroverted, nor are they especially introverted. Instead, they are about average in sociability—i.e., they are “ambiverts,” who can be slightly more extroverted in some situations and slightly more introverted in others.

Such individuals approach others for a variety of reasons: (a) to gain adequate economic success and some control over their lives; (b) to form satisfying relationships with others; and (c) to develop a decent self-image and reputation. Being medium or average in social maturity, they satisfy their own desires at other people's expense to a much smaller degree than Type 1 individuals.

In short, Type 8s are middle-road in their interpersonal relations. Unlike other types of people, who represent a smaller percentage of the population, these people constitute the greater majority.

They can be found in all occupations.

Type 9: “Balanced” Orientations – Above Average Self- and People-Orientedness

These individuals are either high average or relatively high in self-oriented values and personality traits, while being either relatively high or high average in people-oriented values and personality traits. Thus, their levels of self- and people-oriented motives and personality tendencies are more or less balanced at a slightly higher level than those of Type 8 individuals. In addition, their overall levels of self- and people-orientedness are slightly higher, because their levels of interpersonal skills, original thinking, and social maturity are slightly higher.

These people approach others for basically the same reasons as Type 8s. Given their slightly higher social ma-

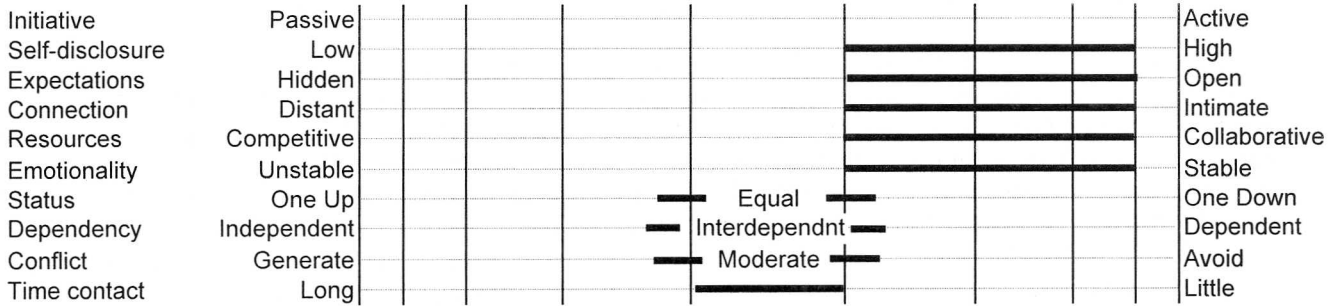
Table 6.4 (continued from page 6-22)

DEVELOPMENT -----> MAINTENANCE

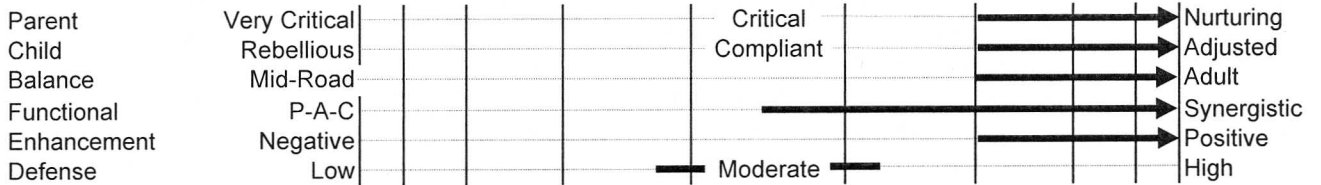
Importance of functional levels of traits increases (Functional levels indicated by thicker lines.)

Percentile Range:	1-4	5-11	12-23	24-40	41-60	61-77	78-89	90-96	97+
Range Name:	V Lo	Lo	Hi Lo	Lo Avg.	Avg.	Hi Avg.	Lo Hi	Hi	V Hi

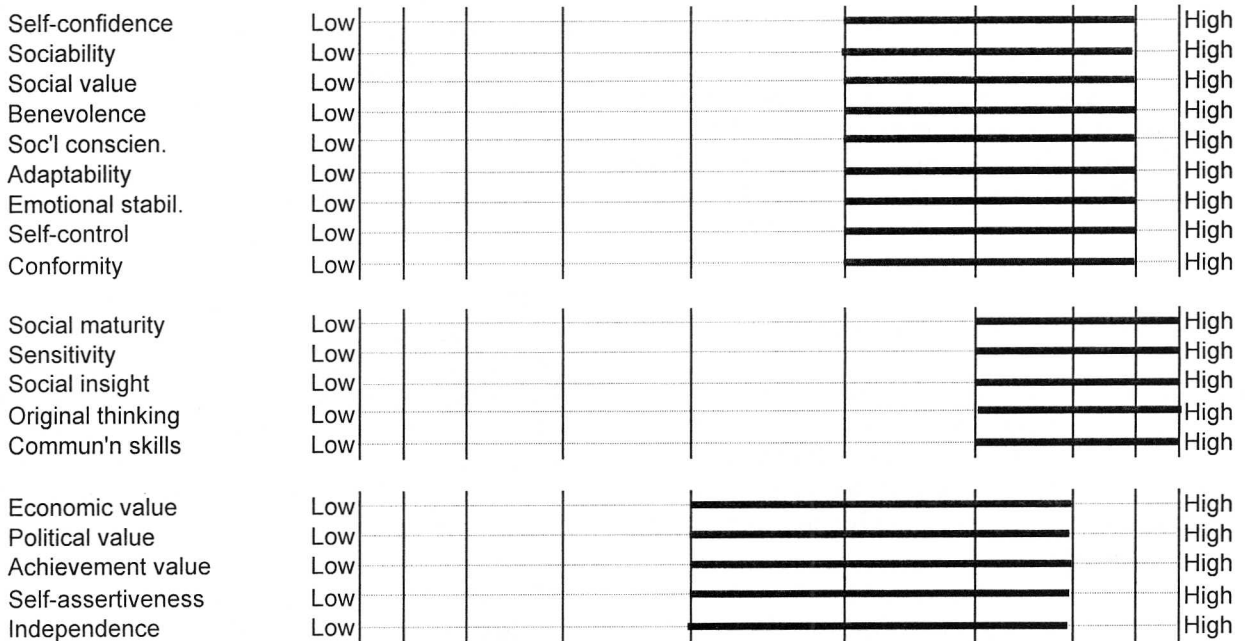
Seashore's Key Dimensions



Ego State Mechanisms



Specific Personal Characteristics



turity and interpersonal skills, however, they are less likely than Type 8 individuals to satisfy their own needs and desires at other people's expense.

Type 9s can be found in all occupations.

Type 10: "Balanced" Orientations – Highly Self- and People-Oriented

These individuals are neither highly self-centered nor highly selfless. As we will discuss further in Section 2, they possess the highest possible balance between (a) self-oriented traits such as the economic, political, and achievement values, self-confidence, and self-assertiveness; and (b) people-oriented traits such as the social and benevolence values, sociability, social conscientiousness, social maturity, and self-control. Perhaps the biggest difference between them and Type 8 people is that they are even higher in interpersonal skills such as social insight, interpersonal sensitivity, and communicative skills. Indeed, they are the most mentally, emotionally, and socially mature of all types of people. In our view, such people operate in the synergistic ego state. Their attitude is, "I'm Ok, you're OK."

These individuals approach other people for mature reasons: (a) to gain a reasonable degree of economic success and to have influence over their own lives; (b) to form satisfying relationships with others (for the sakes of both parties equally); and (c) to develop a healthy, mature self-image, identity, and reputation. Being mature, they are not inclined to do any of the above at other people's expense.

Type 11: Non-Approacher (Highly Introverted)

Although these individuals often tend to be rather highly socialized and compliant (like Type 6s), they are exceptionally low in traits such as self-confidence, the sense of self-worth, the sense of psychological well-being, self-assertiveness, independence, and sociability. (The levels of various other self- and people-related values and personality traits may range from high to low.) These trait levels reflect deep insecurity and a yearning for support, understanding, acceptance, approval, and positive feedback. In effect, they live in a state of helplessness and near hopelessness

Such people have experienced considerable psychological hurt and much more negative than positive feedback in their interactions and relationships. Having come to expect negative feedback, therefore, they tend to avoid and withdraw from interpersonal situations—especially those involving groups of people..

Nonetheless, given their great need for attention, acceptance, and approval, they occasionally approach others on a one-to-one basis—but do so very cautiously. They often go from one person to another trying to find someone who will like them and can be trusted not to hurt or take advantage of them.

These individuals can be found in all occupations except those involving frequent and direct social contact.

As shown on page 6-23 of **Table 6.4**, each type of approacher follows a somewhat different pattern with respect to developing and maintaining relationships. Some—such as Types 1 and 2—are more inclined to form and maintain rather superficial acquaintances. Others—such as Types 7 through 10—are more inclined to develop and maintain deep, close, mature relationships. Also, some—such as Types 7 through 10—are better than others at developing and maintaining relationships.

"Interaction Apparel" Worn by Approachers

Especially during first interactions between two strangers, both individuals are consciously or unconsciously trying to protect (and probably to enhance) their ego to some extent. They are wearing the apparel initially illustrated in **Figure 6.1** on page 6-9.

In **Figures 6.4** and **6.5** on pages 6-26 and 6-27, both John and Mary are wearing armor, and both are carrying a shield in the left hand. The armor and shield represent *defense mechanisms*, which they can use to defend their ego, identity, self-image, and reputation against negative interactions or strokes (negative feedback). As mentioned earlier, the shield represents their first line of defense: suppression, denial, and projection mechanisms. Their armor represents fall-back defense mechanisms for dealing with ego-threatening stimuli when they are forced to accept responsibility for a wrong, a mistake, or a problem. Those mechanisms include rationalization, compensation, sublimation, repression, fantasy, regression, identification, aggression, and undoing.

Both individuals are also equipped with measures that can be used to enhance or reinforce their ego, identity, or self-image. The negative or dysfunctional measures include: identifying; criticizing, ridiculing, and blaming; dominating and intimidating; creating dependency; manipulating and using; unfairly outcompeting others; engaging in one-upsmanship; applying double standards; and hurting others. The more functional measures for enhancing ego include: personal development; association; creative or innovative self-expression; problem solving; striving to achieve or succeed; and behaving maturely.

