

Management 623: Team and Group Dynamics

University of Redlands

School of Business

Management of Arts in Management Program

Curriculum for the Course

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Guidelines for Creating Effective Groups

#1 —→ establish clear, operational relevant group goals that create positive interdependence and high level of commitment from members; groups exist for a reason; members must understand how to achieve the goals (operational); relevant to the member's needs so they commit themselves to the goals.

#2 —→ group members must communicate with each other to coordinate their efforts; need to establish an effective, two way communication within which members communicate their ideas and feelings accurately and clearly; members must send and receive messages effectively in order to exchange information and transmit meaning; barriers to open and accurate communication such as competition among members must be minimized.

#3 —→ ensure that leadership and participation are distributed among all members; all group members are responsible for providing leadership; the equalization of participation and leadership ensures that all members are involved in the group's work; committed to implementing the group's decisions and satisfied with their membership; ensures that the resources of every member are fully utilized and increases the cohesiveness of the group.

#4 —→ ensure that the use of power is distributed among group members and that patterns of influence vary according to needs of the group as members strive to achieve their mutual goals; members power is based on expertise, ability and access to information and not on authority or personality characteristics; to implement this guideline there are two important principles: a) power exists in relationships and not in individuals and b) for power to be constructive the context in which it is used has to be cooperative; we also assume that power is inevitably exists in all relationships, the use of power is essential to all aspects of group functioning, the use of power is dynamic in that who is influencing whom and to what degree changes constantly as the group proceeds in working to achieve its goal, power is distributed among all group members.

#5 —→ match flexibly decision making procedures with the needs of the situation; there are different ways groups make decisions; there must be a balance between the availability of time and resources and the method of decision making used; another balance is between size and seriousness of the decision; the commitment needed to put it into practice; and the method used for making the decision; the most effective way of making a decision is usually by consensus; consensus promotes distributed participation, the equalization of power, productive controversy, cohesion, involvement and commitment.

#6 —→ group members engage in controversy by disagreeing and challenging each other's conclusions and reasoning; promoting creative decision making and problem solving; to make effective decisions members must present the best case possible for each major alternative course of action and subject all other alternatives to critical analysis; controversies promote involvement in the group's work, quality and creativity in decision making, and commitment to implementing the group's decisions.

#7 —→ for group members to face their conflicts of interest (conflicts resulting from incompatible needs, scarce resources and competition) and engage in problem solving which is called integrative negotiations; there are 5 strategies to manage conflicts of interests: a) withdrawal b)forcing distributive or win-lose negotiations c)smoothing d) compromise e) problem solving (integrative negotiations); the more effective a group the more frequently conflicts of interests will be valued for their constructive outcomes

Chapter 2: Experiential Learning

Experiential learning involves reflecting on one's experience to generate and continually update an action theory that guides the effectiveness of one's actions.

Procedural learning is a form of experiential learning:

Involves conceptually learning what a skill is and when to use it; practicing the skill and attaining mastery

Learning to implement group dynamics theory is an example.

Procedural Learning

- 1) understand the conceptual nature of skill
- 2) use the skill
- 3) get feedback on your performance of skill
- 4) use the skill again in a modified way; remove errors

It's the hand that drives the evolution of conceptual understanding

To understand you have to do. We need to integrate thought with action.

Knowing is not enough; we must apply. Willing is not enough; we must do.
Goethe

The hand is the cutting edge of the mind
Jacob Bronowski

Change and growth takes place when a person has risked himself and dares to become involved with experimenting with his own life.
Herbert Otto

Action Theory

A theory as to what actions are required to achieve a desired result in a given situation.

All theories have an if→ then formula

Our theories of action are normative → meaning they state what we ought to do to achieve certain results. All behavior is based on theories that connect our actions with certain consequences

Remember: an action is based on knowledge—knowledge we aren't always able to put into words.

Most of our action theories function automatically, we are rarely conscious of our assumed connections between actions and their consequences.

Steps for Action Theory

- 1) Take action based on one's current action theory
- 2) Implement revised action theory by taking modified action
- 3) Assess consequences and obtain feedback
- 4) Reflect on how effective actions were and reformulate/redefine the action theory

Principles for Action Theory

- 1) effective experiential learning affects the learner's cognitive structures, attitude and values, perceptions and behavioral patterns
- 2) people believe more in knowledge they have discovered themselves than in knowledge presented by others (a persona behaviorally validates or disproves a theory on their own; based on inquiry and discovery; you detect or invent your talents)
- 3) learning is more effective when it is an active rather than a passive process.
- 4) New action theories, attitudes and behavioral patterns cannot be accepted using a piecemeal approach; one's entire cognitive-affective behavioral system has to change (theories, attitudes and behavioral patterns are interconnected and they change as a whole and not as separate parts; a cognitive-affective behavioral system demands coherence, consistency, orderliness and simplicity; you cannot change a part of the system)
- 5) It takes more than information to change action theories, attitudes and behavioral patterns (it takes more than telling people to change; providing a rationale for change is not enough; information can generate someone's interest in learning more about the desired changes)
- 6) It takes more than firsthand experience to generate valid knowledge (in addition to understanding—there must be a theoretical system tested by experience and reflection on the meaning of experience)
- 7) Behavioral changes are temporary unless the action theories and attitudes underlying them are changed (for example—starting a weight loss program means the person has to make lifelong modifications; it has to be a change in attitudes and values to sustain change)
- 8) Perceptions of oneself and one's social environment must change before changes in action theories, attitudes and behavior can take place (it all begins with your perceptions; what you believe and how you feel; you must believe you are capable of the behavior)
- 9) The more supportive, accepting and caring the social environment the more free a person is to experiment with new behaviors, attitudes and action theories.
- 10) In order for changes in behavior patterns, attitudes and action theories to be permanent, both the person and the social environment have to change.
- 11) It is easier to change a person's action theories, attitudes and behavioral patterns in a group context than in an individual context (group members provide encouragement and validation)
- 12) A person accepts a new system of action theories, attitudes and behavioral patterns when he/she accepts membership in a new group. (new groups with new role definitions and expectations for group behavior are helpful tools for educational efforts)

Learning and Motivation

Lewin believed that one must be in control of their learning → you will succeed when you take as much responsibility for your own behavior.

To do this—consider the following:

- 1) you define your own goals
- 2) the goals are related to central needs and values
- 3) you define the path that leads to achieving the goal
- 4) the goal represents— a realistic aspiration for you; not too low but high enough to challenge you

Learning Group Skills

Steps for Learning Group Skills

- 1) understand why skill is important and how it can be of value to you
- 2) understand what the skills is, what component behaviors you have to engage in to perform the skill and when the skill is used
- 3) find situations in which you can practice the skill over and over again while a coach watches and offers you feedback.
- 4) assess how well the skill is being implemented
- 5) keep practicing until the skill feels real and it becomes an automatic habit pattern
- 6) load your practice toward success: set up small goals along the way to experience success
- 7) get friends to encourage you to use the skill
- 8) help others learn the skill

Role Playing:

vital training tool for mastering new skills; simulates real life situations; you set up imaginary setting where individuals are asked to adopt certain roles and act out a situation; it could change your attitudes and behavior

Chapter 3: Group Goals—Social Interdependence— and Trust

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What is a goal?

