CHAPTER FOURTEEN

Perspectives on
Interpersonal Relations

INTRODUCTION

What This Chapter Is About

An MD/OD program should cover many perspectives, principles, and skills in order to 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; (g) further develop their interpersonal capabilities; and (h) be able to relate people, tools, technologies, and processes in their work environment. All of these insights and abilities 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* (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 on the job are relative to where you are, where you work, and with whom you work. Attitudes and behavior that are appropriate in one region, country, city, organization, or unit may not be functional elsewhere.

Thus, it is very important that managers, supervisors, and leaders become (a) more knowledgeable about people's interpersonal motivations and behaviors, (b) more aware of those motivations and behaviors, (c) more inclined to behave amicably and cooperatively toward others, and (d) more skilled at interacting effectively with the people in their environment. This chapter is aimed at helping them do all of these.

Developing interpersonal knowledge and skills improves social interactions and helps everyone do the following: (a) get along better; (b) cope more successfully with their lives and environments; (c) better fulfill their own and others' needs; and (d) increase their own and others'

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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.

As in the case of managerial styles (or any other subject area), there are many frames of reference for describing and explaining interpersonal behavior and its many aspects. This chapter surveys a number of frames of reference that have been put forth over the years.

The first of the chapter's five main sections 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.

The second section describes three evolutionary phases of relationships: initial contact (initiation or approach); relationship formation or development; and relationship maintenance. The coverage of these phases also discusses levels of personal traits that are functional and dysfunctional for developing and maintaining relationships.

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

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

The fifth section discusses interpersonal conflicts. It describes their symptoms, types, and causes, and then discusses several conflict resolution approaches (styles).

What Consultants, Trainers, and Facilitators Can Get Out of This Chapter

How can individuals improve their interpersonal skills? That simple yet profound question is the focus of this chapter.

After studying this chapter, consultants, trainers, and facilitators should be able to help participants

- Analyze the ways in which they interact with other people
- Identify ways that interpersonal interactions can be enhanced throughout the organization
- Establish policies and procedures that will further develop interpersonal skills on a continuing basis

What Practicing Managers, Participants, or Students Can Get Out of This Chapter

What can help improve interpersonal relationships within groups and entire organizations? Greater social insight, greater interpersonal sensitivity, and more functional interpersonal behavior—all topics covered in this chapter.

After studying and discussing this chapter, the student or seminar participant should be able to

- Better understand themselves, others, and their relationships with others
- Demonstrate greater sensitivity toward and concern for others' needs and feelings
- More effectively interact and communicate with others

- Gain greater insight into and be better able to resolve interpersonal problems
- More effectively improve or further develop his or her own interpersonal knowledge, attitudes, skills, behavior, and interactions (for example, skills and attitudes such as social awareness and insight, interpersonal sensitivity, empathy, understanding, and interpersonal tolerance)
- More effectively improve or further develop subordinates' interpersonal knowledge and understanding, attitudes, skills, behavior, and interactions
- More effectively participate in dealing with personal and nonpersonal socio-technical factors that are exerting dysfunctional influences on interpersonal attitudes, behavior, and interactions throughout the organization
- Better apply interpersonal practices and behaviors that will reinforce developmental efforts throughout an organization
- Better guide and contribute to the improvement of inter- and intradepartmental relations by helping subordinates and others identify possible sources of conflict and how to deal with them

How Instructors and Participants Can Use the CD-ROM's Supplementary Materials

The accompanying CD-ROM contains these materials for Chapter Fourteen:

- *Chapter Fourteen Study Guide*. This class or seminar session preparation guide should be completed by students and seminar participants in preparation for training sessions and superior-subordinates discussion and OD sessions.
- *Examples of Double Standards*. This list of double standards can be used during class or seminar sessions and the superior-subordinates sessions at the end of Part Four (Module 4) to identify dysfunctional attitudes within work groups, units, or the organization that need changing or improving.
- *Social Norms Worksheet*. This list can be used during class or seminar sessions and the superior-subordinates sessions to identify dysfunctional work group, unit, or organization-wide social norms that need to be replaced with more positive norms chosen by the group.
- *Quotations on Interpersonal Relations*

BASIC PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS THAT INFLUENCE OR RELATE TO INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR

Basic Needs or Drives

These are the most basic needs or drives that prompt individuals to interact with others:

Social needs. The most obvious basic needs underlying people's formation and maintenance of relationships are the social needs identified by Maslow (1943, 1954). These include the needs to associate with others, to obtain their approval or acceptance, to belong, and to give and receive friendship or love. The "need for affiliation" identified by McClelland (1961, 1987) can be equated with these needs.

Physiological needs. Although we must fulfill our most basic physiological or self-preservation needs, we cannot provide for all these needs on our own. We must depend on and interact with people in other roles or occupations in order to provide ourselves with, for example, food, water, clothing, and medical care.

Safety needs. To protect ourselves and our families from physical harm, danger, attack, illness, and deprivation, we seek safety in numbers. We group together in tribes, clans, small communities, neighborhoods, and even nation-states for mutual protection.

Ego needs. Ego needs include Maslow's self-esteem, identity, or self-image needs (for example, the needs for knowledge, competence, independence, achievement, self-respect, and power or influence). The needs for power and achievement identified by McClelland (1961, 1987) can be associated with self-esteem needs. Maslow's "reputation needs" include status, recognition, prestige, and others' respect and admiration.

Although we are motivated to form one-on-one and group relationships for many reasons, we do so largely in order to reinforce, enhance, or protect our own ego or self-image. Why? We form relationships because for the most part, we are who we are relative to other people. Interactions and relationships with individuals and social groups are vehicles that enable us to compare ourselves with others and to form and then maintain our self-image or identity. Also, associating with others can enable us to feel important, gain acceptance, receive attention, feel secure, and assert power or influence. Unfortunately, ego fulfillment is a two-edged sword. On the positive side, ego is largely responsible for our formation of relationships and for our initiative, hard work, creativity, and pride in our accomplishments. On the negative side, however, it is also responsible for most of our interpersonal problems, many of which have implications for societal and international problems. The reason is very basic to human nature: we often enhance our own ego or self-image by putting others down in order to make ourselves feel more OK or superior in some respect relative to others.

Self-actualization needs. In order to develop our potentials to the fullest and become what we have the potential to become, we must interact with others. We must be taught, shown, guided, assisted, and supported by parents, husbands, wives, religious leaders, friends, coaches, mentors, bosses, subordinates, coworkers, customers, suppliers, professionals in various fields, and others.

Thus, we all depend on other people—either individuals or groups—for the fulfillment of basic needs and attainment of personal goals.

Need-Related Psychological Phenomena

The following subsections discuss what people fear, what hurts them, what makes them feel good, and the mechanisms they use in social contexts to protect and enhance their ego or self-image.

What People Fear. When asked what they and other people fear, students and seminar participants usually give very similar responses. Fears that relate to *physiological and safety needs* include (a) becoming seriously ill; (b) being physically harmed; (c) the unknown (unknown dangers); (d) losing a job (and the steady income that allows one to provide for personal and family needs); and (e) death. Fears that relate to *social and ego needs* include (a) not being liked or loved; (b) being avoided or left out; (c) being embarrassed or losing face (for example, appearing to be incompetent, weak, or wrong; losing one's status in a group; losing one's reputation;

losing one's job; not being the person promoted; or having other people witness one's weaknesses or transgressions); (d) the unknown (for example, not knowing what another person expects of you; not knowing how someone really feels about you; and not knowing what is going on that might affect you); (e) not being able to influence what is happening to you; and (f) being psychologically hurt by someone.