Figure 6.4: Scenario 1 (John and Mary)

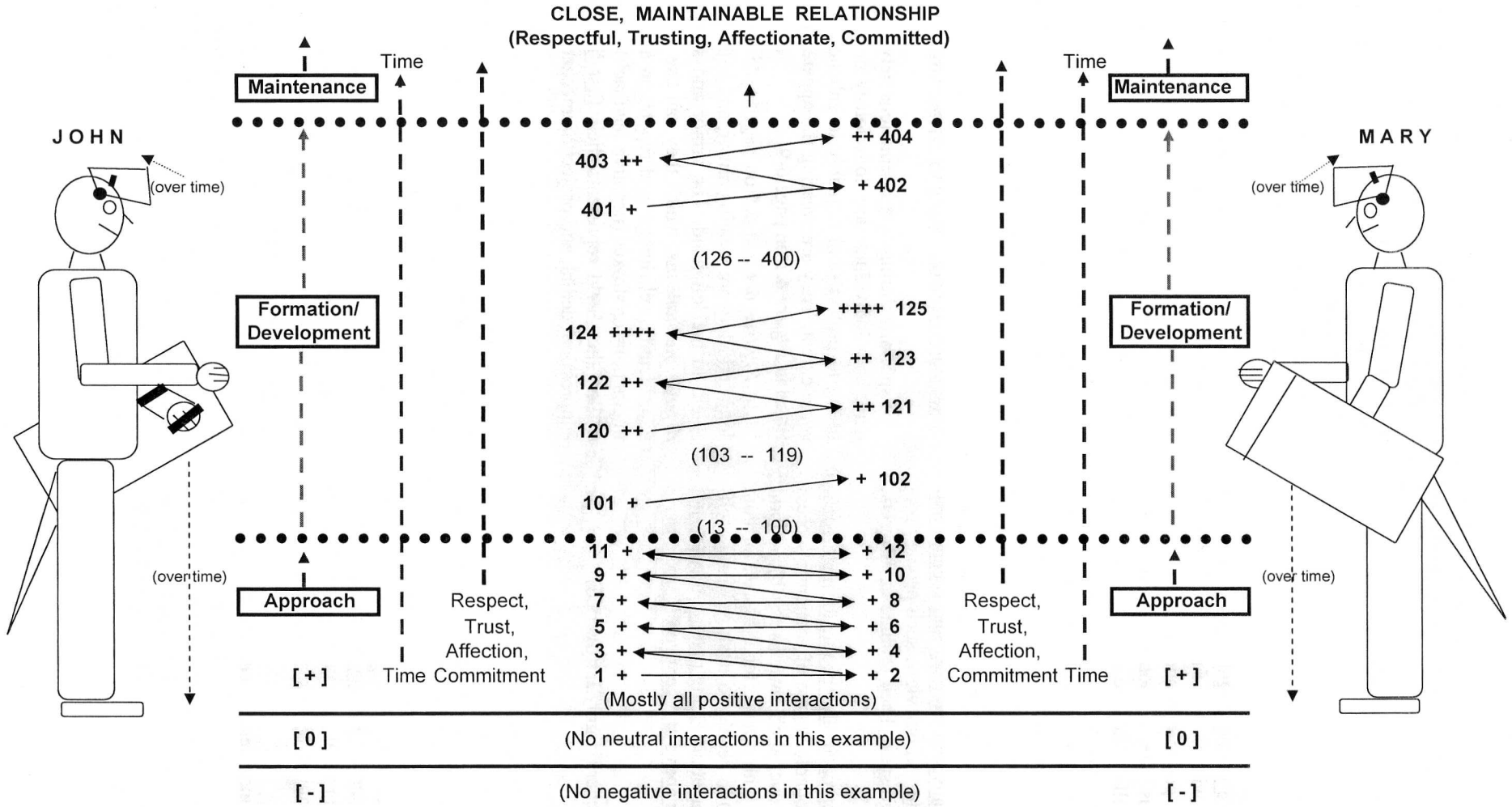
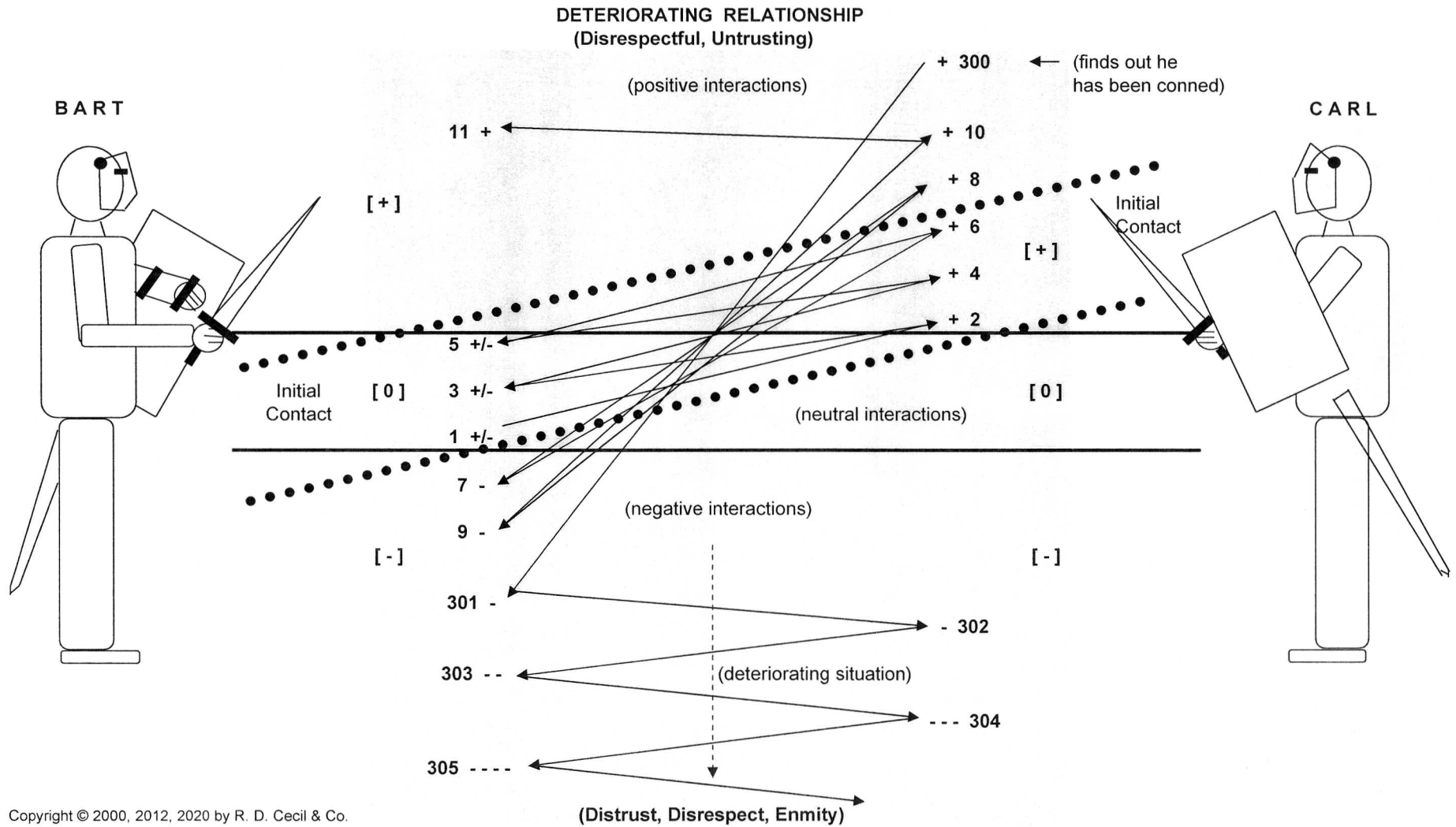


Figure 6.5: Scenario 2 (Bart and Carl)



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The two individuals are also wearing masks, which are both protective and projective devices. The masks protect their ego by hiding who they really are down deep inside from the other person—at least until the other person has proven that he or she can be trusted. They also help project what they want the other person to see or what they think the other person wants to see in them. People use their masks as projective devices to elicit positive, ego-enhancing or ego-reinforcing feedback (positive interactions or strokes) from others.

In addition, both people are carrying swords. The swords represent the things that each can do to hurt the other, especially if the other hurts them first. The things that hurt others—such as being criticized, blamed, or ridiculed—are listed in **Table 6.2** on page 6-8. A sword can be sheathed in the scabbard at one's side, leaving the right hand free to give the other person positive strokes, or it can be drawn and wielded with the right hand to deliver negative (hurtful) strokes.

Figure 6.4 shows that, as a relationship begins to develop (in this case between John and Mary), the masks are slowly raised. One person raises his or her mask slightly to expose what he or she thinks or feels and looks for the other person's response. If the other responds by raising his or her mask slightly and exposing something about his or her self, the upward-ratcheting effect has begun. The exchange of positive, reassuring responses can go back and forth until each person sufficiently trusts the other with his or her ego and both masks are eventually removed.

On the other hand, as shown in **Figure 6.5**, when negative feedback occurs during this process, it can stop or even reverse the back-and-forth behavior-response scenario. Once negative strokes begin to occur, they may quickly escalate. Let us say, for example, that Bart gives Carl a slight poke with his sword (or some other negative stroke). Once hurt, Carl might respond with, "Ok, you took a poke at me, so now I'm going to meet your response and raise you one"—and deliver two pokes. Bart, now hurt and becoming angry, in effect says, "Well, if that's how you feel about it, you get three harder pokes!" And the deteriorating exchange of negative strokes shown at the bottom of **Figure 6.5** heats up.