- 1) it is a guide for action
- 2) it motivates behavior (no goal—no motivation)
- 3) it provides the basis for resolving conflicts (conflicts resolved based on what members want to accomplish)
- 4) are prerequisites for assessment and evaluation (need to know what purpose of activity is)

Groups exist to achieve goals

A goal is an ideal; it's what people value; social interdependence relates us to goals.

Goals are not intellectual, cold or analytical.

They energize you—ignite the flame in you; provide a compelling vision for the members.

A vision is an ideal and unique image of the future; it enlists the emotions of group members and directs them toward coordinated efforts.

A vision binds members through an emotional commitment.

Group goals breathe life into hopes of group members and enable them to see exciting possibilities in their joint efforts.

Clarity of Goals: to clarify goals—make them specific, operational and workable; measurable, observable.

Unclear goals – symptoms include: group tension, distraction by side issues; failure to use good ideas; meetings useless

Operational Goals: these are specific steps to achievement and they are identifiable. These goals do the following:

- 1) generate communication among members
- 2) help guide the group in planning
- 3) help group select and organize resources and methods to work on tasks
- 4) help the group evaluate both group process and group product
- 5) if conflicts emerge- they are discussed rationally, analytically oriented process

Nonoperational Goals: when goals for which the specific steps are not discernable; not observable and ambiguous.

Social interdependence defines the ways in which goals of individuals are related.

Human beings must join together to achieve goals they can't achieve alone.

Social Interdependence is at the heart of all human interaction and cooperation is the heart of small group efforts.

Groups need to set goals that members commit themselves to cooperate in achieving.

We need:

- 1) operational goals and path to achieve them—measurable
- 2) positive interdependence (cooperation) must be structured among group members.

For both of these strategies to be achieved—we need trust.

The START Criteria:

Specific: goals must be specific so everyone understands; indicate what needs to be done next

Trackable & Measurable: members must determine the extent to which they have achieved the goals; goals must be operationalized so steps to achieving them are clear.

Achievable but Challenging: goals must be challenging enough so group has a 50/50 chance of achieving them; they must work hard and show sufficient teamwork.

Relevant: goals must be relevant to members' interests and interests of stakeholders in group; goals must be meaningful and members personally committed to achieving them.

Transfer: goals must be aimed at having members take what is learned and transfer it to other situations.

Group Goals & Level of Aspiration

Group goals reflect the level of aspiration of its members

Level of aspiration: the compromise between ideal goals and realistic expectations.

In general—people enter situations with an ideal outcome in mind but revise their goals upward after success and downward after failure.

As one gains experience—he/she revises their ideal expectations to match the reality of the situation.

Groups develop levels of aspiration.

Groups set goals that are optimistic and revise them based on the feedback received and performance.

If groups are characteristically over-optimistic what happens is the following:

- 1) the continued failure decreases morale
- 2) work enjoyment suffers
- 3) group efficiency decreases

Dealing with Hidden Agendas:

If members' goals are markedly different—then hidden agendas emerge typically.

Hidden Agendas are personal goals that are unknown to other members and are at cross-purposes with the dominant group goals.

Hidden agendas emerge in many groups and obviously hinder group performance.

We need to increase consensus among members.

To prevent hidden agendas from surfacing do the following:

- 1) when forming a group, discuss goals.
- 2) Identify quickly when problems emerge and do problem solving
- 3) Remember that hidden agendas should and should not be brought to the attention of members and resolved. It depends on the situation— you must evaluate the consequences of bringing it up versus not doing so. It depends on the damage it creates.
- 4) Do not scold or pressure group members when hidden agendas are recognized. They occur and they should be solved.
- 5) Evaluate the ability of the group to deal productively with the hidden agenda. As groups mature—they handle them better.

Characteristics of Effective Groups

- 1) the goals must be operationally defined and measurable; members need to know what each of them does
- 2) do group members see the goals as meaningful, relevant, realistic, acceptable and attainable
- 3) do the goals create positive interdependence among group members?
- 4) are the goals challenging enough and offer a moderate risk of failure?
- 5) how easily the goals can be modified and clarified
- 6) how long a group has to attain the goals

Research on cooperation generates 3 theories:

1) Cognitive-Developmental

Based on work of Piaget and Vygotsky---

Piaget proposed that individuals cooperate on the environment and as a result sociocognitive conflict emerges creating cognitive disequilibrium --- which results in perspective taking and more cognitive development.

Vygotsky proposes knowledge is social, constructed from cooperative efforts to learn, understand and solve problems.

2) Behavioral Theory

Behavioral theory states that productivity depends on group reinforcers and rewards. B.F. Skinner focused on group contingencies, Albert Bandura on imitation.

3) Social Interdependence Theory

Lewin's theory asserts that:

- a) the essence of a group is the interdependence among members created by common goals which makes the group a dynamic whole so that change in the state of any member changes the state of others members.
- b) an intrinsic state of tension within group members motivates movement toward the accomplishment of the desired common goals.
- c) It is the drive for goal accomplishment that motivates cooperative behavior and competitive behavior.

Social Interdependence exists when individuals share common goals and each individual's outcomes are affected by the actions of others.

Social Independence is when an individuals outcomes are unaffected by actions of another.

The premise with social interdependence is the type of interdependence structured in a situation determines how individuals interact with one another which determines the outcome.

So—if individual goals are positively interdependent their actions will tend to promote the success of others.

If an individuals goals are independent their actions will tend to have no effect on the success or failure of others.

Positive Interdependence: **cooperation**, when situation is structured so members goal achievements are positively correlated, members see that they can achieve their goals if and only if other members also reach their goals.

Negative Interdependence **competition**, when situation structured so members goal achievements are negatively correlated; each member perceives his or her goal, all others with whom he/she is competitively linked fail to achieve their goals; so now members seek an outcome that is personally beneficial but detrimental to others in group.

No Interdependence **individualistic**; when situation is structured so there is no correlation among members goal attainment; each individual sees that he/she can reach their goal regardless of whether other individuals attain or not attain their goals; members seek an outcome that is personally beneficial without concern for outcome of other members.

Interaction Patterns:

Positive Interdependence tends to result in promotive interaction.

Promotive interaction occurs as individuals encourage and facilitate each other's efforts to achieve group goals.