What Hurts People Psychologically. When students and seminar participants are asked what others could do to hurt them psychologically, they give many of the responses listed in the left-hand column of Table 14.1. These behaviors are all forms of negative feedback, which are also called "aversive stimuli," "negative strokes," and "cold pricklies." They tend to diminish one's self-esteem and sense of personal worth, thereby negatively affecting one group of basic needs—ego needs.

Ego Defense Mechanisms. When most of us experience negative feedback, we use various psychological defense mechanisms to protect our identity or self-image. Figure 14.1 illustrates the following ego defense mechanisms:

Suppression: Attempting to hide a personal weakness or failure from others or trying to keep others from finding out that one has made a mistake or has caused a problem.

Denial: Denying—to either oneself or others—that one has made a mistake, has a problem, or has caused a problem.

Projection: Blaming others for a mistake or problem or attributing to others the same weaknesses and shortcomings that one finds in oneself. Another form of this mechanism involves "wearing a mask" and displaying or projecting what we want others to see in us— for example, our strengths rather than our weaknesses and vulnerabilities.

The preceding defense mechanisms constitute our first line of defense against negative feedback. The next nine mechanisms constitute our second line of defense. They come into play when we must acknowledge our weaknesses, mistakes, wrongs, or problems and then come to terms with the psycho-emotional consequences within ourselves.

Rationalization: Justifying one's shortcomings, mistakes, or problems with reasons (excuses) that help keep one's self-image intact

Compensation: Engaging in alternative activities in which one is more capable of being successful and generating self-image-reinforcing positive feedback

Sublimation: Unconsciously blocking psychologically painful experiences from rising to the level of conscious awareness

Repression: Consciously pushing negative emotions and thoughts out of one's mind

Fantasy: Substituting daydreams for reality (that is, dreamily thinking about things being the way one wishes they could be)

Regression: Reverting to behavior patterns involved in more ego-satisfying situations or circumstances of the past (for example, regressing to childlike behavior)

Identification: Identifying or associating with those who appear more successful, liked, respected, or admired than oneself

Aggression: Taking out one's frustration, anxiety, resentment, or anger on other people

Undoing: Trying to right the wrong or doing penance by causing personal suffering to oneself

Table 14.1. 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, Reinforcers, Positive Strokes, "Warm Fuzzies")
1. Not being liked	1. Being liked, shown friendship
2. Not being understood or accepted	2. Being understood, appreciated, or accepted
3. Not receiving approval or affection	3. Receiving approval or affection
4. Not being respected	4. Being shown respect
5. Not being trusted	5. Being shown trust or confidence
6. Not being included or involved	6. Being included or invited to participate
7. Not being allowed to express oneself	7. Being allowed to express one's thoughts or feelings
8. Not being listened to	8. Being listened to
9. Having ideas or opinions questioned, disbelieved, argued with, or rejected	9. Having one's ideas or opinions acknowledged, accepted, and fairly considered (if not agreed with)
10. Being treated coldly or impersonally	10. Being treated warmly and considerately
11. Being treated discourteously	11. Being treated with respect or courtesy
12. Not being given time or attention	12. Being given time and attention
13. Being ignored (not having one's presence acknowledged)	13. Having one's presence acknowledged
14. Being avoided	14. Being sought out or approached
15. Being rejected or scorned	15. Being approved of or accepted
16. Receiving insincere flattery	16. Receiving a sincere compliment
17. Being criticized	17. Being praised, recognized, or complimented
18. Being blamed or made to feel guilty	18. Not being blamed; having mistakes understood
19. Not having one's efforts acknowledged	19. Having one's efforts acknowledged or appreciated
20. Not being thanked	20. Being thanked; having an act reciprocated
21. Being teased, poked fun at	21. Being shown sensitivity or respect
22. Being treated contemptuously or disdainfully (being insulted, called names, or the subject of sarcasm)	22. Receiving deference, respect, or consideration
23. Being reprimanded or punished (for making a mistake or causing a problem)	23. Having mistakes or problems discussed honestly, tactfully, and constructively
24. Being reminded of past mistakes	24. Having mistakes forgiven and forgotten
25. Having one's weaknesses pointed out or emphasized	25. Having weaknesses accepted, tolerated, or excused
26. Having one's strengths be unacknowledged or ridiculed	26. Having strengths acknowledged or emphasized
27. Being put on (made to look foolish)	27. Being made to look competent or sensible
28. Being lied to	28. Being told the truth
29. Being deceived, cheated, taken, or conned	29. Being dealt with honestly and fairly
30. Being manipulated or used	30. Being treated as trustworthy or depended on as a group member
31. Being intimidated or threatened	31. Being treated conscientiously or unthreateningly
32. Being gossiped about	32. Being spoken well of (behind one's back)
33. Having a promise broken	33. Having promises (to one) kept
34. Being betrayed	34. Being shown loyalty; having one's confidences kept
35. Not being supported or backed up	35. Being supported or backed up
36. Being stereotyped	36. Having one's individuality acknowledged or accepted
37. Being condescended to	37. Being treated as an equal
38. Being the subject of a double standard	38. Being treated equally, justly, and fairly
39. Being physically mistreated or abused	39. Being made physically comfortable or secure
40. Not being given privacy	40. Being given privacy (personal time and space)
41. Having one's possessions mistreated, damaged, or stolen	41. Having one's possessions treated considerately
42. Not having desired status or role conferred	42. Having desired status or role conferred
43. Not having one's status or role acknowledged	43. Having one's status or role acknowledged
44. Having one's status decreased or withdrawn	44. Having one's status increased or re-conferred
45. Having one's role withdrawn	45. Having one's role re-conferred
46. Being ostracized (from a group)	46. Being accepted into or reinstated by a group
47. Being excessively directed (by a superior)	47. Being instructed, supported, or guided
48. Being helped	48. Being asked for help or guidance
49. Not being informed (not being told what's going on)	49. Being kept informed (being in on what's happening)
50. Not being given cooperation	50. Being given cooperation or assistance
51. Being the subject of revenge	51. Being forgiven
52. Having any of the preceding actions done to loved ones	52. Having loved ones treated with respect or kindness

**Ego Enhancement
Measures**

Functional
Personal development
Association
Self-expression
Problem solving
Striving
Behaving maturely

Dysfunctional
Identifying
Criticizing, blaming
Dominating, intimidating
Creating dependency
Manipulating, using
Unfairly outcompeting
Engaging in one-upmanship
Applying double standards
Hurting

Ego

Mask

Armor

**Second-Line Defense
Mechanisms**

Rationalization
Compensation
Sublimation
Repression
Fantasy
Regression
Identification
Aggression
Undoing