Relationship Formation or Development Phase

Two basic types of relationships can form or develop during this phase: acquaintances and close relationships. We associate the word *form* with acquaintances. Acquaintances are relatively superficial and distant relationships that simply form without any real effort on either person's part. On the other hand, the word *develop* is

associated with close relationships. Close relationships are deeper. They develop as both persons experience increasing trust and intimacy and put forth some effort to become closer. Of course, relationships that begin as superficial acquaintances can develop, become closer, deepen, and mature.

A relationship's nature, which largely depends on the extent of its development, is influenced by two major sets of factors: the environmental circumstances surrounding the relationship and the characteristics of the individuals involved.

Relationship Maintenance Phase

Once relationships have formed or developed, they are either maintained or not. Those that are not deteriorate, often lapsing into less close and intimate acquaintances. Some may even deteriorate into unfriendly relationships. Maintaining close relationships is more difficult than maintaining acquaintances. It requires more motivation, effort, and skill.

It must be pointed out that the development and maintenance phases do not necessarily stop and start at some easily determined point. Actually, they should overlap. On one hand, each level of a developing relationship must be maintained by both individuals if their relationship is to develop further. On the other hand, both individuals must continually work at developing their relationship if they are to maintain it successfully. Here, too, many environmental factors and personal traits influence (a) whether a relationship will be maintained, (b) at what level it will be maintained (superficial or close), and (c) how well it will be maintained.

Dimensions and Specific Traits Involved in the Development and Maintenance Phases

Forming and maintaining acquaintances is not particularly difficult. Consequently, most people are fairly good formers and maintainers of acquaintances. *Developing close relationships* is considerably more difficult, so fewer people are good developers of close relationships. *Maintaining close relationships* is most difficult, and even fewer people are good at it—as many husbands and wives, parents and children, superiors and subordinates, colleagues or coworkers, and close friends can attest. This being the case, the following discussion primarily deals with the traits necessary for successfully developing and maintaining close, mature relationships.

Please begin referring to (the right side of) **Table 6.4** on page 6-24.

Successful Development and Maintenance in Terms of Seashore's Dimensions

Most people would probably agree that good or successful developers and maintainers would be *above average* to *relatively high* (rather than being too high or compulsively high) in these Seashore dimensions: (a) initiative (active rather than passive); (b) self-disclosure; (c) expectations (open rather than hidden); (d) connection (intimate rather than distant); (e) resources (collaborative rather than competitive); and (f) emotional stability (stable rather than unstable).

In addition, most people would expect the best or most successful developers and maintainers to be *medium* in the remaining four dimensions: (a) status (equal rather than high or low); dependency (interdependent rather than dependent or independent); (c) conflict (moderate it rather than generate or avoid it); and (d) time contact (medium rather than little or long).

Seashore makes an excellent, related point: especially if an individual is dysfunctionally high or low in certain dimensions and wishes to be more interpersonally effective, he or she must make an effort to be sensitive to, understanding of, and accepting of the attitudes and behavior of those who are at the opposite end of these dimensions' scales. Doing what Seashore suggests amounts to increasing one's sensitivity and social insight (social intelligence). For some individuals, this might mean making a point of (a) experiencing a wider range of interpersonal situations, (b) considering different attitudes and behavior patterns, or (c) experiencing a wider range of socially related emotions.

Successful Development and Maintenance in Terms of (Chapter 2's) Specific Traits

Most people would agree that being above average to relatively high (but not overly or compulsively high) in the following personal characteristics is most functional for successfully developing and maintaining close relationships: self-confidence, sociability, the social and benevolence values, social conscientiousness, adaptability, emotional stability, self-control, conformity, social maturity, interpersonal sensitivity, social insight, original thinking, and communication skills.

With respect to the following traits, however, it is functional to be medium to relatively high—but no higher: the need or concern for achievement, the concern for

recognition, the economic value, the political value, the achievement value, self-assertiveness, and independence. When people are high to very high in these traits, and when the levels of these traits are not balanced by adaptability and more socially oriented motives, they tend to dominate, achieve, and gain economic success, power, and recognition at other people's expense. Such behavior is dysfunctional because it often hurts other people and causes many interpersonal conflicts.

Again, because it generally takes more motivation and skill to maintain close relationships than to develop them, the importance of functional levels of traits increases as relationships move from the development phase into the maintenance phase. This particularly applies to the following:

- People-oriented traits such as the social value, benevolence, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, emotional stability, and self-control
- People-related skills such as interpersonal sensitivity, social insight, communicative skills, and problem solving (conflict resolution) skills

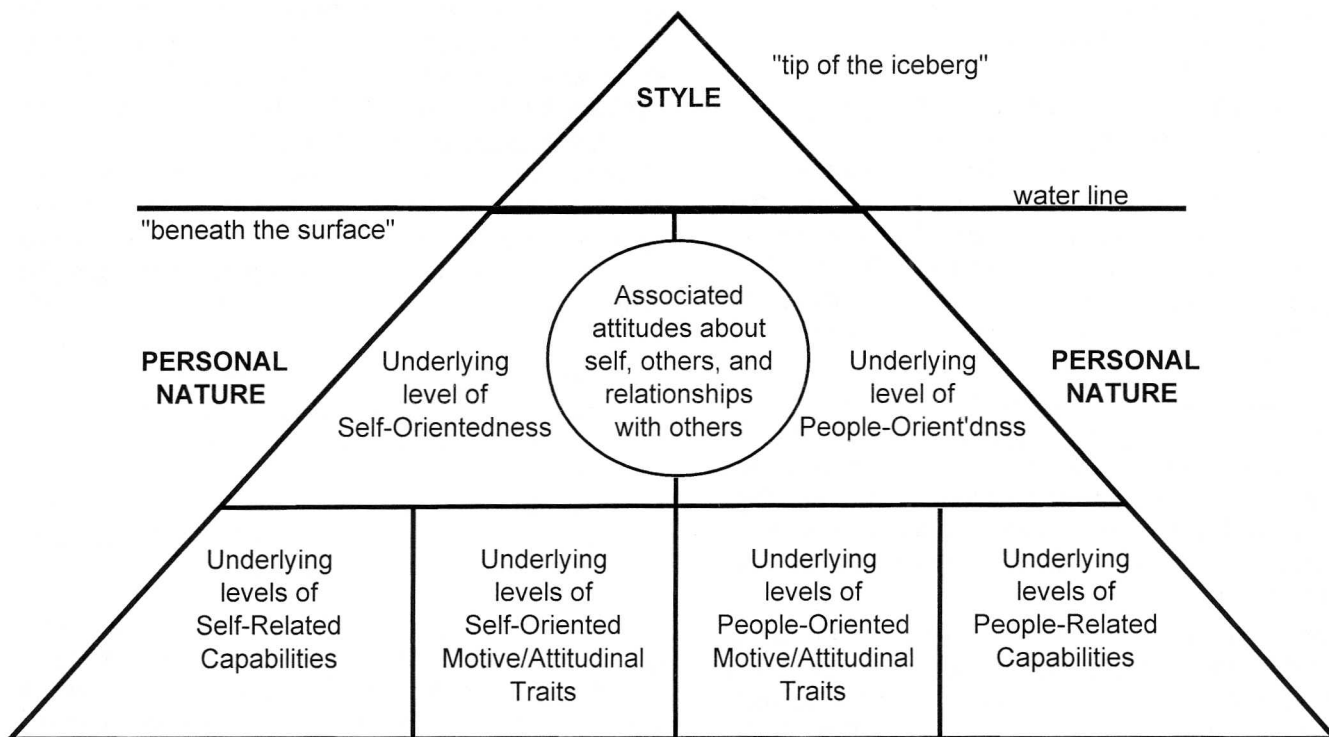
Simply stated, people who are the most effective, successful developers and maintainers of close, ongoing relationships tend to have more functional levels of more traits than those who are less successful. They also tend to have a broader range of interpersonal experience. *Those who are most successful, therefore, are essentially synergistic individuals.*

Environmental Influences on Relationships' Initiation, Development, and Maintenance

While needs and drives, values, attitudes, personality traits, and interpersonal skills all influence interpersonal relationships, it must be acknowledged that environmental factors and circumstances also exert influences on the initiation, development, and maintenance of relationships. Therefore, having discussed how personal characteristics tend to influence relationships, we must turn to the environmental influences.

Interdependence of Roles or Jobs: Interdependencies exist when the informational, material, or service outputs of one person or group are inputs to and affect the performance of another person or group. In organizations, such interdependencies exist between superiors and subordinates, colleagues at the same level, and coworkers. In schools it applies to teachers, students, and administrators. When roles, responsibilities, or jobs are interdependent, people must interact with each other in order for each to fulfill his or her own responsibilities or needs. In-

Figure 6.6: Relationships Among Underlying Personal Influences on an Individual's Interpersonal Style



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terdependencies are important factors because they provide opportunities for interpersonal interactions that may lead to the formation of interpersonal relationships.

Initial contacts between two people may be involuntary or voluntary. When the interdependence of roles or jobs brings about initial contacts between individuals, those initial contacts are essentially involuntary. On the other hand, voluntary initial contacts occur when people approach each other in situations that do not require interaction. Voluntary initial contacts generally reflect a mutual desire to start a relationship, which increases the probability that both parties will attempt to further develop that relationship.

Physical Proximity: When people perform their roles or responsibilities in close proximity to each other (because of work space layout, work flow, the classroom, the home or family environment, and so forth), opportunities exist for direct, face-to-face communication. These opportunities enable direct verbal forms of communication such as spoken words, voice inflection, and tone of voice. They also enable direct nonverbal forms of communica-

tion such as gestures, facial expressions, and other forms of body language. These direct verbal and nonverbal forms of communication are important because, used together, they enable people to convey both thoughts and feelings more easily and effectively than they can through other forms of communication. By affecting the ease and effectiveness with which people can communicate, physical proximity influences the outcomes of both voluntary and involuntary initial contacts and how successfully relationships are developed and maintained.

Frequency of Interaction: The frequency with which interactions occur is influenced by the degree of people's physical proximity and the degree of interdependence of their roles or jobs. Basically, the closer the proximity and the greater the interdependence, the larger the number of social interactions that are likely to occur. Frequency of contact and interaction affect (a) whether individual (and group) relationships will form or develop; (b) how quickly they will form or develop; (c) how close they will become; (d) whether they will remain close; and (e) how long they will continue (be maintained).