Promotive interaction is characterized by individuals doing the following:

- 1) providing each other with efficient and effective help
- 2) exchanging needed resources like information and materials
- 3) providing each other with feedback to improve performance; monitoring each others efforts
- 4) challenging each others conclusions and reasoning so promote curiosity, motivation to learn, higher quality decision making, insight into problems
- 5) advocating for the exertion of effort to achieve mutual goals
- 6) influencing each other's efforts to achieve group goals
- 7) acting in trusting and trustworthy ways
- 8) being motivated to strive for mutual benefit
- 9) having a moderate level of arousal characterized by low anxiety and stress
- 10) taking the perspective of others more accurately than being engaged in competitiveness or individualistic efforts; tolerance and assuming the views of others
- 11) processing how effectively group members are working together and cohesively; process loss occurs when fewer ideas and solutions and less effort is generated in group; process gain when occurs when interaction within groups generates greater efforts and more novel ideas and problem solutions

Outcomes of Social Interdependence

All human life is like mountain climbing --> human species has a cooperative imperative--> we desire and seek out opportunities to work jointly with others to achieve mutual goals.

We are attached to others through lifelines.

Variables affected by cooperation are:

- 1) effort exerted to achieve

willingness to take on difficult tasks and persist; high expectations for success; high incentive to achieve based on mutual benefit

high achievement and long term retention of what is learned

higher level reasoning; critical thinking; sorting out sense from non-sense; evaluating soundness of decisions

creative thinking; process gain occurs when new ideas, solutions are generated through group interaction; brainstorming also effective; priming is presenting a brainstormer with ideas related or unrelated to a person's experiences.

transfer of learning from situation to another

positive attitudes toward tasks being completed; cooperative efforts resulting in promoting positive attitudes

time on task; cooperators spend more time on task than did competitors

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Quality of Relationships

If one feels valued, loved, wanted and respected by others → this gives life meaning and purpose → and it is intimate relationships that create happiness.

Remember → research supports findings that cooperative effort compared to competitive and individualistic experiences → promoted considerable more liking among individuals.

Working cooperatively promoted creates far more positive relationships among diverse and heterogeneous individuals than does working competitively or individualistically.

Group cohesion is the mutual attraction among members of a group and the resulting desire to remain in the group.

Highly cohesive groups are characterized by greater ease in setting goals and achieving them and a greater susceptibility to being influenced by group members.

The more cohesive a group is → the more likely members will stay in the group, take part in group activities and try to recruit like minded members.

As cohesiveness increases → absenteeism and turnover decreases and commitment to group goals, personal responsibility to the group increases; willingness to take on tasks increases; motivation and persistence increases; satisfaction and morale increases; willingness to endure pain and frustration increases; willingness to talk and listen increases; commitment to one another's professional growth and success increases; and productivity increases.

Psychological Health, Self-Esteem and Social Competency

Psychological Health → the ability to develop, maintain and modify interdependent relationships with others to achieve goals Research shows that working cooperatively with peers valuing cooperation results in greater psychological health than does competing with peers or working independently.

Social competence related to psychological health → social skills, leadership, building and maintaining trust, effective communication, effective decisions, and managing conflicts tend to increase more with cooperative situations.

The higher the level of one's psychological pathology like anger, depression or anxiety → the less able he/she can develop and maintain caring relationships, be stable in relationships.

The more individuals care about one another → the more likely they will want to achieve goals together.

Cooperativeness is positively correlated with psychological health, such as emotional maturity, well adjusted social relations, strong personal identity, ability to cope with adversity, social competencies and basic trust, optimism.

Cooperative experiences promote higher self-esteem than does competitiveness. The person also feels worthwhile, capable, and others see them in positive ways.

Individualistic attitudes tend to be related to psychological pathology, emotional immaturity, social maladjustment, delinquency, self-alienation and self-rejection.

Self-acceptance is usually based on:

- 1) evaluating oneself favorably
- 2) internalizing mutual success

Conditions for Constructive Competition

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) if winning is relatively unimportant 2) all participants have a reasonable chance to win; if one believes he/she cannot win they may cheat or not try; avoid the challenge 3) the rules are clear and specific for winning | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) when cooperation is too costly, difficult or cumbersome because of lack of resources for cooperation to occur 2) the goal is important and relevant 3) participants expect to succeed in achieving goals 4) directions for completing tasks are clear and specific |
|---|--|

The Basic Components of Effective Cooperation include:

1) Positive Interdependence

Positive interdependence exists when one perceives that he/she is linked with others in a way that one cannot succeed unless they coordinate their efforts with others.

Group members have to maximize their own productivity and maximize the other group member's productivity.

- a) group membership is not enough--→ one must feel positive interdependence; knowing your performance affects others
- b) individuals achieve more under conditions of positive goal interdependence
- c) goal and reward interdependence seem to be additive
- d) working to achieve a reward and to avoid the loss of a reward produced higher achievement than individualistic efforts

Entitativity ---→ perception that a group is a unified and coherent whole in which members are bonded together; the stronger the interdependence (common goals, outcomes, communication) the greater the perceived entitativity.

2) Individual Accountability/Personal Responsibility

There may be tension between what a group member wants and the collective interest of the group.

Some members may want to ride on the coat tails of others. If a few members behave like this—then the group does not succeed in goal attainment.

Personal responsibility needs to emerge to prevent a free ride.

Responsibility Forces need to be created to increase personal responsibility and accountability: one needs to complete their share of the work and facilitate the work of other group members.

Responsibility forces increase when both group members and individual accountability exists.

Individual accountability exists when the performance of each individual member is assessed and results are given to the member and the group to compare against a standard of performance.

Remember---→ as the group gets larger and larger--→ members are less likely to see their personal contribution to the group as important to the group's chances of success. Members may communicate less frequently and this reduces the amount of information available to members in decision making; communication may be less truthful.

Social loafing increase as group size increases.

- 3) Social Skills
 - a) members need to have effective communication skills
 - b) resolve conflicts constructively
 - c) members must trust one another
 - d) accept and support each other

Social skills promotes higher achievement and build more positive relationships among members.

4) Group Processing

Effective group work is influenced by whether or not groups periodically reflect on how well they are functioning and plan to improve their work processes.

Group processing is reflecting on a group session to achieve the following:

- a) describe what members actions were helpful
- b) make decisions about what actions to continue or change

The purpose of group processing is to clarify and improve member's effectiveness in contributing to joint efforts to achieve the group's goals. Group processing can be given to individuals or the group.

Some research shows group processing with individuals was more effective than group processing with the whole group.