Shield

Hurtful ego defense
Hurtful ego enhancement

Deliver
positive
or
negative
strokes

**First-Line
Defense
Mechanisms**
Suppression
Denial
Projection

Approach

Avoid
Escape
Withdraw

Sword
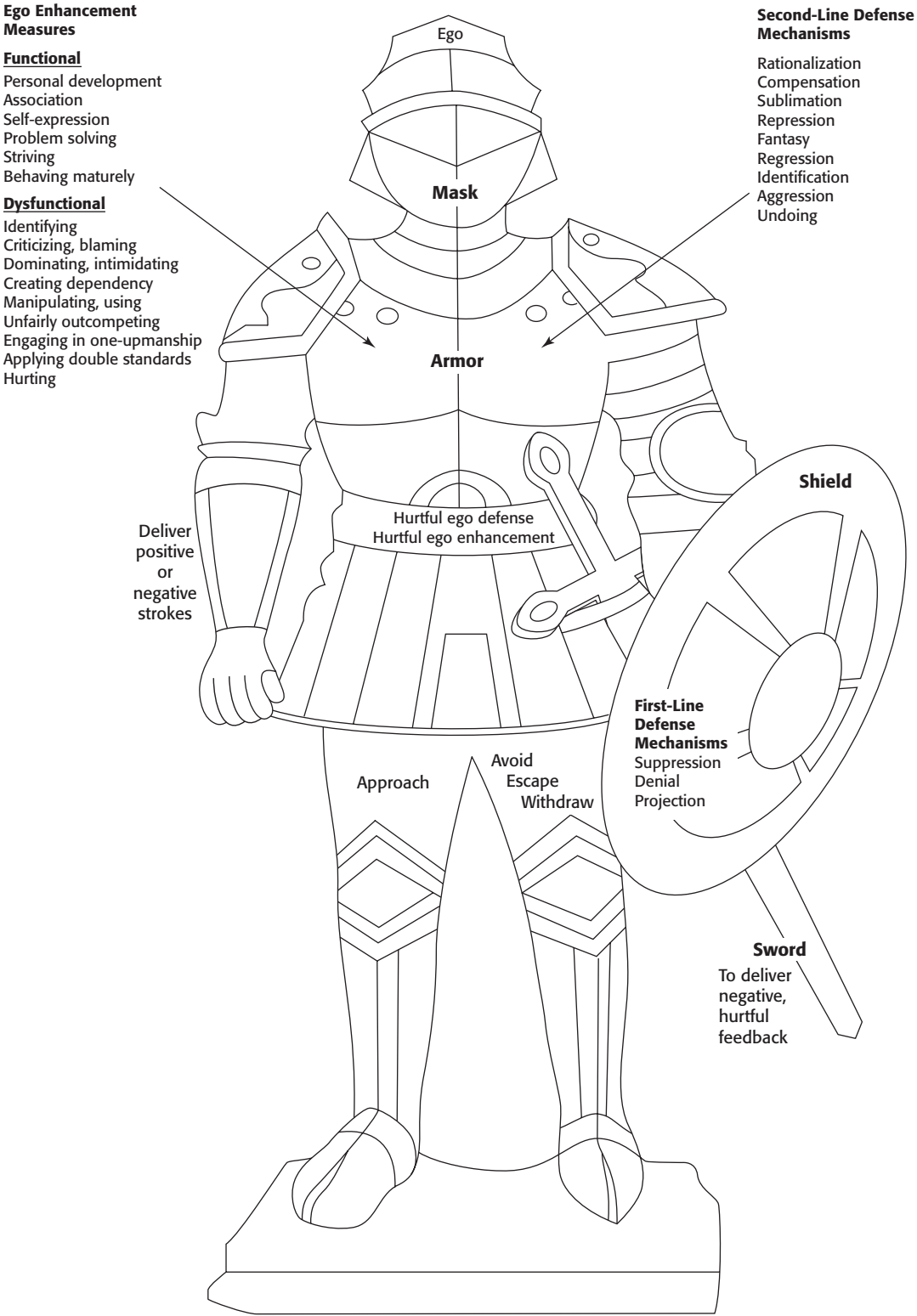To deliver
negative,
hurtful
feedback

Figure 14.1. Interaction "Apparel"

As shown in Figure 14.1, these mechanisms are the shields we use and the armor we wear to protect our ego. For this reason, learning and using these mechanisms has been called *armoring* by psychologists and sociologists. Although we tend to use defense mechanisms subconsciously rather than consciously, we all use them. However, using them frequently can indicate that an individual (a) is not coping well with the environment; (b) is experiencing psychologically traumatic problems or situations; (c) is not receiving adequate support and positive feedback from others; (d) has a very unhealthy self-image; or (e) may need professional help.

What Makes People Feel Good Psychologically. As one might expect, the things that make us feel good psychologically are just the opposite of the things that hurt us psychologically. These behaviors are listed in the right-hand column of Table 14.1. They are all forms of positive feedback, which are also called "reinforcers," "positive strokes," and "warm fuzzies." Experiencing positive feedback generates physical or psychological pleasure in emotion centers of the brain. In turn, pleasure tends to (a) build up one's ego (that is, reinforce or enhance one's identity, self-image, sense of personal worth, and sense of having a good reputation); (b) reinforce positive attitudes toward the activity or situation just experienced; and (c) reinforce the behavior pattern just used.

Dysfunctional Ego Enhancement Measures. Once we have established an initial identity or self-image, we not only begin to protect it by using defense mechanisms but also begin to enhance and reinforce it. We use various measures (shown in Figure 14.1) to bring about or give ourselves positive feedback.

The following are some negative or dysfunctional measures that many people use. They are aimed at what we call "self-superiorization" (self-elevation or self-exaltation). In general, they enhance one's own ego at the expense of other people's feelings and egos. Thus, their use is considered dysfunctional for social relationships and should be avoided.

Identifying: Identifying or associating with those who appear to be more successful, respected, admired, or liked than oneself. (Although this usually does no harm to others, it does not necessarily result in personal development and an improved ability to cope.)

Criticizing, ridiculing, blaming: Putting other people down in order to put oneself up (feel superior to others in some respect).

Dominating, intimidating: Using power, authority, or influence in order to control others and feel superior to them (as an authoritarian boss, spouse, or parent might do).

Creating dependency: Causing others to become financially, emotionally, or otherwise dependent on you, so that you can control and feel superior to them.

Manipulating, using: Manipulating, using, or otherwise taking advantage of others in order to feel more powerful, competent, shrewd, or successful than they are.

Unfairly outcompeting others: Becoming more successful than others by deceiving them, obstructing their activities, undermining their efforts, subverting their relationships, or otherwise unfairly putting them at a disadvantage.

Engaging in one-upmanship: Talking about having something more or better than another person has (whether or not one actually does)—for example, a better-paying job, a larger house, a fancier or faster car, a higher score, travel to more places, more knowledge or

experience, more skill, more power or influence, a greater number of friends, or more important acquaintances.

Applying double standards: Applying different standards to oneself than one applies to others in order to make oneself come out ahead in some respect.

Hurting others: Consciously or unconsciously hurting people in other ways mentioned in Table 14.1, in order to feel superior to them (less vulnerable than them) or to get even for being wronged by them.

Functional Ego Enhancement Measures. Using dysfunctional ego enhancement measures causes many interpersonal problems and conflicts. There are much more positive and constructive ways to enhance and reinforce one's ego. Since the following measures generally do little if any harm to others, we believe that they should be emphasized by everyone.

Personal development: Acquiring or developing the knowledge, attitudes, and capabilities that enable one to cope successfully with life and one's environment, become more self-actualized, and behave in a less egocentric (self-centered) manner.

Association: Associating with those who can contribute to one's personal development and are inclined to be understanding, respectful, helpful, benevolent, and supportive.

Creative or innovative self-expression: Expressing one's thoughts, ideas, or feelings in constructive, creative, innovative ways; also, "giving birth" to an idea, insight, or concept.

Planning and problem solving: Preventing problems through effective planning, confronting them when they do arise, and immediately taking effective steps to solve them (so that they will not get worse, recur, or cause additional problems).

Striving to achieve or succeed fairly and ethically: Putting forth maximum effort and using one's skills to the fullest (in a fair, responsible, nonmanipulative manner) in order to be successful or to achieve something worthwhile.

Behaving maturely: Behaving conscientiously, unselfishly, respectfully, benevolently, tolerantly, developmentally, and supportively toward others. (Treating others maturely generates positive, ego-enhancing feedback from others.)

Values That Relate to Interpersonal Behavior

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

Valued Matters. Table 10.1 defines the "valued matters" on the Study of Values psychological measurement instrument by Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey (1960a) and by Kopelman, Rovenpor, and Allport (2002). Chapter Ten discusses how these values can influence managerial style tendencies indicated on The Managerial Target®. People who are more self-oriented are higher in the economic, political, and achievement values. On the other hand, people who are higher in the more people-oriented social (altruistic) value 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

six interpersonal values: leadership, recognition, benevolence, support, conformity, and independence. These values are also defined in Table 10.1. Each of these values (concerns) 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 a 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 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 various 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 the 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. 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.