To summarize, people's job or role interdependencies and physical proximity are the vehicles that enable interpersonal interactions. In general, the greater the interdependence, the closer the proximity, and the greater the number or frequency of interactions, the greater is the probability that relationships will form or develop. Nonetheless, as mentioned earlier, the existence of such vehicles is not enough for relationships to form or develop. People must also have the motivation to interact and the abilities to do so appropriately. Functional relationships require (a) opportunities to interact with adequate frequency, (b) adequate motivation to interact and to develop and maintain relationships, (c) functional interpersonal attitudes, and (d) adequate interpersonal skills.

Part 3

Interpersonal Styles

An interpersonal style consists of a particular set of general or overall interpersonal behavior patterns and orientations that largely determine how a person interacts with other people. Several styles are more distinctive than others.

People's interpersonal styles are influenced by many personal and nonpersonal (environmental) factors. At any given moment in time, one's *personal characteristics* directly influence interpersonal behavior. These characteristics include needs and drives, interpersonal dimensions, ego states and associated life positions, values, personality traits, attitudes, goals and expectations, and knowledge and abilities. All these characteristics have previously been influenced—or even molded—by major nonpersonal (environmental) variables: (a) parents, relatives, and siblings, who themselves have their own set of characteristics and their own resulting interpersonal styles; (b) social norms exercised by peers; (c) educational systems; and (d) religious organizations (among others). Because different people have been influenced in different ways and to different degrees by both environmental factors and their own personal traits, they have different interpersonal style tendencies. This chapter will not discuss how a person who uses a particular style most of the time may have developed the underlying traits and orientations. This can best be done by an expert who is able to review an individual's trait profile and discuss the individual's background in detail.

This section describes various distinctive interpersonal styles in terms of the following personal influences: (a)

associated attitudes and behavior patterns, (b) associated or underlying ego states and life positions, and (c) underlying levels of groups of personal traits. By using the trait definitions in **Table 6.1** (pages 6-2 through 6-5), by evaluating your levels of these personal characteristics honestly, and by using psychological assessment scores when possible, you should be able to develop very useful and important insights into how and why you behave toward others as you do. Doing the same regarding others' characteristics and behavior can also provide useful insights.

Figure 6.6 helps describe interpersonal styles in basic terms and using parts of an iceberg. An individual's basic or predominant interpersonal style directly results from influences exerted by existing levels of characteristics that make up his or her nature—the unseen nine-tenths of the iceberg below the surface. His or her nature, in turn, is underlain by a combination of two types of orientations: self-orientation (or self-orientedness) and people orientation (or people-orientedness). Attitudes regarding one's self, others, and one's relationships with others tend to be associated with different combinations of levels of self- and people-orientedness.

Self-Orientedness. The overall level of one's self orientation is a combination of levels of concern for, attention to, and ability to satisfy one's own needs, motives, and goals. It reflects self-assertiveness with respect to one's identity, individuality, and personal gratification.

People-Orientedness. The overall level of one's *people orientation* is a combination of concern for, attention to, and ability to sense and to deal both conscientiously and benevolently with the needs and feelings of others. It can be more or less equated with one's communality—that is, one's sense of community, interdependence, and the need to interact with others in a caring, sharing, more selfless manner.

Underlying one's levels of self- and people-orientedness are one's levels of specific personal characteristics. These characteristics are divided into four groups:

Self-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are shown to the left of middle on the bottom row.

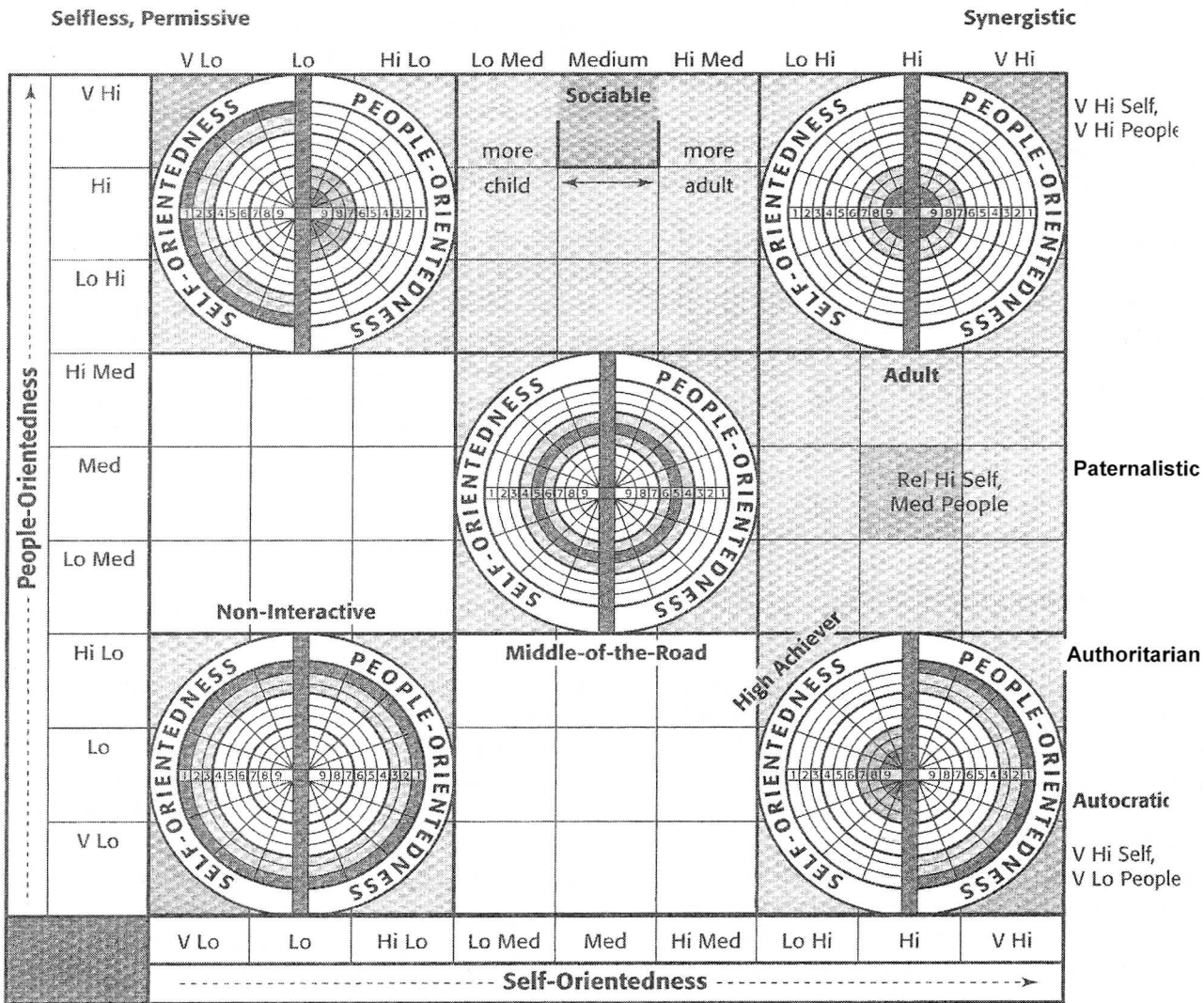
Self-related capabilities are shown at the bottom left.

People-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are shown to the right of middle on the bottom row.

People-related capabilities are shown at the bottom right.

Several distinctive styles—and many styles in between—can be explained with this model. They can also

Figure 6.7: Distinctive Interpersonal Styles on a Grid Framework



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be described using a grid framework, which, as shown in **Figure 6.7**, illustrates the various styles in terms of points at which particular overall levels of self- and people-orientedness intersect. Note that, because there are numerous degrees of highs, mediums, and lows, all possible combinations of levels of self- and people-orientedness are **not** shown in these figures.

[Author’s note: The five target models in the corners and middle of **Figure 6.7** are simplified versions of two models we use in our books and management/leadership seminars—*The Managerial Target*® and *The Interpersonal Target*™. Both are copyrighted and trademarked. The manner in which each is filled in shows its combination of overall levels of self-orientedness and people-oriented-

ness. The “bull’s-eye” is the “high self, high people” or synergistic combination in the top right corner. The two Target models are more sophisticated than we can explain further here.]

On pages 6-34,35,36, **Table 6.5** describes various interpersonal styles in the terms covered in this chapter. Here again, the levels of psychological traits and Seashore’s dimensions have been estimated, based on the following: (a) the behavior described in the definitions of the ego states and life positions; (b) the behaviors associated with being high or low in values and personality traits (per the definitions and descriptions in the manuals of instruments used to measure those traits); and (c) intercorrelation tables in those instruments’ manuals.

We will not discuss interpersonal styles further here, because it should not be necessary to put into paragraph form what is already in the table. However, the following should be kept in mind: While the five “distinctive styles” described in Table 6.5 are more distinctive than other combinations of the self and people orientations, a particular individual’s style may be (a) one of these distinctive styles; (b) close to one or the other of these styles; or (c) somewhere between two or more of them. Therefore, readers are cautioned **not** to stereotype people and mistakenly think about their own or another’s interpersonal style as necessarily being one of the distinctive styles described here.

Part 4

Behavior in Social Groups

This part discusses ways that groups form, membership phenomena such as the roles members play, and the norms and sanctions that develop to foster and enforce uniform group attitudes and behavior.

Dynamics of Group Formation

Groups generally form as a result of one of two basic processes that we call “proximal cohesion” and “nonproximal adhesion.” Each of these processes tends to occur under a particular set of circumstances.

Proximal Cohesion: The word *proximal* means “situated close to” or “in the proximity of.” The word *cohesion* means “unity” or “sticking together.” Thus, proximal cohesion means the interpersonal union of people who are situated close together. That union can develop when people (a) are already working, playing, or otherwise interacting together; (b) are situated in proximity to each other (for example, because of work area, office, or classroom layout.); and (c) can communicate rather easily through speech, gestures, or facial expressions. How quickly and tightly a group forms is usually a function of the degree to which potential group members have other, non-work-related things in common. The group that forms may or may not include all the persons who are physically close to each other. In addition, it may or may not grow larger. If it does grow, it can do so by either admitting others in the area who were not original members or going through the process of nonproximal adhesion.