Individual feedback increased:

- a) achievement motivation
- b) actual achievement
- c) positive relationships among group members
- d) group members self-esteem
- e) group members positive attitudes toward the subject area

5) The Stability of Cooperation

Four conditions contribute to the stability of cooperation:

- a) group members must have a stake in their future interaction
- b) cooperators must be easily identifiable and the actions of each group member must be visible to all other group members
- c) group members need to emotionally identify with their groupmates
- d) group members must understand the value of reciprocity and be able and willing to reciprocate cooperation.

Developing and Maintaining Trust

An essential aspect of group effectiveness is developing and maintaining trust among group members.

The more they trust each other → the more effectively they can work together.

If trust is high → group members more openly share thoughts, feelings, reactions, information and ideas.

If trust is low → group members will be evasive, dishonest and inconsiderate in communication.

Trust is not a stable personality trait.

The crucial elements of trust are openness and sharing, acceptance, support and cooperative intentions.

Openness → sharing of information, ideas, thoughts, feelings reactions to issues in group

Sharing → offering materials and resources to others to help group achieve goals.

Acceptance → communicating high regard for another person and their contributions to the group's work.

Support → means you tell group member you recognize their strength and believe in their capabilities

Cooperative Intentions → expectations you will behave cooperatively; every group member will also cooperate to achieve group goals.

Interpersonal trust is built through risk and confirmation and is destroyed through risk and disconfirmation

Without risk there is no trust and the relationships among group members cannot move forward.

Here's how we build trust:

I take a risk and disclose my thoughts, feelings and reactions to another person.

The other person responds with acceptance, support and reciprocates my openness by disclosing their own thoughts and reactions to what I said.

Being Trusting and Trustworthy

The level of trust within a group is constantly changing based on the member's abilities to be trusting and trustworthy.

Trusting behavior is defined as the willingness to risk beneficial or harmful consequences by making oneself vulnerable to group members.

You have to self-disclose and being accepting and supportive to others.

Trustworthy behavior → the willingness to respond to another person's risk taking in a way that ensures the other person will experience beneficial consequences.

Remember → Accepting and supporting another group members contributions does not mean you agree with everything they say.

Acceptance → accepting others usually begins with acceptance of oneself.

It is the key to reducing anxiety and fears about being vulnerable.

If a group member doesn't feel accepted → the frequency and depth of participation in group will decrease.

Destroying Trust

Betraying someone can destroy trust.

It is very difficult to re-establish trust after it has been violated.

Distrust reduces commitment of group members to achieving goals, increases social loafing, increases competition and leads to destructive conflict.

Distrust emerges when group members use rejection, ridicule as a response to one's openness.

Making a joke at the expense of another person, laughing at a disclosure, moralizing about one's behavior results in losing trust among group members.

If you don't reciprocate → it can create distrust because the group member who disclosed feels vulnerable and overexposed.

Re-Establishing Trust After it's Broken

Guidelines for re-establishing trust include:

- 1) openly and consistently express cooperative intentions
- 2) apologize sincerely and immediately
- 3) increase positive outcome interdependence by creating cooperative goals for all members to join and achieve
- 4) increase resource interdependence so no one group member succeeds on their own
- 5) re-establish credibility by making certain actions match announced intentions.

Final Thoughts on Trust:

- 1) trust is very complex to understand
- 2) trust exists in relationships and not in someone's personality; trust occurs between people and not within people
- 3) trust is constantly changing as two people interact
- 4) trust is tough to build and easy to destroy
- 5) cooperation increases trust and competition decreases it; it is higher among collaborators than competitors
- 6) trust needs to be appropriate; never trusting and always trusting are inappropriate
- 7) being trustworthy is key to building and maintaining trust; the more accepting and supportive you are of others, the more likely they will disclose their thoughts and feelings to you.

Chapter 4: Communication Within Groups

We must examine two things here:

- 1) the pattern of group communication
- 2) variables that influence communication effectiveness

group communication is a pattern of interaction among members more than a specific set of skills among members

Small Group Communication

- 1) the communicator is the sender and one receiving is the receiver
- 2) sender encodes message by translating ideas, thoughts, feelings and intentions into message; message is any verbal or nonverbal symbol transmitted
- 3) sender transmits message to receiver
- 4) message sent through a channel; channel is any means of sending a message
- 5) the sender perceives any discernible response of the receivers—thus receiving feedback
- 6) the receiver decodes the message by interpreting its meaning
- 7) the receivers respond internally to this interpretation of the message
- 8) noise is any element that interferes with the communication process; it can be the senders attitude and the appropriateness of the language used; in the channel noise means traffic, static, speech problems like stammering, annoying mannerisms.

Interaction Analysis:

Bales' Equilibrium Theory

Effective groups must maintain a balance between task and socio-emotional activity.

If socio-emotional issues are not managed well—the resulting tension tends to inhibit the group's ability to achieve its goals.

Group communication: a message sent by one group member to one or more receivers with conscious intent of affecting the receiver's behavior.

Effective communication occurs among group members when the receivers interpret the sender's message in the same way the sender intended it.

Sending and Receiving Messages

- 1) clearly own your message by using first person singular pronouns like "I, me or My"
- 2) establish your credibility – you must be trustworthy, reliable as an information source, motivated to tell truth, warm and friendly, trustworthy, dynamic.
- 3) make your messages complete and specific, be clear
- 4) make your verbal and nonverbal messages congruent; smile if saying thank you
- 5) be redundant; send message more than once in a different medium like a picture; use nonverbal cues
- 6) ask for feedback about the way your message is being received
- 7) make the message appropriate to the receiver's frame of reference
- 8) describe your feelings by name, action, figure of speech; "I feel sad"
- 9) describe other's behavior without evaluating or interpreting; say "why do you keep interrupting me" rather than "you're a self-centered egoist who only wants to talk and not listen to others"

The receiver's skills

- 1) paraphrase accurately and nonevaluatively the content of the message and feelings of the sender; restate the sender's ideas and feelings in your own words.
- 2) Describe what you perceive to be the sender's feelings by tentatively identifying the perceived feelings without expressing approval or disapproval : "Is this what I understand you're saying"
- 3) Negotiate the meaning of the sender's message; state your interpretation of the message and negotiate with the sender until there is agreement as to the meaning of the message

Three levels to analyze interaction among group members:

- 1) relative frequency and length of communication acts like who talks, how often for how long
- 2) who communicates to whom
- 3) who triggers whom in what ways

Communication Networks

Communication networks are the representations of the acceptable paths of communication among members of a group.

Communication within a group needs to be arranged so that ideas, knowledge and information flows freely among members.

Communication networks influence the emergence of leadership, the development of organization, morale of group members and efficiency of problem solving.

Typically—morale of group is higher in decentralized (circle, open) communication networks than in centralized ones (chain, wheel)

If task is simple and requires collection of information, centralized network is more efficient; but when task is complex and requires analysis of information the decentralized networks are more efficient.