Ego States and Associated Life Positions

Relationships between people involve 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. Role patterns consist of learned attitudes and behavior patterns 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 healthy self-image, a strong identity, 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: (a) I'm OK, you're not OK; (b) I'm not OK, you're OK; (c) I'm not OK, you're not OK; and (d) I'm OK, you're OK.

Parent, child, and adult ego states, several substates, and their associated life positions are shown on a familiar grid framework in Figure 14.2. 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
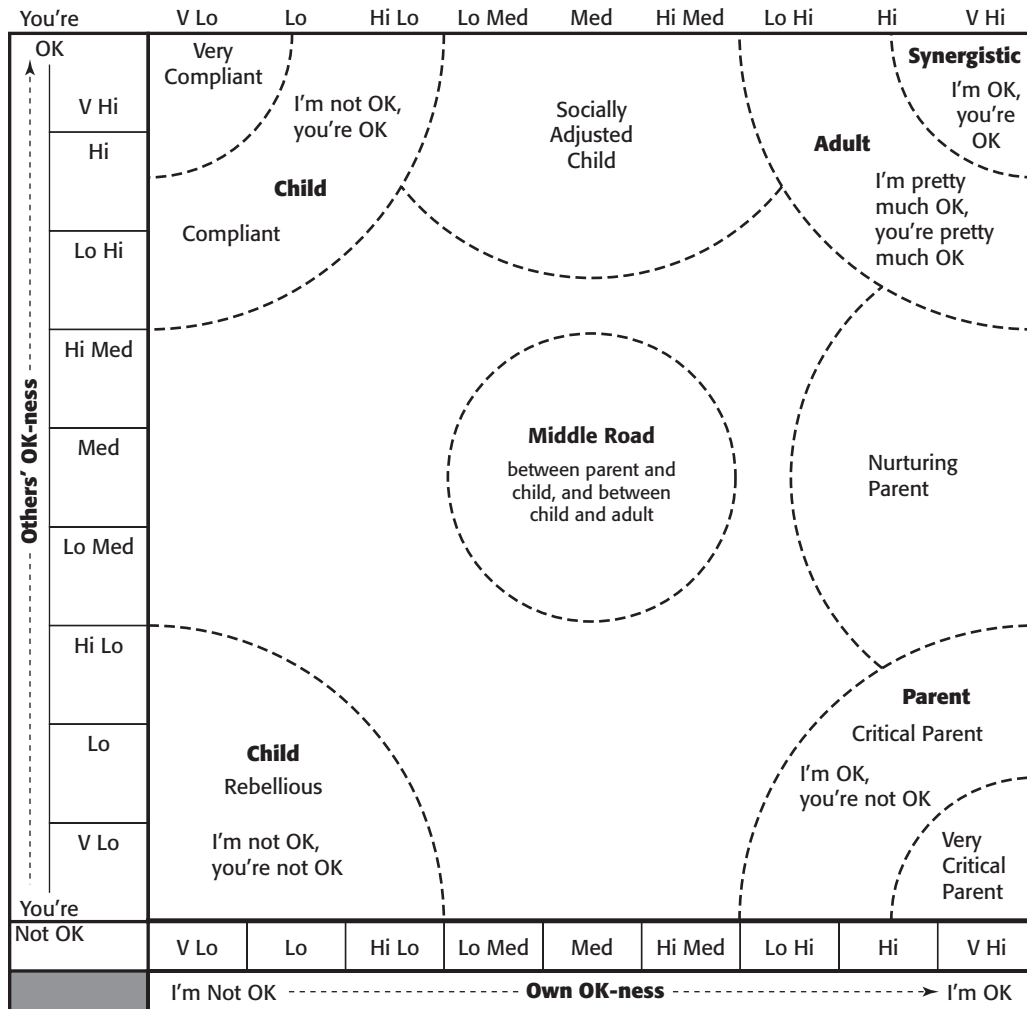
Figure 14.2. Parent, Adult, and Child Ego States and Related Life Positions

associated life position is 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.

Students and seminar participants 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 14.2. 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 some 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 and others have identified two parent substates: *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. 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 Figure 14.2 and Table 14.2, the critical parent substate 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 Figure 14.2 and Table 14.2, 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 substates 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 substates 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 Figure 14.2 and Table 14.2 that the adult state has been redefined 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. Their managerial or leadership style tends to be somewhere between middle-of-the-road (medium task, medium people or consultive) and participative (high task, high people).

Synergistic ego state. Abe Wagner (1981, 1999) defined the synergistic state as an overlapping P-A-C combination of ego states. He described it as 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 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 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 rather 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 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." As managers or

Table 14.2. Ego States, Related Life Positions, and Associated Characteristics and Styles

EGO STATE	PARENT			ADULT
	Evaluative, emotional. Behavior is based on learned concepts of good and bad, right and wrong, and normal and abnormal, which are seen in black-and-white terms. Emphasizes do's and don'ts, shoulds and shouldn'ts.			Rational, nonjudgmental, self-controlled. Acts after considering values, different sides of an issue, alternatives, trade-offs, consequences, and probabilities. Mentally mature; rather socially mature.
Substate	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. Directive and controlling (autocratic, authoritarian).		Emotional, evaluative, but more understanding and caring. Sets limits, provides direction. Does not put people down. 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.	I'm fairly OK, you're fairly OK.
Significant traits*	**High to very high** Self-confidence Dominance Decisiveness **Low to very low** Social and benevolence values Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Self-control Original thinking	**Relatively high to high** **Relatively low to low**	**Relatively high to high** Self-confidence Dominance Decisiveness **Medium to high medium** Social and benevolence values Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Self-control Original thinking	**Relatively high** Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Original thinking Achievement value Economic and political values Social and benevolence values Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Self-control
Interpersonal dimensions*	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	Rather active Rather equal Rather interdependent Rather disclosing Rather open Fairly intimate Rather collaborative Rather stable Moderates conflict
Interpersonal Style Tendency (in this ego state)	High Self-centeredness Low People-orientedness	Relatively High Self-centeredness Relatively Low People-orientedness	High Self orientation, Medium People orientation	Relatively High Self orientation, relatively High People orientation
Managerial or leadership style tendency (of an adult in this ego state)	Autocratic; Hard X Very High Task, Very Low People	Authoritarian; Theory X Relatively High Task, Relatively Low People	Soft X to Middle-of-the-road Relatively High Task, Medium People	Middle-of-the-road to Team Medium to High Task, Medium to High People

*Estimated ranges of levels

leaders, they are the ones most inclined to be participative, developmental, team-oriented, Theory Y, or "high task, high people."