Nonproximal Adhesion: *Nonproximal* means “not in proximity.” *Adhesion* means “a union of parts (or mem-

bers) by growth” and “an agreement to join.” It also connotes a mutual attraction between people that is somewhat like the attraction between similar molecules which causes them to adhere to each other. Thus, nonproximal adhesion refers to the formation of a group of people who are not situated close together but are joining together (more voluntarily than interdependent work groups)—mostly because, like affinity groups, they share characteristics (such as values or interests) or have other things in common. An initial group (we call the “nucleus”) may grow through further adhesion as initial members invite other friends to associate with them and participate in their activities. As a result, the outsiders are assimilated into the group. How large the group becomes is a function of various factors discussed in the following pages.

Membership Phenomena

Membership phenomena in social groups include qualifications for becoming a member, how members acquire status, and the different roles that members can play.

Membership Qualifications: As a rule, social groups are more inclined to accept into their ranks persons who possess most or all of the following qualifications: (a) they share characteristics and attitudes valued by the group; (b) they can be expected to adhere to the group’s normative (customary) attitudes and behavior; (c) they will tend to contribute to the group’s image or status vis-à-vis other groups; and (d) they appear to be likable and congenial.

Members’ Status: A person’s status within a group is largely a function of his or her levels of the characteristics most valued or shared by the group. It can also be a function of how consistently he or she adheres to the group’s norms. Members who possess higher levels of valued characteristics and adhere more consistently to group norms tend to have a higher status. The reverse tends to be true of members who have relatively low status.

Members’ Roles: One’s status in a group generally carries with it a role, and there are many roles that can be played.

Leaders of groups function to implement and maintain the group’s norms. They usually possess high levels of the group’s valued characteristics.

The task leader is the member who reinforces group goals, exhorts the group to accomplish activities, and provides guidance, direction, and coordination for task-oriented activities. These leaders are likely to be followed because of their high degree of work-related expertise.

Table 6.5: Distinctive Interpersonal Styles and Related Traits and Behavior

STYLE:	SELF-CENTERED, UTILITARIAN		ACHIEVEMENT-ORIENTED	PATERNALISTIC
	Autocratic	Authoritarian		Nurturing
Self-Orientedness People Orient'ness	Very High Self, Very Low People	Relat'vly High Self, Relat'vly Low People	High Self, Medium-Low People	High Self, Medium People
Other names for style	High Assertiveness, Low Responsivness Controlling-Taking; Competitive; Dominant-Hostile; Win-Lose		Hi Assertiveness, Md-Lo Respons'ness	Hi Assertiveness, Med Responsiveness
Description of individual	Dominator, user/exploiter, taker, competitor, results-seeker, driver, disciplinarian, blamer, attacker; superior, self-centered/selfish, emotional, evaluative, judgmental, suspicious, aggressive, hostile, vindictive, "macho," conservative; dictator; controller		Achiever; thinker, innovator; creative, rational, preoccupied and somewhat distant, somewhat judgmental and temperamental	Self-assertive, but understanding, car- ing, supportive, and fairly benevolent; somewhat evaluative and judgmental
Ego state(s)	Very critical parent	Critical parent	Part adult, part critical parent	Nurturing parent
Ego tends to revolve around . . .	Power, authority, influence over others		Knowledge and skills	Others being like self
Life position	I'm very OK, you're definitely not OK	I,m OK, you're not OK.	I'm Ok, you're not particularly OK.	I'm OK, you're fairly OK.
Significant traits *	Hi to Very Hi Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Economic and Political values Decisiveness Lo to Very Lo	Rel. Hi to Hi Rel. Lo to Lo	Rel. Hi to Very Hi Achievement value Self-confidence Original thinking Goal-orientedness Low to Medium Social/Benev. values Soc'l conscien'ness Adaptability Social maturity Sociability	Rel. Hi to Hi Self-confidence Dominance Decisiveness Low Med. to Hi Med. Social/Benev. values Soc'l conscien'ness Adaptability Social maturity Self-control Original thinking
Interpersonal dimensions *	Active in Initiative One up in Status Independent Low Self-disclosure Hidden Expectations Distant in Connection Competitive Emotional Generates Conflict		Somewhat Active One up Independent Med. Disclosure Somewhat Open Somewhat Distant Competitive Somewhat Stable Can gen. Conflict	Rather Active Rather One Up Rather Independent Fairly Disclosing Fairly Open Fairly Intimate Rather Competitive Somewhat Emotional Moderates Conflict
Description of individual's relationships	Many superficial, utilitarian; few close and mature. Poor developer and main- tainer of close, mature relationships		Most superficial, some close. Fair devel./maint.	Some superficial, some close. Good devel./maint.
Managerial or leadership style tendency	Hard X (9,1) (Very High Task, Very Low People)	Theory X (Rela'ly High Task, Rela'ly Low People)	Somewhat "X" (Rela'ly High task, Med-Low People)	Soft X to Mid-Road (Rela'ly Hi Task, Medium People)

* Estimated (ranges of) levels.

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PEOPLE-ORIENTED, PERMISSIVE		SOCIABLE	"SYNERGISTIC"	
Very Permissive	Rela'y Permissive	Affiliative	Vry Adult / Rel Syn	Synergistic
Very Low Self, Very High People	Rela'y Low Self, Rela'y High People	Medium Self, High People	Rela'y High Self, Rela'y High People	High Self, High People
Low Assertiveness, High Responsiveness Supporting-Giving; Accomodating; Submissive-Warm; Yield-Lose		Med. Assertiveness, High Responsiveness	High Assertiveness, High Responsiveness Adapting-Dealing; Participative; Assertive-Warm; Win-Win	
Pleaser, supporter, giver, accomodator, suppressor, yielder, follower; amiable, emotional, warm, responsive, insecure, dependent, submissive, highly socialized, conformant, altruistic, benevolent, pro- tective, conscientious, shy, liberal, agreeable, helpful, caring		Warm, amiable, responsive, affilia- tive, associative, personable, support- ive, adaptable, adjusted, happy	Coper, self-actualizer, thinker, communi- cator, achiever, developer, team player & builder, integrator, positive stroker, influencer, confronter; mature, optimistic, realistic, self-assured, assertive, interactive, responsive, supportive, expressive, even-handed, involved, participative	
Very compliant child	Compliant child	(Socially) Adjusted child	Adult	Synergistic
Benevolence, kindness		Number of Friends	Social and intellectual maturity	
You're very OK, I'm not OK.	You're OK, I'm not very OK.	I'm fairly OK, you're OK.	I'm pretty much OK, so are you.	I'm OK, you're OK.
Hi to Very H Social and Benevolence values (Religious value) Dependence Needs for Support/Approval Conformity Social conscientiousness Self-control	Rel. Hi to Hi	Rel. Hi to Very Hi Sociability	Rel. Hi to Hi	High
Lo to Very Lo (Social) Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Economic and Political values	Rel. Lo to Lo	Hi Avg to Hi Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Soc'l Conscien'ness Benevolence Adaptability Social maturity Emotional stability Self-control	Self-confidence Self-Assertiveness Social conscientiousness Benevolence Responsibility Adaptability Social maturity Original thinking Emotional stability Self-control	
Passive in Initiative One down in Status Dependent Rather low Disclosure Rather Hidden Expectations Rather Distant (wants intimate) Non-competitive Emotional Avoids Conflict		Active Fairly equal Status Interdependent Rather Disclosing Rather Open Intimate Rather Collaborative Emotional Avoids Conflict	Active in Initiative Equal Status Interdependent Self-disclosing Open Expectations Intimate Collaborative Emotionally Stable Moderates Conflict	
Close with a few, some superficial. Fairly effective developer and maintainer.	Close with some, some superficial.	Many acquaintances, close with many. Good devel./maint.	Many acquaintances; select number of close, mature relationships. Very good developer, best maintainer.	
Permissive (1,9) (Very Low Task, Very High People)	Permissive Tend'cy, but can be Authoritarian	Fairly Permissive (Md Tsk, Hi Peopl)	Synergistic, Team/Participative, (9,9),Y (Rel. High Task, Rel. High People)	(High Task, High People)

STYLE:	MIDDLE-OF-THE-ROAD		NON-INTERACTIVE	
	Mid-Road	Rather Adult	Withdrawn	"Defeated"
Self-Orientedness People Orient'ness	Medium Self, Medium People	Above Avg Self, Above Avg People	Very Low Self, Very Low People	Rela'y Low Self, Very Low People
Other Names for Style	Med. Assertiveness, Med. Responsiveness Conserving-Holding	Above Avg Assert., Above Avg Response. Win Some-Lose Some	Low Assertiveness, Low Responsiveness Submissive-Hostile; Non-Coping; Lose-Leave	
Description of Individual	Compromiser, balancer; consultive, changeable, even-handed, fairly mature, anxious about criticism and censure		Introvert, avoider, isolationist; hurt, insecure, submissive, suspicious, with- drawn, apathetic, indecisive, evasive, pessimistic; not coping well with others and life in general; fears criticism and rejection	
Ego State(s) Ego Tends to Revolve Around . . .	Between Critical Parent and Compliant Child	Between Nurturing Parent and Adjusted Child	Very put down Compliant Child	Rebellious Child (when "one down" & can't dominate)
Life Position	I'm somewhat OK, you're somewhat OK.	I'm fairly OK, you're fairly OK.	I'm Not OK, you're n	I'm somewhat OK, you're not OK.
Significant Traits	<u>Lo Med. to Medium</u> Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Social and Benevolence values Economic and Political values Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Original thinking Responsibility Emotional stability Self-control	<u>Medium to Hi Med.</u>	<u>Relatively Low to Very Low</u> Self-confidence Dominance Sociability Adaptability Social maturity Emotional stability <u>Rather Low</u> Conformity Benevolence Soc'l conscient'ness Responsibility Self-control	
Interpersonal Dimensions	Fairly active in Initiative Fairly equal Status Fairly Interdependent Fairly Disclosing Fairly open Expectations Fairly Intimate Fairly Collaborative Fairly Stable Moderates Conflict		Passive in Initiative One down in Status Dependent Low Disclosure Hidden Expectations Distant Non-competitive Emotional Avoids Conflict	
Types relationships develops and maintains	Many acquaintances; fair number of close, mature relationships. Fairly good developer and maintainer.		Few acquaintances; even fewer close, mature relationships. Least effective developer and maintainer.	
Managerial or leadership style tendency	Middle-Road (5,5) (Medium Task, Medium People)		Non-Manager (1,1) or Non-Leader	Non-Manager (when feels "less OK" and can't control)

The social leader is the member who encourages social interaction within the group, fosters morale and esprit de corps, and often reduces tensions by shifting members' attention away from conflict to more friendly interactions. He or she is likely to be followed in social matters because of a highly congenial personality. Social leaders can occasionally break group norms because of their very high status. The task leader and social leader may or may not be the same individual.