Communication Patterns in an Authority Hierarchy

In an authority hierarchy role requirements are established so different members perform different roles and there supervisors to ensure work gets done.

Types of Communication:

- 1) One-way communication: a group chairperson giving instructions to committee folks who pass the instructions to group members.
- 2) One-way with feedback communication chairperson presents message and group members give feedback on how well they understand it.
- 3) Two-way communication is a reciprocal process where each member may initiate messages and clarify other member's messages. Chairperson and group members freely exchange information.

Gatekeeper – person who translates and interprets messages, information and developments to group members.

Effects of the message of a one-way communication procedure

Three psychological processes characterize the simplification of a message:

- 1) leveling — receiver tends to reduce amount of information he/she receives by remembering less of the message than was presented by sender.
- 2) sharpening — receiver sharpens certain parts of the information so that a few sharp points are readily remembered; selective retaining and reporting of limited details from the larger context.
- 3) assimilation — receiver takes as much of message into his/her own frame of reference and personality; the interpretations and memories of what was heard are affected by the receiver's own thoughts and feelings.

Influences on effectiveness of group communication

If group members are working cooperatively—communication tends to be more frequent, open, complete, accurate and honest; misperceptions and misunderstandings occur less frequently; when they do occur they are easier to correct and clarify.

If group members compete with one another—communication tends to be either lacking or deliberately misleading; competition can give rise to espionage; competitors have a short time orientation, focus energies on winning and consider only their own interests; they are hostile and suspicious toward others and exploit others.

Physical influences can facilitate or block effective communication in group—environment can be stressful; too hot, cold or impersonal, too noisy or too many distractions. If room too hot—→ exhaustion and aggressiveness may emerge; noise distracts too. Consider the ventilation, acoustics of room, time of day, duration of meeting, lighting and temps of room.

Seating arrangements —→ how we sit can significantly influence on perceptions of status, patterns of participation, leadership activities and affective reactions Usually—we like to communicate with members facing us rather than being adjacent to us. Easy eye contact among members enhances frequency of interaction, friendliness, cooperativeness and liking for the group and its work.

Humor -→ important influence on effectiveness of group communication; promotes cohesiveness and reduces tension in groups; group leaders like to make disparaging humor are perceived to be more effective at relieving tension, better at encouraging participation,

Chapter 5: Leadership

Lead means to guide by influencing the destination and direction of the group.

A leader can influence others to be more effective in working to achieve mutual goals and maintain effective working relationships among members.

Leadership is the process through which leaders exert influence.

Leadership skills are your ability to help the group achieve its goals and maintain effective working relationships among members.

Trait → not only a personality attribute but includes motives, values, cognitive abilities, social and problem solving skills and expertise.

Traits may be stable across different situations while others may be situationally bound.

You are a leader in one situation— you may also emerge as a leader in a different situation.

Effective Leadership also includes:

- 1) persistence
- 2) tolerance for ambiguity
- 3) personal adjustment
- 4) sense of humor
- 5) drive
- 6) honesty
- 7) integrity
- 8) internal locus of control
- 9) social competence
- 10) achievement motivation
- 11) extroversion
- 12) cognitive ability

It's tough to measure charisma but these leaders have unusual powers of practical leadership; ability to communicate a powerful vision; have a mission; belief in social change movement; confidence in self.

Leadership matters — you can destroy people's lives or improve their lives through leadership.

What happened at Enron?

Leaders at Enron impoverished thousands of employees and stockholders, destroying their retirement accounts.

Trait Theories of Leadership

A unique aspect of extraordinary individuals whose actions and decisions are sometimes capable of radically changing the course of history; they transform society.

Attributes of Leaders

Rulers of foreign countries who had absolute power were classified as strong, weak or mediocre; based on their intellectual capacity, taking condition of their country into account was important and classified as prosperous or declining;

There was a correlation between the monarch's personalities and the state of the countries.

Strong, mediocre, and weak monarchs are associated with strong, mediocre and weak periods respectively.

Strong leaders helped their countries flourish.

Leadership is a relation that exists between persons and a social situation

Are traits fixed or do they evolve over time depending on the situation between leader and follower?

Sternberg identifies qualities of leadership such as synthesis of wisdom, intelligence and creativity as attributes that are modifiable and flexible, dynamic rather than fixed and static.

We can conclude traits are about a matter of degree in influencing the leader's effectiveness.

Charismatic Leaders → charisma is defined as extraordinary power such as working a miracle.

These leaders inspire others to be passionately devoted to them; they promise to deliver their followers from distress; they may be saviors; "I will make it safe for you"

Charisma doesn't seem related to one personality type.

Gandhi, Julius Caesar, George Washington, Alexander the Great: there personalities were different but they inspired confidence in their followers

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Machiavellianism → this type of leader consolidates power and maintains it to rule; lived between 1469-1527 who wrote *The Prince* which advised rulers to be crafty, cunning to increase power and success

Machiavellian leaders believe:

- 1) people are weak
- 2) gullible and fallible
- 3) not trustworthy
- 4) people treated as objects
- 5) should manipulate others to achieve your ends

This type of leader displays following:

- 1) not emotionally involved in their interpersonal relationships; easier to manipulate others when you see them as objects and not humans
- 2) they take utilitarian approach rather than moral of their interactions with others – so not concerned with morality
- 3) they want to achieve short term goals rather than long term ideological goals; they manipulate

Influence theory of leadership

This theory of leadership implies that a reciprocal role relationship exists between leaders and followers in which an exchange takes place.

Without followers → you have no leader.

The followers obtain the leader's resources to the accomplishment of the group's goals; leader provides structure, direction and resources; each influences the others' behavior.

Leaders tend to talk more than members and receive more communication than members.

Leaders do not influence by control and domination and coercion.

Chance theory of leadership asserts being in the right place at right time. The invention of a new technology, decision made by a business to sell part of the company or a natural disaster occurs and someone emerges as a leader based on their decision making and strategic thinking skills.

Question: under what conditions will individual traits influence leader effectiveness?

Leadership Styles:

Style → the way in which something is said or done.

Substance → statements and actions

Three main styles of leadership:

- 1) autocratic → dictate orders and determine policy without involving group members in decision making; aggressive acts occur here
- 2) democratic → set policies through group discussion and decision, encouraging and helping group members to interact, wanting cooperation from others; being considerate of feelings and needs of others
- 3) laissez-faire → do not participate at all in their group's decision making processes; aggressive acts occur here;

Authority → legitimate power assigned to a particular position to ensure that individuals in subordinate positions meet the requirements of their organizational roles.

Situational Theories of Leadership

Asserts that leadership is provided by group members varying their behaviors to provide the actions a group needs at that specific time.

- 1) Distributed Actions → emphasizes certain functions need to be provided if a group is to achieve goals and maintain effective working relationships among members.

A function is an action that must occur for group to be effective.