In concluding this discussion of personal traits, it should be pointed out again that some rather broad generalizations have been made in this chapter. In reality, behavior is not just a function

Table 14.2. (*Continued*)

CHILD				SYNERGISTIC
Emotional, irrational; impulsive, spontaneous; dependent.				Mature, functional, well-developed and well-adjusted personality. Good-natured, amiable. Consistently behaves in ways that reflect 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; interdependent; socially adjusted and affiliative; fairly self-controlled; enjoys people and life.	
I'm OK (maybe); 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.
Low ranges Social and benevolence values Conformity Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Responsibility Self-control Original thinking	**Low Ranges** Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Economic, political values **Relatively high to very high** Dependence Need for support Conformity Social and benevolence values Social conscientiousness Self-Control	**Low ranges** Conformity Benevolence Self-confidence Social conscientiousness Responsibility Adaptability Social maturity Emotional stability Self-control	**Relatively high to very high** Sociability **High medium to high** Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Benevolence Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Emotional stability Self-control	**Relatively high to high** Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Social conscientiousness Benevolence Responsibility Adaptability Social maturity Original thinking Emotional stability Self-control
Active One up; sometimes one down Wants independence Low disclosure Hidden expectations Feigns intimacy Competitive Emotional Generates conflict	**Passive** One down status Dependent Relatively low disclosure Rather hidden expectations Rather distant Noncompetitive Emotional Avoids conflict	**Mostly passive** High 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 collaborative 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: High Self, Low People when possible; otherwise Low Self, Low People	Medium Self orientation, High People orientation	High Self orientation, High People orientation
Tends to be Theory X when feels "more OK" and dominant; otherwise is somewhat permissive	Tends to be permissive (LT,HP) but can be X when feels "more OK" and is in a dominant role	Autocrat or authoritarian when in a dominant position but nonmanager when not	Paternalistic when in dominant position; somewhat permissive when not	Synergistic High Task orientation, High People orientation

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.

The next four major sections deal with broader patterns of interpersonal behavior: the formation of relationships; interpersonal styles; social group behavior; and interpersonal conflicts.

THE INITIATION, DEVELOPMENT, AND MAINTENANCE PHASES OF RELATIONSHIPS

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. We will discuss these phenomena in more detail later in the chapter.

The Phases of Relationships

Relationships may pass through several phases: the initial interaction or approach phase; the relationship formation or development phase; and the relationship maintenance phase. Many relationships, however, do not pass through all three phases. Some never get beyond the initial interaction or approach stage. Some never fully develop. And some, even though they do become more fully developed, are not maintained over time.

Initial Interaction or Approach 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.

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 relationships that develop as both persons develop 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 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.

"Interaction Apparel" Worn by Approachers

Especially during initial 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 illustrated in Figure 14.1 on page 317.

Both people are wearing armor, and both are carrying a shield in the left hand. The armor and shield represent *defense mechanisms,* which they use to defend their ego, identity, self-image, and reputation against negative feedback (negative interactions or strokes). 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-upmanship; 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.

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 14.1. 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.

As a relationship begins to develop, 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. If negative feedback occurs during this process, it can stop or even reverse the back-and-forth behavior-response scenario.

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 will primarily deal with the traits necessary for successfully developing and maintaining close, mature relationships.

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); (b) 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 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, before discussing how personal characteristics tend to influence relationships, environmental influences must be discussed.

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. 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. Interdependencies 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 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 communication 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
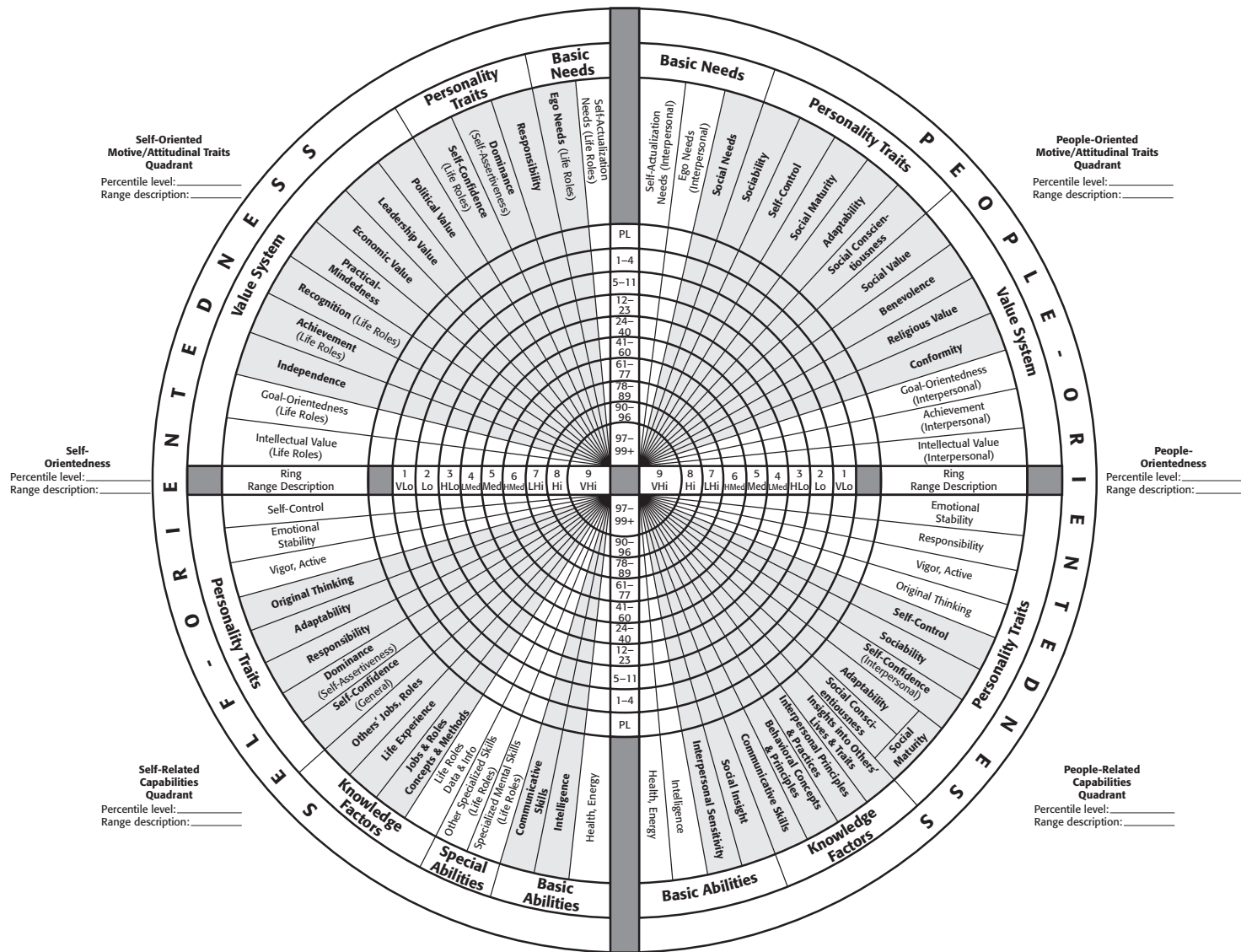
Figure 14.3. The Interpersonal Target™ (Expanded Version)

Note: Key motive/attitudinal traits and special capabilities are shown in bold and their wedges are shaded.

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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.

INTERPERSONAL STYLES ON THE INTERPERSONAL TARGET

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. As discussed in Chapter Ten, some 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 10.1, by evaluating one's levels of these personal characteristics honestly, and by using psychological assessment scores when possible, one should be able to develop very useful and important insights into how and why one behaves toward others as one does.

The Interpersonal Target™ in Figure 14.3, helps describe interpersonal styles in the terms just listed. Since its design is almost exactly like that of The Managerial Target, the reader should already be familiar with (a) the basic concepts that underlie its design, (b) the four basic groupings of traits shown on it, (c) how to prepare it for interpretation, and (d) how to interpret what it indicates about an individual's tendency to use a particular interpersonal style. Figure 14.4 shows various distinctive styles on a grid framework.