The remaining members of the group can have several nonleadership roles. First and foremost, the other members are the followers. They confer status on and receive status from others in the group. Because their status is not as high as the task leader and the social leader, they are less inclined to violate the group's norms and customs. (However, fringe members and newcomers to the group, both of whom have relatively low status, may have little to lose by breaking the group's norms.)

The role of an arbitrator is to reduce tensions arising from interpersonal conflicts by mediating between the parties involved. This role may be performed by the task leader when task-related interpersonal conflicts are involved. It may be performed by the social leader when conflicts arise during more socially-oriented activities. Or it may be performed by another member of the group who is good at mediating conflicts. Such a person tends to have slightly higher status than other followers.

Many groups have a clown or entertainer. Inasmuch as this person can generate laughter within the group, he or she can also perform the function of a tension reducer. Such individuals also tend to have more status than other followers.

Members who have friends outside the group can be intergroup contacts, facilitating communications with members of other groups.

Norms and Sanctions for Maintaining Groups

Because membership in a group fulfills important social and self-image needs, groups tend to maintain and perpetuate themselves for the benefit of all members. To do so, they develop group norms and enforce them with various sanctions.

Group Norms Defined

Group norms are attitudes, expectations, and rules about what members should or should not do under vari-

ous circumstances. They include: group values, attitudes, interests, and goals; expected modes of behavior; customs; social procedures; and both formal and informal rules.

The basic functions of group norms are to (a) maintain an atmosphere in which members' needs can be consistently fulfilled; (b) solidify interpersonal relationships among group members; (c) promote high morale and esprit de corps; (d) increase the uniformity of members' attitudes; (e) promote unity of purpose; (f) prevent internal conflict; (g) increase the uniformity of internally and externally directed behavior; (h) promote concerted action (especially when the norms or activities of the group are threatened from inside or outside); and (i) perpetuate the group.

Matters with Which Group Norms Deal

To perform the functions just listed, group norms must deal with both internal and external matters.

Some of the internal matters with which group norms deal are (a) membership qualifications; how status is to be conferred on members; (c) who will perform which roles; (d) how members should interact with and behave toward each other; (e) the manner in which work is to be done or group activities are to be performed; (f) how interpersonal conflicts are to be resolved; and (g) how norms themselves are to be enforced within the group, through the use of both positive and negative sanctions (positive and negative stimuli or feedback).

Some of the external matters with which norms deal are (a) how members should behave toward people outside the group; (b) how outsiders should behave toward group members; (b) how to maintain the group's identity or image vis-à-vis other individuals and groups; and (c) how influence should be exerted on other individuals and groups, so that their behavior will be functional for the group's maintenance, cohesion, goal achievement, and morale.

Examples of Norms

A common norm among children, students and workers is to withhold bad news from parents, teachers, and bosses. In some groups, the norm is, "If you've got power, don't flaunt it," whereas in others it is, "If you've got power, use it." In many work groups the norm is, "Don't outperform the rest of the group and cause performance standards to be raised for everyone." In many worker-level groups, it is the norm to act masculine and hide your feelings, whereas in social service groups, it is to be sensitive to others and express your feelings.

Development of Group Norms

The development of a group's norms is influenced by some combination of both individual and shared needs and motives, interests, goals and expectations, attitudes, and abilities (strengths and weaknesses).

The developmental process actually involves many processes: learning, trial and success, problem solving, attitude and behavior modification (both purposeful and subconscious), and conflict resolution. The developmental process is continuous. Initial norms may be replaced with new norms as a result of experience gained through internal and external interactions.

It should be pointed out that while norms are meant to be functional for groups' well-being and maintenance, they are often dysfunctional for interpersonal and working relationships with outside individuals or groups.

It should also be pointed out that group norms usually develop and operate without group members and outsiders being consciously aware of them. Thus, their influences on people's attitudes and behavior are often among the most subtle and unrecognized of all influences.

Norm-Enforcing Positive Sanctions

Groups maintain adherence to their norms through members' use of rewarding and penalizing sanctions. Sanctions are essentially both positive and negative stimuli or feedback.

The forms and degrees of positive sanctions that are used to encourage, reward, and reinforce members' adherence or conformity to group norms include (a) expressions of approval or praise, (b) verbal or physical expressions of friendship, (c) acknowledgment of group membership, (d) acknowledgment of status within the group, (e) conferment of increased status, (f) conferment of an important role or function, (g) increased cooperation in group activities, (h) volunteering of useful information, (i) making an individual look good in front of others, and (j) other forms and degrees of positive feedback mentioned in *Table 6.2* (page 6-8).

The positive sanctions that are used to encourage, reward, and reinforce functional behavior toward the group by outsiders include all of the preceding items except acknowledgment of group membership, acknowledgment of status within the group, and conferment of increased status in the group. However, positive sanctions can also include acknowledgment of an outsider's status in an organization or even his or her acceptance into the group.

Norm-Enforcing Negative Sanctions

The forms and degrees of negative sanctions used to discourage and punish behavior that deviates from group norms and is detrimental to the group include (a) ridicule and sarcastic remarks, (b) criticism, (c) blame, (d) indications of reduced status within the group, (e) reduced cooperation in group activities, (f) withholding of information, (g) making an individual look bad in front of other people, (h) exclusion from group activities, (i) ignoring or avoiding the individual, (j) rejection, (k) threats of being ostracized from the group, (l) actual ostracism from the group, and (m) other forms of negative feedback listed in *Table 6.2*.

The negative sanctions that are used to discourage and punish dysfunctional behavior toward the group by outsiders include all of the preceding items except indications of reduced status within the group, reduced cooperation in group activities, threats of ostracism from the group, and actual ostracism from the group.

Criteria for Employing Sanctions

In a given situation involving a particular member's or outsiders' behavior, many factors determine (a) whether group members actually apply sanctions, (b) which positive or negative sanctions each member applies, and (c) how each member applies his or her sanctions. Some of the major determining factors are (a) whether the behavior involved is functional or dysfunctional for individual members or the group as a whole; (b) the extent to which the behavior is functional or dysfunctional; (c) the characteristics, group role, group status, and organizational position or status of the individual whose behavior is involved; (d) the characteristics, group roles, group status, and organizational positions and status of group members; and (e) the existing interpersonal relationships between group members and the individual or individuals involved.

Like group norms, sanctions can be applied to both members and outsiders without anyone being consciously aware of them. So again, the application of sanctions can be a subtle but powerful influence on people's attitudes and behavior.

Factors That Determine the Degree of Influence Exerted

In general, the more or greater each of the following factors, the stronger or greater a group's influence is on either a member or an outsider:

- a. The degree to which the individual's behavior is either functional or dysfunctional for individual group members or the group as a whole
- b. The extent to which the person's performance, need fulfillment, and goal attainment can be affected by the group's behavior
- c. The extent to which the individual may be insecure, lacking in self-confidence, dependent, or submissive (in terms of his or her personality)
- d. The extent to which the person shares the group's values, interests, attitudes, goals, and problems
- e. The cohesiveness of the group, which in turn affects the uniformity and concertedness with which members apply sanctions
- f. The strength of the positive or negative sanctions applied to the individual by the group
- g. The number of opportunities that group members have to apply sanctions to the individual (a function of the number of contacts between the individual and group members, which, in turn, is a function of interdependencies of their jobs or roles)
- h. The ease with which group members can apply sanctions through speech, gestures, facial expressions, or actions (a factor that is a function of people's proximity, available modes of communication, frequency of contacts, and other factors)

In general, the more or greater each of the following factors, the weaker or smaller a group's influence is on either a member or outsider:

- a. The degrees to which the individual is affected by opposing or conflicting influences exerted by other individuals and groups
- b. The degrees to which the individual is affected by opposing or conflicting influences exerted by job, organizational, or outside forces or factors

Degree of Influence Exerted on Members Versus Outsiders

Generally speaking, stronger socially oriented influences are exerted on individuals by the groups to which they belong than by the groups to which they do not belong. Among the reasons are the following: First, when people join any social group, they entrust the fulfillment of various social and ego needs (and perhaps other needs as well) to the group. In effect, they make themselves relatively dependent on the group, thereby enabling it to fulfill certain needs more fully, consistently, and meaningfully than groups to which they do not belong. However, they also make themselves vulnerable to the group, thereby enabling it to threaten the fulfillment of various

needs to a greater extent than groups to which they do not belong.

Consequently, individuals are normally more sensitive to the positive and negative feedback (sanctions) applied to them by groups of which they are members, and, therefore, adhere much more closely to those groups' norms. Second, people normally have closer relationships and more frequent face-to-face social contact with members of groups to which they belong than members of groups to which they do not belong. This enables groups of which they are members to apply positive and negative social sanctions to them more easily, uniformly, concertedly, and effectively than groups of which they are not members.