Leadership is specific to the situation; members flexible to provide different actions for different situations; all members share responsibility for being leaders on own.

- a) members must join and share ideas
- b) group effectiveness increases with sharing
- c) those who participate are more committed
- d) don't want unequal patterns of participation → problems emerge

Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership

This model assumes there is an interaction between a leader's traits and the current situation.

There are 3 situational conditions in a group that determine which type of leadership is more beneficial for the group:

- 1) leader member relations
- 2) task clarity
- 3) leader power

A leader can be task oriented or maintenance oriented

Task oriented leaders emphasize the work the group needs to do

Maintenance oriented leaders focus on maintaining group participation

Stogdill's Interaction-Process Analysis

If you put 5 strangers together and assign them a task that requires them to cooperate—you will see the social interaction become patterned and a leadership structure emerges.

One member will assume a task-leadership role with behaviors oriented primarily to task achievement (directing, providing ideas, summarizing) and other members assuming a social-emotional-leadership role with behavior oriented toward expressive, interpersonal affairs of the group (alleviating frustration, resolving tensions, mediating conflicts)

Elements of this style are:

- 1) when group has task to do—members engage in task related behaviors on an unequal basis
- 2) members who are on high task behavior tend to create some tension and hostility on the part of members who are less committed to the task
- 3) there is a need for actions that help maintain effective working relationships among members
- 4) social emotional actions are engaged in by members other than those high on task actions

Organizational Leadership

Leading an Organization involves the following:

- 1) challenging status quo of traditional competitive and individualistic models of management
- 2) inspiring a clear, mutual vision of what organization can be and should be; mission everyone committed to and set of goals to guide efforts of members; communicate the vision with enthusiasm; make it a shared vision; rational vision based on theory and research.
- 3) empowering members through teams; technically and interpersonally; assign to cooperative teams; create positive interdependence; create trust, shared communication; interpersonal support
- 4) lead by example by modeling the behaviors the leader recommends to the members of the organization, teamwork; leaders practice what they preach.
- 5) encouraging the hearts of members to persist and keep striving when work gets difficult; little things make a difference; recognize individual contributions to the common vision, celebrate individual and joint accomplishments frequently

You want to be a bad leader ———→ do this:

Be absent from group meeting, when you do attend the meeting—say nothing, read the paper or text during the meeting, say you'll only do what you have to do—and nothing more, show off using big words and technical jargon

Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy: Leadership

□ Chapter 1: Leadership is Everyone's Business

- Leadership is a complex phenomenon involving the leader, the followers and the situation.
- It is both a science and an art
- It is both rational and emotional: leadership means using logic and reason as well as inspiration and passion: MLK inspired people to action
 - Leadership and Management
- Management suggests words like efficiency, planning, coordinating, paperwork, control, regulations, organizing
- Leadership suggests words like dynamic, risk taking, change, creativity, and vision

Managers vs. Leaders

□ Managers administer and leaders innovate

□ Managers maintain and leaders develop

■ Managers control and leaders inspire

■ Managers ask how and when and leaders ask what and why

■ Managers accept the status quo and leaders challenge it

■ Leadership and Followership

■ Leadership is a social influence process shared among all members of a group

■ Myths of Leadership

■ Leaders are born, not made

■ Here-- we mean there's a gene for leadership. Actually-- leadership can be innate as well as coming from formative experiences which influence us; it's how genetics and formative years interact

Kouzes & Posner: The Leadership Challenge

- Chapter 2: Credibility is the Foundation of Leadership
- Researchers asked open ended questions like what values, personal traits or characteristics do you look for and admire in a leader.
- The results don't vary much over the years-- not by demographics, organizations or cultural differences; across countries, gender, education and age groups.
- The findings show that leaders must be:
 1. Honest
 2. Forward looking
 3. Inspiring
 4. Competent

• Honesty

- Can a leader model the way if he/she isn't honest? The leader must be trustworthy-- which is a synonym for honesty.
- Honesty is the most often cited attribute.
- People want to know that the leader is worthy of their trust.
- People want to know that the leader is ethical and principled.
- Integrity and character are synonymous with honesty. We don't want to be deceived.
- We don't want to follow someone we believe to be dishonest-- we come to realize that we've compromised our own integrity.
- Honesty is strongly tied to values and ethics
- We don't trust people who can't or won't disclose a clear set of values, ethics and standards to live by

- **Forward Looking**

- A little more than 70% of respondents said ability to look forward was important for leadership traits.
- Leaders must know where they're going if they expect others to join them on the journey.
- People want to know what the organization will look like, feel like and be like when it arrives at its destination in a couple of years
- People want to be engaged in the search for a meaningful future.

- **Inspiring**

- People expect their leaders to be enthusiastic, energetic and positive about the future.
- Leaders breathe life into people's dreams and aspirations-- and it makes them more willing to join the movement
- Leaders who are enthusiastic show their commitment to pursue their dream.

- **Competent**

- To enlist in a common cause, people must believe that the leader is competent to guide them where they're headed.
- Leadership competence refers to the leader's track record and ability to get things done.
- It doesn't refer to the leader's abilities in the core technology of the operation because organizations are too complex and multifunctional for leaders to know.
- Leaders aren't required necessarily to have technical expertise-- but experience in the industry, in industry events and situations and an accumulation of knowledge derived from participation.
- Experience correlates with one's track record.

- **Credibility**

- **Credibility is the foundation of leadership**

Managers and Credibility

- Employees who saw credibility in their managers were more likely to:
 1. Be proud to tell others they're in this company
 2. Feel a strong sense of team spirit
 3. See their own personal values as consistent with those of the organization
 4. Feel attached and committed to the organization
 5. Have a sense of ownership of the organization
- Employees who saw low credibility in their manager were more likely to:
 1. Produce only if they're watched
 2. Be motivated primarily by money
 3. Consider looking for another job if the organization has problems

Chapter 6: Power

Power --→ the capacity to affect the outcomes of oneself, others and environment.

It can be direct like through interpersonal interaction or indirect like through group norms and values.

Power --→ a basic aspect of social life; is increased or reduced, seized or given up; used for good or evil.

In effective groups— power tends to be distributed among members.

Power can be a quality of a person; the position and the place or the relationship.

One can be seen as having power because of their ability to dominate others through charisma or verbal prowess.

A position can hold power; like being president of a corporation.

A place can carry power such as a Church or holy site.

Constructive Use of Power:

- 1) power used to enhance group's effectiveness
- 2) help group achieve its goals
- 3) increase the quality of relationships in group
- 4) power used more for benefit of others than one's own benefit

Destructive Use of Power:

- 1) when it's used to benefit one member only
- 2) when one forces other members to do something they don't want to do

Dynamic Interdependence View of Power --→ asserts that who is influencing whom to what degree changes constantly as members strive to achieve the group's goals.