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. His or her nature, in turn, is underlain by 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. Notice in Figure 14.3 that the terms *self-oriented* and *self-related* have been
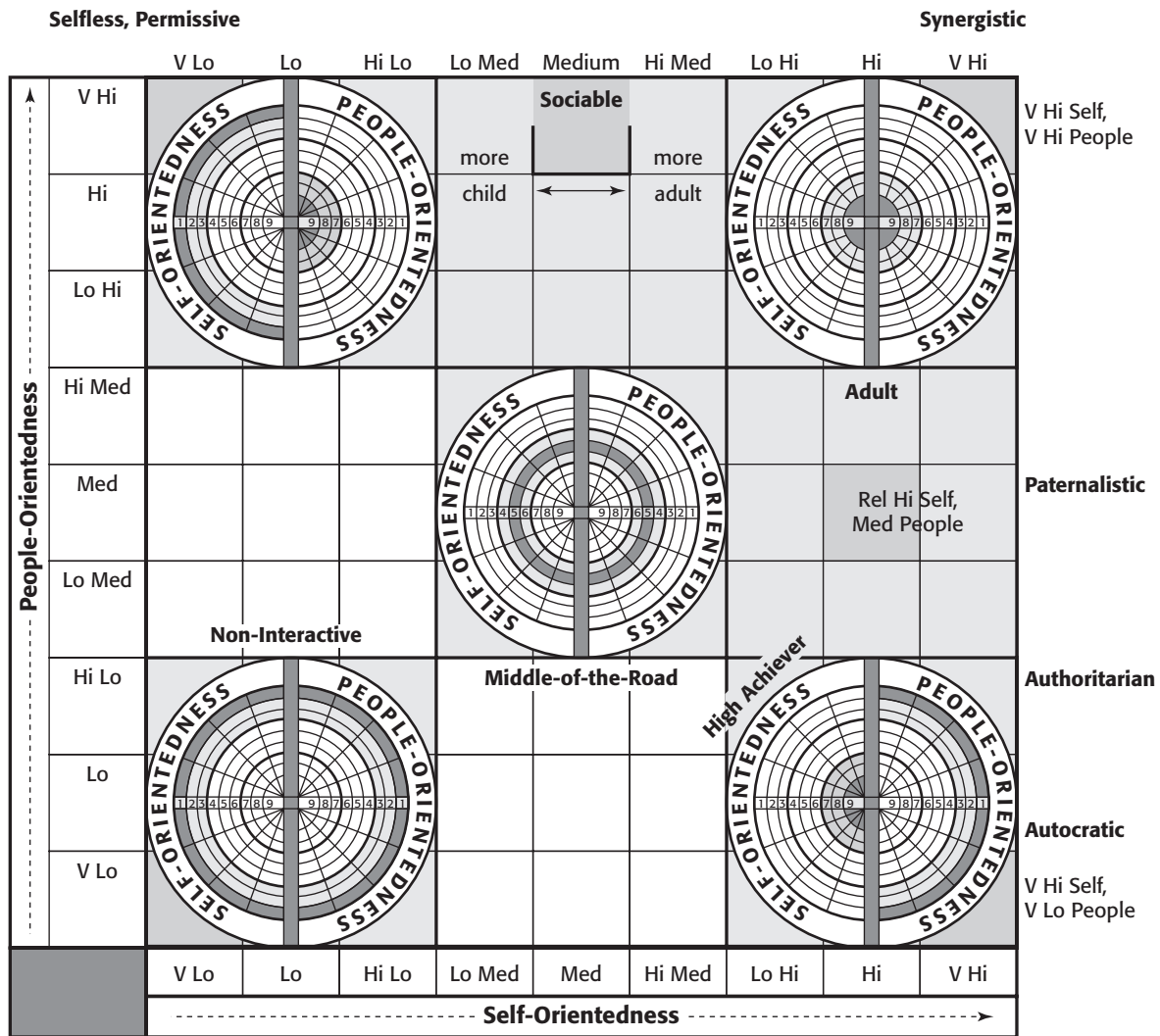
Figure 14.4. Distinctive Interpersonal Styles on a Grid Framework

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substituted for the terms *task-oriented* and *task-related* on The Managerial Target. Also notice that some characteristics on the earlier model have been replaced with more appropriate characteristics.

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 and sharing 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:

The *self-oriented motive/attitudinal traits* are shown in the top left quadrant. To calculate the traits' weighted average level, give each shaded trait a weight of 5 and each unshaded trait a weight of 1. The total of the weights in this quadrant is 58.

The *self-related capabilities* are shown in the bottom left quadrant. Give each shaded trait a weight of 2 and each unshaded trait a weight of 1. The total of the weights in this quadrant is 27.

The *people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits* are shown in the top right quadrant. Motive/attitudinal traits are weighted as before: each shaded trait is given a weight of 5, the others a weight of 1. The total of the weights in this quadrant is 55.

The *people-related capabilities* are shown in the bottom right quadrant. Capabilities are weighted as before: each shaded trait receives a weight of 2, and each unshaded trait receives a weight of 1. The total of the weights in this quadrant is 28.

To calculate an estimated level of self-orientedness, give the motive/attitudinal traits quadrant a weight of 2 and the capabilities quadrant a weight of 1. Follow the same procedure to calculate an estimated level of people-orientedness in the right hemisphere.

The reasons for designing The Interpersonal Target to account for the influences of both motives and capabilities are the same as those outlined on pages 215–217 in regard to The Managerial Target.

Several distinctive styles—and many styles in between—can be explained with this model. They can also be described using a grid framework, which, as shown in Figure 14.4, illustrates the various styles in terms of points at which particular levels of self- and people-orientedness intersect. (Note the similarities with Figure 14.2.) 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.

Table 14.3 describes several interpersonal styles in the terms described 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 do not discuss interpersonal styles further here, because the major ones can be directly associated with managerial styles already discussed in Chapter Ten. As in the case of The Managerial Target, it should be kept in mind that while the "distinctive styles" described in Table 14.3 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 these styles. 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.

Table 14.3. Distinctive Interpersonal Styles and Related Traits and Behavior

STYLE	SELF-CENTERED, UTILITARIAN		ACHIEVEMENT-ORIENTED	PATERNALISTIC
Self-orientedness	Autocratic	Authoritarian		Nurturing
People-orientedness	Very High Self, Very Low People	Relatively High Self, Relatively Low People	High Self, Low to Medium People	High Self, Medium People
Other names for style	High assertiveness, low responsiveness; controlling, taking; competitive; dominant-hostile; win-lose		High assertiveness, medium to low responsiveness	High assertiveness, medium responsiveness
Description of individual	Dominator, user, exploiter, taker, competitor, results seeker, driver, disciplinarian, blamer, attacker, dictator, controller; superior, self-centered, selfish, emotional, evaluative, judgmental, suspicious, aggressive, hostile, vindictive, macho, conservative		Achiever, thinker, innovator; creative, rational, preoccu-pied, somewhat distant, somewhat judgmental and temperamental	Self-assertive, but understanding, caring, supportive, and fairly benevolent; somewhat evaluative and judgmental
Ego state(s) Ego centers on . . .	Very critical parent	Critical parent	Part adult, part critical parent Knowledge and skills	Nurturing parent Others being like self
	Power, authority, influence over others			
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*	**High to very high**	**Relatively high to high**	**Relatively high to very high**	**Relatively high to high**
	Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Economic and political values Decisiveness		Achievement value Self-confidence Original thinking Goal-orientedness	Self-confidence Dominance Decisiveness
	Low to very low	**Relatively low to low**	**Low to medium**	**Low medium to high medium**
	Social and benevolence values Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Self-control Original thinking		Social and benevolence values Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Sociability	Social and benev-olence values Social conscientiousness 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 Medium disclosure Somewhat open Somewhat distant Competitive Somewhat stable Can generate 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 maintainer of close, mature relationships.		Most are superficial, some close. Fair developer and maintainer.	Some superficial, some close. Good developer and maintainer.
Managerial or leadership style tendency	Hard X (9,1) Very High Task, Very Low People	Theory X Relatively High Task, Relatively Low People	Somewhat X Relatively High Task, Low to Medium People	Soft X to middle-of-the-road Relatively High Task, Medium People