Although the social influences exerted by groups to which individuals belong are generally stronger, equally strong and even stronger influences may be exerted by groups to which they do not belong. When this does happen in a situation involving a particular group and outsider, each of the following factors can be wholly or at least partly responsible: (a) one or more members of the group are in a position to affect the outsider's performance, need fulfillment, or goal attainment to a high degree; (b) one or more members of the group are able to apply sanctions more frequently or effectively than members of the groups to which the outsider belongs (due to, for example, closer proximity to the individual, access to more effective modes of communication, or more frequent contact in various situations); or (c) the outsider wants very much to be accepted as a member of the group and, therefore, adheres voluntarily to its norms and is very sensitive to the sanctions it applies.

Other Group Maintenance Phenomena

Other phenomena involved in maintaining a group include how interpersonal conflicts are resolved, how the group reinforces its image in an organization, and why potential members are accepted or rejected.

Conflict Resolution: To maintain internal stability, groups must deal with interpersonal conflicts that are often caused by, for example, differences between members' tasks or differences between members' values, personalities, beliefs, and attitudes.

Group norms and sanctions influence whether conflicts will surface and how they will be dealt with if they do surface. For example, it may be customary for members of the group to exercise sanctions such as overt disapproval of members involved until they resolve their problem. Resolution may also be facilitated by group members exercising their tension-reducing roles. For ex-

ample, the social leader could initiate other members' use of the sanctions mentioned previously. Or the arbitrator could act as a go-between in order to bring about a compromise. Or the group clown could make the conflict seem laughable and rather pointless.

Image Reinforcement: Groups also maintain cohesion by comparing themselves with other groups. It is not unusual to hear comments such as "Oh, they ____ all the time, but we wouldn't think of doing that," or "We can ____ better than they can," or "Look at what they're doing now." This is a simple device. By putting others down, groups put themselves up. They also reinforce group cohesion. It is a matter of self-image reinforcement, which is an important element of human nature. Competition between groups may also reinforce both internal solidarity and the group's status in the eyes of other groups—especially when the group wins.

New Members: The issue of a prospective member's admittance into a group often generates conflict within the group. If the individual has excellent qualifications, members who have high status in the group might want to admit the prospect because he or she would add to the status of the entire group, but they might not want to admit the prospect because their own relatively high status in the group could be diminished. Members who have relatively low status might want to admit a prospect because the entire group's status would be increased, but they might not want to admit him or her because their own already low status could be further reduced. (If the prospective member has relatively low qualifications, the motives of high and low status members could be reversed.) Whether or not a newcomer is accepted into a group is a matter of who stands to gain the most, who stands to lose the most, who can exercise the most influence on the rest of the group, the group's norms, and the interactions that take place during the decision-making process. Groups also maintain themselves by expelling members who consistently break group norms, jeopardize the group's status relative to other groups, or behave in any other manner that would undermine order and cohesion within the group.

Part 5

Interpersonal Conflicts: Symptoms, Types, Sources, and Resolution

Even though the topic of interpersonal conflicts and how to handle them is an important one, the basics are covered very briefly here. To do the topic justice would

require an entire book. However, the discussion can be abbreviated because so many of the inputs to conflict analysis and resolution have already been covered. The major inputs to problem solving—yes, conflict resolution is a problem-solving situation—include (a) planning, problem-solving, and decision-making methodology (the analytic approach), and (b) the possible causal factors to consider (factors discussed in Chapters 2 through 6).

Symptoms of Interpersonal Conflicts

Table 6.6 (next page) lists indicators that interpersonal conflicts are occurring. Symptoms that occur in individuals include negative emotions, the use of ego defense mechanisms, and negative or dysfunctional behavioral phenomena. Negative or dysfunctional behavior toward others can be placed in four categories: (a) active or direct, expressed verbally; (b) active or direct, expressed physically; (c) passive but direct; and (d) active but indirect. Note how these behaviors relate to the behaviors that hurt people in **Table 6.2** on page 6-8.

Types of Interpersonal Conflicts

Conflicts can be categorized in various ways. In the left column of **Table 6.7** (page 6-42), they have been classified by context—that is, by where they occur and who is involved. Some involve family members. Some involve people in the workplace. Some involve friends or social groups inside one's organization. And others involve individuals or groups outside one's organization. The second column of **Table 6.7** indicates that conflicts can also be typed in terms of symptomatic behavior. (The four groups come from the right column of **Table 6.6**.) The second column also classifies conflicts by their level of seriousness or importance—that is, minor or major. The last two columns classify conflicts by their basic causes.

Causes of Interpersonal Conflicts

As shown in the two right-hand columns of **Table 6.7**, conflicts in organizations can be caused by many factors. Actually, the two columns are an abbreviated version of the checklist of factors in **Table 4.1** on page 4-14 (Chapter 4). Here are some common causes of conflicts:

Personal characteristics in general: Some causes stem from the similarities between individuals' personal traits. For example, if two people are very high in the political value and self-assertiveness, they may clash over territorial or authority-related matters related to family, school, or

Table 6.6: Symptoms of Interpersonal Conflicts

INDIVIDUAL SYMPTOMS	NEGATIVE or DYSFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOR TOWARD OTHER(S)
<p><u>Negative Emotions</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Unwarranted fears, insecurities 2. Excessive self-doubt, blame, criticism 3. Tension, anxiety, stress 4. Depression, despair 5. Suspicion, paranoia 6. Resentfulness 7. Anger, hostility, antagonism <p><u>Defense Mechanisms</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Suppression 2. Denial 3. Projection 4. Rationalization 5. Compensation 6. Sublimation 7. Repression 8. Fantasy 9. Identification 10. Regression 11. Aggression 12. Undoing <p><u>Negative/Dysfunctional Behavior or Phenomena</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Confusion/disorientedness 2. Mindwandering/inattention 3. Aimless behavior 4. Keeping feelings bottled up (to oneself) 5. Difficulty expressing thoughts/feelings 6. Avoiding contact with others 7. Excessive submissiveness (giving in) 8. Restlessness 9. Fatigue, lethargy 10. Irritability 11. Insensitivity, rudeness 12. Insubordination 13. Excessive eating or drinking (and so forth) 14. Inability to relax or sleep well 15. Gastrointestinal problems 16. Sexual difficulties 17. Obsessive thoughts, actions 18. Vengeful thoughts, actions 19. Self-destructive thoughts or actions 20. Decreased performance <p>Copyright © 1976, 1985, 2012, 2020 by R.D. Cecil & Co.</p>	<p><u>Active, Direct, Verbal</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Treating other person coldly, impersonally 2. Treating other insensitively, discourteously 3. Not allowing other person to express self 4. Questioning, disbelieving, arguing with, or rejecting other person's ideas or opinions 5. Ridiculing or insulting other person; name-calling 6. Criticizing or blaming other; "backbiting" 7. Reprimanding or punishing other (verbally) 8. Reminding other of past mistakes and failures 9. Pointing out or emphasizing other's weaknesses 10. Making other person look foolish 11. Stereotyping other person 12. Condescending to other person 13. Excessively directing other person 14. Excessively helping other person 15. Lying to, deceiving, cheating other person 16. Manipulating or using other person 17. Betraying other's confidences 18. Breaking promises to other person 19. Gossiping about other person 20. Intimidating or threatening other person 21. Rejecting or scorning other person <p><u>Active, Direct, Physical</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Physically mistreating/abusing other person 2. Physically punishing other person 3. Physically attacking other person <p><u>Passive, Direct</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Not showing trust in other person 2. Not showing respect for other person 3. Not giving other person approval or affection 4. Not empathizing or sympathizing with other 5. Not including or involving other person 6. Not acknowledging other person's efforts 7. Not thanking other person (for a kindness) 8. Ignoring other; not giving time or attention 9. Avoiding other person 10. Not listening to other person 11. Not supporting or backing up other person 12. Not cooperating with other person 13. Not informing other person (of what is going on) <p><u>Active, Indirect</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mistreating other person's possessions 2. Mistreating other person's loved ones

Table 6.7: Types and Causes of Interpersonal Conflicts

CONTEXT (Where / Who)	BEHAVIORAL PHENOMENA	VARIOUS SOURCES / CAUSES	
		INDIVIDUAL (PERSONAL) [Differences/Similarities]	EXTERNAL (NON-PERSONAL) Factors or Phenomena
<u>Family/Home</u>	<u>Symptomatic Behavior</u> (from Table 14.4)	<u>General Characteristics</u>	<u>General Role Factors</u>
Marital		Needs/drives	Husband/wife Parent/child Boss/subordinate
Parent/child	Active/direct, verbal	Basic values (of generation)	
Siblings	Active/direct, Physical	Specific values "Valued matters" Interpersonal values "Coping values"	<u>Job-/Role-Related Factors</u>
Relatives	Passive/direct	Work motivation	Complexity / Skill req'ments Status/prestige Definability/prescribability Amount/frequency of change Certainty of information used Objectives Time span to outputs/results Nature of outputs/results Occupational "types"
<u>Organizational/ Workplace</u>	Active/indirect	Personality traits	<u>Social Factors</u>
Boss/subordinate	<u>Seriousness/ Importance</u>	Knowledge (Education, training, and experience)	Roles/status Group norms
Colleagues/ co-workers Intradepartmental Interdepartmental	Minor: Usually short-term; Have minor consequences for parties and/or others involved	Interests	
Management/union		Socio-economic background	<u>Organizational Variables</u>
<u>Social Context</u>		Learned role patterns (and ego states)	Structure Span of control Territories, power, authority Line/staff responsibilities Managerial styles Natures of jobs Nature of organization Resources (limitations) Job security
Acquaintances		Life/career stage	
Close friends	Major: Deep-rooted; Highly emotional; Longer-term; Have potentially serious conse- quences for parties and/or Others Involved	Personal goals	
Group members		General type of person	
<u>Other/Outside Contexts</u>		Coping skills	
Neighbors		<u>Interpersonal Traits/Dimensions</u>	
Customer/ sales/service person		Approach/involvement motivation	<u>Environmental Factors</u>
Supplier/customer		Relationship expectations	Economy Competition Technology(ies) Rate of change Population density Societal norms
Common users (of service)		Interpersonal dimensions Interpersonal skills Interpersonal style	
People in proximity			

organizational structure and job/role descriptions. Other conflicts stem from differences between individuals. For example, a very messy and disorganized person may irritate an extremely orderly and organized person (and vice versa). Both similarities and differences in needs, values, interests, goals, interpersonal dimensions, and other traits underlie many conflicts in similar ways.