In this view—power exists in relationships and not in individuals; there must be an influencer and influencee; when two people interact they influence each other.

In competitive context --→ power used to gain advantage to promote one's success at the expense of others; you succeed in influencing another who was unwilling initially to do something

Coercive Power --→ this may escalate as it encounters resistance and it decreases group effectiveness.

Mobilizing Power to Achieve Goals

There are 5 steps for the group to achieve its goals:

- 1) determine your goals; the desired future state
- 2) determine relevant resources; how the resources of all members combined will achieve the goal
- 3) determine your needed coalitions; what coalitions are needed to get resources to achieve goals
- 4) negotiating contracts; negotiate an agreement with group members to support one another's efforts to achieve goals; resources you want from other group members
- 5) implementing the contracts; you carry out the activities necessary to achieve the goals.

Cooperative Context power --→ used to maximize joint benefits and enhance the group's effectiveness; members work together to achieve mutual goals; members less coercive, supportive and persuasive their use of power; result in more trusting and friendly relationships, greater exchange of resources, more time spent on tasks, greater productivity and power is seen as expandable.

Status & Power:

High status positions invoke a sense of privilege; they are given special treatment because of their position.

Power Stereotyping Theory: people in a position of power are likely to stereotype subordinates because they pay less attention to them; the high person's power doesn't depend on the actions of the subordinate

Oppression: this is when the high power group members often oppress low power members.

Oppression is the experience of a repeated, widespread, systematic injustice which may involve the legal system and is embedded in norms and rules; it may be institutionalized into the structure of society; it may be called moral exclusion where low power group members are outside of the moral community and don't deserve the fair treatment; and in extreme cases it can become genocide or the person is marginalized.

The Trait Factor Approach to Power ----> based on assumption that one's genetic traits explain why the person is who they are—how they became so—and why this person stays the same despite fortune, circumstances and opportunities. Some are born with an inherent ability to influence others.

There are 2 trait factor approaches to power:

- 1) Power and Persuasion----> influence is a function of the characteristics of both the person exerting influence and the person receiving it.

People are more likely to be influenced by someone they see as trustworthy, fairly distributing resources and treating people with respect.

If the people hearing the message have low self-esteem, are distracted while the message is presented and aren't very intelligent then they will likely be persuaded.

- 2) Social Dominance Theory ----> this is based on competition; the ability to control resources is the aim here; resources are anything essential for survival, growth and development; resources are assumed to be limited so competition emerges among group members

A social dominance hierarchy is created because members in the group vary in their ability get resources; each member needs to have the ability to compete successfully defines their position in the social hierarchy.

Being dominant is assumed to be correlated with health, vigor, productiveness because dominant people are better able to fulfill their nutritional, social and security needs.

The dominant individual within a social hierarchy becomes the focus of attention, admired, liked and is viewed as an attractive social partner and is obeyed.

Low Power Members

CORE is the acronym for how low power members react to high power members

C = cooperative, compliant, yielding in interactions with high power members

O = attribution of causes of group success to own efforts; the low power member does this and devalues efforts by high power members

R = resistance, psychological reactance, obstruction of high power members' efforts

E – negative evaluations of high power individuals; low power members tend to dislike high power members

Terrorism ----> politically motivated violence perpetrated against noncombatant targets; it's unpredictable strategies used to kill innocent people; politically intimidating people; aimed at achieving perceived justice; calling attention to one's cause; creating communal meaning through sacrifice; fulfilling a spiritual obligation.

It could be aimed at inflicting pain at the high power group; striking back from a position of weakness; frustration, humiliation.

Terrorism is defined differently—from a high power member it is a violent political act but from a low power member it is seen as a humanitarian act to liberate. A terrorist says he/she is a freedom fighter – this is a euphemism for calling him/herself a terrorist.

Revenge ----> interaction between high and low power members results in the low power member feeling abused, mistreated; in general members of low power are not likely to take revenge against high power members fearing the counter-revenge from the high power member.

Group Norms: Indirect Power

Group norms can be substituted for the direct use of power among group members

Norms are prescribed modes of conduct and beliefs that guide behavior of group.

Conformity to group norms is usually required for continued membership in group.

Norms regulate behavior and control behavior.

Indirect influence through group norms saves the group energy and resources and avoids resistance and lack of cooperation that may result from direct application of power.

Group norms control the behavior of high power members and low power members and set limits on use of power.

Group members give up part of their personal power to the norms to protect themselves from capricious or inconsistent use of power.

Norms can take on characteristics of moral obligations.

Conformity is change in behavior that results from a group influence.

The change includes compliance (behavioral change without internal acceptance) and private acceptance (changes in behavior and attitude)

Conformity to group norms improves the functioning of the group usually.

Group members accept norms when they:

- 1) recognize that the norms exist and see other members accepting and following them
- 2) see the norms as helping group accomplish goals
- 3) feel a sense of ownership for the norms; members help establish the norms
- 4) enforce the norms after one violates a norm; must be implemented immediately after norm violated
- 5) see appropriate models and examples of conforming to norms and opportunity to practice the desired behavior
- 6) import cultural norms that promote goal accomplishment, group maintenance and growth
- 7) perceive that the norms are flexible; can replace them when necessary to increase group effectiveness

Group Mind → also called collective behavior where people spontaneously prepare to act like rioting, creating mass hysteria; a small fire in a theatre could result in many deaths when people panic and trample over each other.

The Group Mind explains that people in crowds are impulsive, irritable, irrational and have no capacity to reason.

“the law of the mental unity of crowds” explains this behavior.

Crowd behavior results from 3 mechanisms:

- 1) anonymity — people feel less responsible for their behavior when they cannot be identified; they aren't held responsible
- 2) contagion — emotional states tend to spread from person to person in the same way that a disease spreads.
- 3) Suggestibility — crowd members tend to completely accept suggestions as if they were hypnotized.

Another thought is Convergence Theory → crowd behavior represents the convergence of people with compatible needs, desires, motivations, and emotions whose membership in a crowd triggers the spontaneous release of previously controlled behaviors.

Another thought is Emergent Norm Theory → arguing that crowds are quite heterogeneous and do not have a mental unity; members all adhere to norms that are relevant to a given situation; urgency characterizes feelings of members in crowd; crowds form in ambiguous situations and their behaviors are unplanned.

Another thought is Deindividuation Theory → a state of relative anonymity where group members do not feel singled out or identifiable; if you can't be identified you're more likely to be antisocial; you lose your personal identity because you're submerged in the group; and there's a reduction of inner restraint. You are not inhibited like you normally are before you commit an antisocial act.