Table 14.3. (*Continued*)

PEOPLE-ORIENTED, PERMISSIVE		SOCIABLE	SYNERGISTIC	
Very Permissive	**Relatively Permissive**	**Affiliative**	**Very Adult, Rel Syn**	**Synergistic**
Very Low Self, Very High People	**Relatively Low Self, Relatively High People**	**Medium Self, High People**	**Relatively High Self, Relatively High People**	**Very High Self, Very High People**
Low assertiveness, high responsiveness; supporting-giving; accommodating; submissive-warm; yield-lose		Medium assertiveness, high responsiveness	High assertiveness, high responsiveness Adapting-dealing; participative; assertive-warm; win-win	
Pleaser, supporter, giver, accommodator, suppressor, yielder, follower; amiable, emotional, warm, responsive, insecure, dependent, submissive, highly socialized, conformant, altruistic, benevolent, protective, conscientious, shy, liberal, agreeable, helpful, caring		Warm, amiable, responsive, affiliative, associative, personable, supportive, adaptable, adjusted, happy	Coper, self-actualizer, thinker, communicator, achiever, developer, team player, team 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.
High to very high	**Relatively high to high**	**Relatively high to very high**	**Relatively high to high**	**High to very high**
Social and benevolence values Religious value (usually but not always) Dependence Needs for support and approval Conformity Social conscientiousness Self-control		Sociability **High average to high** Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Social conscientiousness 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	
Low to very low	**Relatively low to low**			
Social self-confidence Self-assertiveness Economic and political values				
Passive in initiative One down in status Dependent Rather low disclosure Rather hidden expectations Rather distant (wants intimate) Noncompetitive 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 developer and maintainer.	Many acquaintances; select number of close, mature relationships. Very good developer, best maintainer.	
Permissive (1,9); Very Low Task, Very High People	Permissive tendency, but can be authoritarian	Fairly permissive Medium Task, High People	Synergistic; team; participative (9,9); Y Relatively High Task, Relatively High People	High Task, High People

Table 14.3. Distinctive Interpersonal Styles and Related Traits and Behavior (*Continued*)

STYLE	MIDDLE-OF-THE-ROAD		NON-INTERACTIVE	
	Mid-Road	**Rather Adult**	**Withdrawn**	**Defeated**
Self-orientedness **People-orientedness**	**Medium Self, Medium People**	**Above average Self, Above average People**	**Very Low Self, Very Low People**	**Relatively Low Self, Very Low People**
Other names for style	Medium assertiveness, medium responsiveness Conserving-holding	Above average assertiveness, above average responsiveness Win some, lose some	Low assertiveness, low responsiveness Submissive-hostile; noncoping; 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, withdrawn, apathetic, indecisive, evasive, pessimistic; does not cope well with others or life in general; fears criticism and rejection	
Ego state(s)	Between critical parent and compliant child	Between nurturing parent and adjusted child	Very put-down, compliant child	Rebellious child (when "one down" and unable to 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 not OK.	I'm somewhat OK, you're not OK.
Significant traits*	**Low medium to medium**	**Medium to high medium**	**Relatively low to very low** Self-confidence Dominance Sociability Adaptability Social maturity Emotional stability	
	Self-confidence Self-assertiveness Social and benevolence values Economic and political values Social conscientiousness Adaptability Social maturity Original thinking Responsibility Emotional stability Self-control			**Rather low** Conformity Benevolence Social conscientiousness 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 Noncompetitive Emotional Generally avoids conflict	
Description of individual's relationships	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-of-the-road (5,5) Medium Task, Medium People		Nonmanager (1,1) or nonleader	Nonmanager (when feels less OK and can't be in control)

*Estimated ranges of levels

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BEHAVIOR IN SOCIAL GROUPS

This major section 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 tend to form as a result of one of two basic processes: 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 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 or office 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 work group 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 members) by growth" and "an agreement to join." It also connotes a mutual attraction between people that is somewhat like the attraction between similar molecules that 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 (the nucleus) may grow through further adhesion as initial members invite other friends to participate in their activities and associate with them. 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 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. Those who function to implement and maintain the group's norms or who possess high levels of the group's valued characteristics tend to be group leaders.

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. Group leaders are likely to be followed because of their high degree of work-related expertise.

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 sociable 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 group 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 *interunit contacts,* facilitating communication between the group and other groups to which their friends belong.

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. Group norms are attitudes, expectations, and rules about what members should or should not do under various 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; (b) 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; (c) how to maintain the group's identity or image vis-à-vis other individuals and groups; and (d) 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 middle management norm is to withhold bad news from one's superiors. In some research and development (R&D) management groups, the norm is "If you've got power, don't flaunt it," whereas in many operations management groups, it might be "If you've got the power, use it." In many organizational 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. (A number of dysfunctional norms and underlying attitudes are listed on the Social Norms Worksheet on the CD-ROM.)

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 newer 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 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 14.1.

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 the 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 14.1.

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 outsider's 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 members and outsiders without anyone being consciously aware of them. Thus, 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 individual'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 individual 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 group members and the individual, 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, the available modes of communication, the 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) that are 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 the 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 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, for example, by 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 example, 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 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.

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 another form of problem solving—include (a) planning, problem-solving, and decision-making methodology (the analytic approach) and (b) the possible causal factors to consider (factors discussed in Chapters Eight through Twelve and in this chapter with regard to worker, managerial, interpersonal, and social group behavior).

Symptoms of Interpersonal Conflicts

Table 14.4 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 14.1.

Types of Interpersonal Conflicts

Conflicts can be categorized in various ways. In the left column of Table 14.5, 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 14.5 indicates that conflicts can also be typed in terms of symptomatic behavior. (The four groups come from the right column of Table 14.4.) 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 14.5, conflicts in organizations can be caused by many socio-technical factors. Actually, the two columns are an abbreviated version of the checklist of socio-technical factors in Table 3.1 on page 52. 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 organizational structure or job 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-related factors. Many organizational conflicts stem from differences between different individuals' or groups' tasks. The following example, which involves a difference between two units' "time span to outputs or results" (or time orientation), is one we often see 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 soon as possible. The difference in time orientations often causes scheduling problems and friction between marketing and production personnel. Here is another example: Personnel in a particular operations department have manual and physical skills, only a high school education, and relatively low organizational status. On the other hand,

Table 14.4. Symptoms of Interpersonal Conflicts

INDIVIDUAL SYMPTOMS	NEGATIVE OR DYSFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOR TOWARD OTHERS
Negative Emotions 1. Unwarranted fears and insecurities 2. Excessive self-doubt, blame, or criticism 3. Tension, anxiety, or stress 4. Depression or despair 5. Suspicion or paranoia 6. Resentfulness 7. Anger, hostility, or antagonism **Defense Mechanisms** 1. Suppression 2. Denial 3. Projection 4. Rationalization 5. Compensation 6. Sublimation 7. Repression 8. Fantasy 9. Identification 10. Regression 11. Aggression 12. Undoing **Negative or Dysfunctional Behavior or Phenomena** 1. Confusion or disorientedness 2. Inattention or wandering attention 3. Aimless behavior 4. Keeping feelings bottled up (within oneself) 5. Difficulty expressing thoughts or feelings 6. Avoiding contact with others 7. Excessive submissiveness (giving in) 8. Restlessness 9. Fatigue or lethargy 10. Irritability 11. Insensitivity or 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 or actions 18. Vengeful thoughts or actions 19. Self-destructive thoughts or actions 20. Decreased performance	**Active, Direct Behavior (Verbal)** 1. Treating others coldly or impersonally 2. Treating others insensitively or discourteously 3. Not allowing others to express themselves 4. Questioning, disbelieving, arguing with, or rejecting others' ideas or opinions 5. Ridiculing or insulting others; calling them names 6. Criticizing or blaming others; backbiting 7. Verbally reprimanding or punishing others 8. Reminding others of past mistakes or failures 9. Pointing out or emphasizing others' weaknesses 10. Making others look foolish 11. Stereotyping others 12. Condescending to others 13. Excessively directing others 14. Excessively helping others 15. Lying to, deceiving, or cheating others 16. Manipulating or using others 17. Betraying another's confidence 18. Breaking promises to others 19. Gossiping about others 20. Intimidating or threatening others 21. Rejecting or scorning others **Active, Direct Behavior (Physical)** 1. Physically mistreating or abusing others 2. Physically punishing others 3. Physically attacking others **Passive, Direct Behavior** 1. Not showing trust in others 2. Not showing respect for others 3. Not giving others approval or affection 4. Not empathizing or sympathizing with others 5. Not including or involving others 6. Not acknowledging others' efforts 7. Not thanking others for a kindness 8. Ignoring others; not giving them time or attention 9. Avoiding others 10. Not listening to others 11. Not supporting or backing up others 12. Not cooperating with others 13. Not informing others of what's going on **Active, Indirect Behavior** 1. Mistreating others' possessions 2. Mistreating others' loved ones