Task- or role-related factors: Many family and organizational conflicts stem from differences between different individuals' or groups' tasks or roles. The following are organizational examples. One that involves the difference between two units' "time span to outputs or results" (or time orientation) is frequently found in manufacturing companies: An operations department lengthens the time span of its production cycle so as to lower costs per unit, but the time frame that is important for the marketing department is getting the product to a customer as soon as possible. The difference in time orientations often causes scheduling problems and friction between marketing and production personnel. This is another example: Personnel in a certain operations department have manual and physical skills, only a high school education, and relatively low organizational status. On the other hand, personnel in the marketing department have more education, more developed mental skills, and higher status. Such differences often lead each group to see the other as less OK than themselves, create jealousy and resentment, or cause interdepartmental animosity.

Organizational variables: A common situation in which organizational variables cause conflict occurs if all personnel are working overtime, are physically and emotionally stressed, are becoming very short-tempered with each other, and are getting into squabbles. Another scenario occurs when spans of control are too wide and too complex for units to be well coordinated. The resulting stress causes two supervisors' tempers to flare, disrupting their working relationship.

Social phenomena: Sometimes social situations cause conflict. For example, a social group's insiders may shun outsiders with whom they must relate because of job interdependencies or group norms. The resulting ill feelings may undermine necessary communications.

Outside forces or factors: Sometimes factors outside an organization cause conflict within it. In one familiar scenario, customer demands cause job-related pressures and conflicts between sales and marketing personnel. In another scenario, rapidly changing technology puts stress on the R&D, marketing, and production departments, which elevates tempers and undermines the coordination of efforts to bring a new product to market. Another example involves different outside groups, each with different social norms about work and social priorities. These

groups may exert contradictory, conflict-causing influences on the attitudes and behavior of interdependent individuals or groups.

Conflict Resolution (Solving Interpersonal Problems)

Resolving interpersonal conflicts is problem solving. Its approach or methodology involves analyzing a situation (perhaps using a checklist of possibly causal factors), formulating possible solutions to deal with the causes, and then choosing the most appropriate solution(s). Although the analytic approach should be common to all conflict resolution processes, the situations often differ in these respects: (a) the contexts involved, (b) the variables being considered, and (c) the need for the parties' participation in the problem-solving process. Since the analytic approach has already been discussed in terms of a problem-solving process (Chapter 4), the concepts and methodology need not be covered again. However, the following points about the process should be mentioned.

Experienced conflict mediators generally recommend that the individuals or units involved initially analyze any nonpersonal task, environmental, social, or organizational causes for which neither party is personally or directly responsible, for two major reasons: First, these are very often the real, underlying causes, even though the parties are probably blaming each other's personalities, opinions, skill levels, attitudes, or whatever. Second, focusing on nonpersonal, nonthreatening, face-saving causes often defuses personal blame games. When they have ceased attributing blame, both parties are more rationally prepared and emotionally willing to formulate actions that they might take to help deal with nonpersonal causes and any personal causes they may have voluntarily identified.

Conflict Resolution Styles

Table 6.8 (next page) describes the conflict resolution behavior identified by Zoll (1974), Hall (1986), Simpson (1977), Thomas and Kilmann (1974), and Hart (1981). [The work of several of these authors was largely based on the work of William Marston (1928).] Note that the patterns of behavior in **Table 6.8** can be associated with the five distinctive interpersonal styles in **Table 6.5** (pages 6-34,35, 36). Note also that, of the five conflict resolution styles, the most participative is used by synergistic individuals and participative managers, whose objective is "to resolve the conflict (problem situation) together."

Table 6.8: Conflict Resolution Styles or Approaches

Style / Approach	Domination	Suppression	Evasion	Compromise	Integration
Zoll (1974):	Win-Lose	Yield-Lose	Lose-Leave	Compromise	Synergistic
Hall (1986):	Power-oriented	Suppression	Denial	Compromise	Integration
Simpson (1977):	Forcing, Competing	Accommodating	Avoiding	Compromising	Collaborating
Thomas-Killmann (1974):	Power, Dominance	Smoothing Over	Denial or Withdrawal	Compromise/Negotiation	Collaboration
Hart (1981):	I win, you lose	You win, I lose	I lose, you lose	We both win/lose some	I win, you win
Various:					
Related Interpersonal or Managerial Style:	High Self, Low People Authoritarian 9,1 High Assertiveness, Low Responsiveness Controlling-Taking	Low Self, High People Permissive 1,9 Low Assertiveness, High Responsiveness Supporting-Giving	Low Self, Low People Non-Managerial 1,1 Low Assertiveness, Low Responsiveness Conserving-Holding	Med. Self, Med. People Mid-Road/Consultive 5,5 Med'm Assertiveness, Med'm Responsiveness Compromising	High Self, High People Participative/Team/"Y" 9,9 High Assertiveness, High Responsiveness Adapting-Dealing
Description	Self-oriented; Impose solutions, Suppress symptoms	People-oriented	Unengaged	Balanced, fair	Proactive conflict management; rational problem solving deals with causes, helps cooperation
Objective	Get one's way	Not upset other person	Not have to deal with it	Reach agreement quickly	Resolve problem together
Posture	I know what's right; don't question my judgment or authority.	What can I do so as to maintain good feelings between us?	I'm neutral. Don't get me involved.	Let's find a mutually agreeable solution.	Let's explore situation, compare our positions, and remedy the underlying causes.
Rationale	Better to risk hard feelings than back down	Top priority should be harmonious relationship	Disagreements bad because cause tension	Conflicts hurt performance and feelings	Both parties must contribute to quality, fair solutions
Likely outcomes	Hurts those involved; superficial resolution; creates bitterness, resentment, hostility; causes flare up again	Other person can take advantage of you; causes remain to flare up again	Conflicts not resolved	Usually get expedient rather than effective solutions	Get greater commitment to mutually-formulated, more effective solutions

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Table 6.9: Relationships Among the Managerial Process, Personal Goal Setting and Planning, the Analytic Approach to Problem Solving, the Learning Process, and the Conflict Resolution Process

	Managerial / Integrative Process	Personal Motivation (Goal Setting & Planning)	Problem Solving & * Conflict Resolution *	Learning Process
	Preparation Steps	Preparation Steps	Preparation Steps	Preparation Steps
What has happened, or what is going on —and why?	Analyze Situation (including evaluation of past results and performance)	Analyze (SELF) Analyze personal characteristics and behavior. Analyze (interactions with) the environment.	Analyze Situation Systems of possibly causal or influential factors/variables and their interrelationships creating conflict	Analyze Situation What should learn/develop; Factors affecting learning; Possible principles, modes, and methods use
What needs to be done, or what might be done —and how?	Set Goals and Plan Set Goals: what accomplish Formulate Plans (how to): Strategies and tactics, programs and projects, action plans Budget resources	Set Goals and Plan Set Goals: what accomplish Formulate Plans (how to): alternatives involving: Strategies and Tactics, Programs and Projects, Action Plans Budget resources	Formulate Solutions Set Goals: what accomplish Formulate Plans for Implementing Solution(s): Strategies and Tactics, Programs and Projects, Action Plans Budget resources	Formulate Plans Set goals: what learn Formulate learning plans: Strategies, tactics, and action plans that apply appropriate <i>principles</i> , <i>modes</i> , and <i>methods of learning</i> Budget resources
What course of action should be taken?	Make Decision(s) Analytically test, compare, and select among alternative [sets of] goals, plans, budgets, policies, and procedures	Make Decision(s) Analytically test, compare, and select among alternative [sets of] goals and plans	Make Decision(s) Analytically test, compare, and select among the alternatives	Make Decision(s) Analytically test, compare, and select among alternative [sets of] goals, plans, budgets, etc.
Take action; do something	Implement Plans to: Organize Staff Guide, coordinate activity Guide control processes	Implement Plans to: Reach life goals Obtain & evaluate feedback Revise plans as approp.	Implement Chosen Solutions Obtain & evaluate feedback Revise solutions as approp.	Implement Learning Plan Learn information and ideas, develop skills, modify attitudes and behavior Reinforce what learned

Concluding Remarks

Understanding why and how individuals interact goes a long way toward improving interpersonal relationships in families, organizations, and public settings in general. This chapter has covered many frames of reference in order to help improve social relationships by increasing students', parents', teachers', managers', and leaders' social insight and interpersonal awareness and sensitivity.

Relationships With Other Methods and Processes

Previous chapters have concluded with tables illustrating important relationships among personal goal setting and planning, the managerial/leadership process, problem solving, and learning. When performed most effectively, they have all involved the analytic approach to problem solving.

As shown in *Table 6.9* (page 6-45), the same can be done here. Resolving interpersonal conflicts, and also attempting to improve relationships, both involve the analytic approach—i.e., analyzing the situation, formulating alternatives, and decision making. In fact, as pointed out before, during the process, learning is occurring.

So again, these processes are interrelated, and when performed well, are also interdependent. This means that they can all be used in an integrated or “synergistic” manner, with each contributing to the effectiveness of the others.

Note on the Following Addendum: In several of our books and seminars we cover the process through which children become socialized. In the Addendum at the end of this chapter we provide an abbreviated version of that discussion. It is particularly meant to be read, understood, and used by parents. However, we recommend to young adults that, in order to understand more about themselves and the process of their development, they read it, also.

Note on the Next Chapter: In order for people to analyze, plan, solve problems, make decisions, implement action plans, and interact effectively, they must communicate well as they interact with others.

While better communication skills involve greater interpersonal awareness, sensitivity, and understanding, they also involve a knowledge of and ability to utilize communication concepts, principles, methods, and practices. Therefore, Chapter 7 describes a methodology for further developing communication skills.

(Intentionally left blank)

Figure 6.8: Aspects of, and Processes Involved In, the Socialization Process
 (Ages and Time Frames are Approximate)