Table 14.5. Types and Causes of Interpersonal Conflicts

TYPES		SOURCES OR CAUSES	
CONTEXT **(Where / Who)**	**BEHAVIORAL** **PHENOMENA**	**INDIVIDUAL (PERSONAL)** **Differences or Similarities**	**NONPERSONAL** **Factors or Phenomena**

Family, Home
 	
Spouses or partners
 	
Parent, child
 	
Siblings
 	
Relatives
 	
Organizational,
Workplace
 	
Superior, subordinate
 	
Colleagues, coworkers
  Intradepartmental
  Interdepartmental
 	
Management, union
 	
Social
 	
Acquaintances
 	
Close friends
 	
Group members
 	
Other or Outside Contexts
 	
Neighbors
 	
Customer, sales or service
  person
 	
Supplier, customer
 	
Users of a service
 	
People in proximity
	Symptomatic Behavior
	
	(see Table 14.4)
	
	Active, direct (verbal)
	
	Active, direct
	(physical)
	
	Passive, direct
	
	Active, indirect
	
	Seriousness, Importance
	
	Minor
	Usually short-term
	Have minor consequences
	  for parties or others
	  involved
	
	Major
	Deeply rooted
	Highly emotional
	Longer-term
	Have potentially serious
	  consequences for
	  parties or others
	  involved
		General Characteristics
		
		Needs, drives
		
		Basic values
		(of generation)
		
		Specific values
		  Valued matters
		  Interpersonal values
		  Coping values
		
		Work motivation
		
		Personality traits
		
		Knowledge (education,
		  training, and experience)
		
		Interests
		
		Socioeconomic
		  background
		
		Learned role patterns
		  (and ego states)
		
		Life or career stage
		
		Personal goals
		
		General type of person
		
		Coping skills
		
		Interpersonal Traits
		and Dimensions
		
		Approach, involvement
		Motivation
		
		Relationship expectations
		
		Interpersonal dimensions
		Interpersonal skills
		Interpersonal style
			General Roles
			
			Husband, wife
			Parent, child
			Superior, subordinate
			
			Job- or Role-Related
			Factors
			
			Complexity or skill
			  requirements
			Status, prestige
			Definability, prescribability
			Amount and frequency of
			  change
			Certainty of information
			  used
			Objectives
			Time span to outputs or
			  results
			Nature of outputs or
			  results
			Occupational type
			
			Social Factors
			
			Roles, status
			Group norms and sanctions
			
			Organizational Variables
			
			Structure
			Spans of control
			Territories, power, authority
			Line and staff
			  responsibilities
			Managerial styles
			Natures of jobs
			Nature of organization
			Resources (limitations)
			Job security
			
			Environmental Factors
			
			Economy
			Competition
			Technology
			Rate of change
			Population density
			Societal norms

Table 14.6. Conflict Resolution Styles or Approaches

Style or approach					
Zoll (1974)	Domination	Suppression	Compromise	Evasion	Integration
Hall (1986)	Win-lose	Yield-lose	Compromise	Lose-leave	Synergistic
Simpson (1977)	Power-oriented	Suppression	Compromise	Denial	Integration
Thomas and Kilmann (1974)	Forcing, competing	Accommodating	Compromising	Avoiding	Collaborating
Hart (1981)	Power, dominance	Smoothing over	Compromise, negotiation	Denial or withdrawal	Collaboration
Various	I win, you lose	You win, I lose	We both win some and lose some	I lose, you lose	I win, you win
Related managerial or leadership style	**Authoritarian, X** High Task, Low People 9,1 High assertiveness, low responsiveness Controlling-taking	**Permissive** Low Task, High People 1,9 Low assertiveness, high responsiveness Supporting-giving	**Middle-of-the-road, consultive** Medium Task, Medium People 5,5 Medium assertiveness, medium responsiveness Compromising	**Nonmanagerial** Low Task, Low People 1,1 Low assertiveness, low responsiveness Conserving-holding	**Participative, team, Y** High Task, High People 9,9 High assertiveness, high responsiveness Adapting-dealing
Description	Self-oriented; impose solutions, suppress symptoms	People-oriented	Balanced, fair	Unengaged	Proactive conflict management; rational problem solving deals with causes, helps cooperation
Objective	To get one's way	To not upset other person	To reach agreement quickly	To not have to deal with it	To resolve problem together
Posture	I know what's right; don't question my judgment or authority.	What can I do to maintain good feelings between us?	Let's find a mutually agreeable solution.	I'm neutral; don't get me involved.	Let's explore the situation, compare our positions, and remedy the underlying causes of conflict.
Rationale	It's better to risk hard feelings than to back down.	The top priority should be a harmonious relationship.	Conflicts hurt performance and feelings.	Disagreements are bad because they cause tension.	Both parties must contribute to quality and fair solutions.
Likely outcomes	Hurts those involved; creates bitterness, resentment, hostility; superficial resolution, so causes flare up again	Other person may take advantage; causes remain and eventually flare up again.	Expedient rather than effective solutions	Conflicts are not resolved.	Greater commitment to mutually formulated, more effective solutions

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 when 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. 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 socio-technical factors), formulating possible solutions to deal with the causes, and then choosing the most appropriate solutions. Although the analytic approach should be common to all conflict resolution situations, those 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 the managerial process and a problem-solving process, 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, non-threatening, 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 themselves might take to help deal with nonpersonal causes and any personal causes they may have voluntarily identified.

Managers' Conflict Resolution Styles

Table 14.6 describes the conflict resolution behavior identified by Zoll (1974), Hall (1986), Simpson (1977), Thomas and Kilmann (1974), and Hart (1981) in a bit more detail than Table 8.3, which describes five managerial styles. (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 14.6

can be associated with the five distinctive managerial styles in Table 8.3. Note also that of the five conflict resolution styles, the most participative is used by participative managers, whose objective is "to resolve [the] problem together."

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Understanding how and why individuals interact goes a long way toward improving interactions in organizations. This chapter has covered many frames of reference in order to help increase managers' social insight and interpersonal awareness and sensitivity. But personnel cannot just stand around, looking at each other. They must develop the think-work skills that also enable them to think and behave more effectively. Furthermore, in order to analyze, plan, solve problems, make decisions, and implement action plans effectively, they must communicate well. While better communication skills do involve greater interpersonal awareness, sensitivity, and understanding, they also involve a knowledge of and ability to apply communication concepts, principles, methods, and practices. As the concepts are applied and practiced, communication skills improve. Chapter Fifteen will address these concepts of effective communication.