Ch. 5: Power & Influence

- Power is the capacity to produce effects on others or potential to influence others.
- Leaders who can reward or punish can better influence others versus those who cannot.
- Power = capacity to cause change
- Influence = the degree of actual change in one's attitudes, values, beliefs or behaviors.
- The leader's influence tactics cause change.
- Where does a leader's power come from?
- It comes from the leader and the followers.
- Symbols can show power: a diploma on wall, awards and titles.
- Uniforms (clothing) can affect one's power and influence: clergy, physicians, police officers, etc.

Five Sources of Power

- **Expert Power:** power from knowledge; influence from being expert in field.
- **Referent Power:** the potential influence one has due to the strength of the relationship between the leader and the follower; you admire the leader and see them as role model; takes time to develop.
- **Legitimate Power:** one has formal authority; they make requests and demands from their position.
- **Reward Power:** the potential to influence others due to one's control over desired resources; power to give raises, bonuses and promotions; parking place; these are extrinsic rewards may not have the same effect on behavior as intrinsic rewards such as feelings of accomplishment, personal growth; extrinsic rewards may decrease intrinsic motivation
- **Coercive Power:** opposite of reward power; influence others by giving negative consequences, removing positive events; fear of punishment; totalitarian societies sometimes use coercive power; ruling by fear and followers become self-destructively compliant.

Leader Motives

- People vary in their motivation to influence or control others.
- This is called Need for Power: expressed in two ways:
 - 1) Personalized Power: if high, one is selfish, impulsive, uninhibited, lacks self-control, self-centered, autocratic
 - 2) Socialized Power: a more emotionally mature expression; one has higher goals for the organization and makes self-sacrifices; one empowers employees
- **Influence Tactics**
 - Rational Persuasion: using logical arguments/factual evidence to influence others.
 - Inspirational Appeals: making a request designed to arouse enthusiasm or emotions; clergy sometimes do this, also politicians
 - Ingratiation: attempting to get you in a good mood before making a request; flattering you before asking for something from you.
 - Personal Appeal: do someone a favor out of friendship

Chapter 7: Decision Making

A group decision implies some agreement prevails among group members so the group goal is achieved.

It's one step of a goal directed group.

Five elements of effective group decisions:

- 1) fully utilizing resources available to group members
- 2) time is well used
- 3) the decision is correct or of high quality
- 4) decision is implemented fully by all group members
- 5) the problem solving ability of group is improved.

Involvement in Decision Making

Reasons why group members need to be involved in decision making:

- 1) it increases the quality of the decision by fully utilizing the resources of each member
- 2) increases the member's commitment to implement the decision. It increases the member's allegiance to the group.

Changing behavioral patterns and attitudes is easier when people participate in a group decision to change an attitude or behavior—they are more likely to implement the decision when they are committed to the group and the other members also implementing the decision.

Individual vs. Group Decision Making

Process Gain occurs in group decision making -- interaction among group members results in insight, ideas and strategies that you can't generate alone.

Group decisions results in more productive discussions about how to solve problems.

Groups are more likely to identify/recognize incorrect solutions and reject them

Groups have a more accurate memory of facts and events than individuals.

Group members share information with each other—some it new and it generates ideas.

Groups facilitate higher motivation to achieve

Groups make riskier, more polarized decisions than individuals

Diversity of group members increases the variety of resources available.

Involvement in group decision making facilitates the changes in behavior and attitudes to implement the decision.

Social Facilitation → does the presence of others facilitate or impair one's performance? Research shows working in the presence of others improves performance on variety of tasks; as long as task is relatively simple.

If the task is difficult → or complex then the presence of others tends to impair performance.

Presence of others increases physiological arousal and this arousal increases likelihood that our dominant or most probable response will occur.

Group Polarization → the tendency for groups to make decisions that are more extreme than the initial inclination of its members.

If the member's initial tendency was to be risky → now the group decision may be more risky.

There are 3 explanations for group polarization effect:

- 1) Normative Influences: groups may polarize because members want to create a favorable impression on others; compare their opinions with others; modify their opinions if necessary; this occurs if the topics are about values, taste or preferences.
- 2) Informational Influences: groups may polarize because members learn new information that causes them to modify their opinions through others persuading them.
- 3) Social Identification: groups may polarize because individuals may want to identify with the group and be considered members.

Member Diversity → heterogeneous groups may have advantages over homogeneous groups; you want a member to be achievement motivated; one that's agreeable; one that's imaginative; supportive; complementing one another is good

Group decision making fails when the group doesn't have accurate or relevant information; it's not shared effectively even if someone in the group has the info; the info. is processed in a biased way; the group may process the info. in a selective way to confirm their bias or initial views.

Decisions made in groups need to take the following into account:

- 1) type of decision to be made
- 2) amount of time and resources available
- 3) history of the group
- 4) nature of the task being worked on
- 5) kind of climate the groups wants to establish
- 6) type of setting in which the group is working

Factors Hindering Group Decision Making

- 1) lack of group maturity ---> group members need time and experience working together to develop into a mature working, decision making group. Group skills aren't enough—takes time and experience to adapt to dynamics of the new group.

Group maturity means members working together long enough that they coordinate their behavior and complement one another's efforts automatically.

- 2) Uncritically giving one's dominant response ---> poor decisions are made when group members quickly decide on an alternative course of action based on their dominant response (initial majority opinion of group members) This shortcuts identifying possible alternative courses of action.

Dominant responses may be based on hunger and other physical states; psychological states such as attitudes and beliefs that affects what a person believes; general cultural perspectives that distort information perceived; mental sets that cause the same words to have different meanings; laziness that results in available information not being cognitively processed and alternative ways of understanding such information not being fully considered.

- 2) Social loafing ---> a reduction of individual effort when working with others on an additive group task; additive tasks require the summing together of individual group members' inputs to maximize the group product.
- 3) Free riding ---> getting something for nothing--- the responsibility of the group's success or failure is shared by the group members; the larger the group the less likely one individual will be required to provide help; a free ride is benefitting from the work of other group members while you do no work; the member free riding may think his/her efforts aren't needed; they believe they are dispensable.
- 4) Motivation losses due to perceived inequity; not being a sucker ---> members are willing to reduce their efforts when other group members were engaging in free riding.
- 5) Groupthink and defensive avoidance ---> groupthink is collective striving for unanimity that overrides group members motivation to appraise alternative courses of action realistically and results in:

- a) deterioration of mental efficiency, reality testing, moral judgment
- b) ignoring of external information inconsistent with the favored alternative course of action

Groupthink leads to concurrence seeking – group members inhibiting discussion to avoid disagreement; emphasize agreement and avoid appraisal of alternative ideas.

Groupthink is promoted when:

- a) group is highly cohesive
- b) it is insulated from outside criticism
- c) when leader is directive and dynamic
- d) when group doesn't search for critically evaluative alternatives
- e) group members rely on shared illusions and rationalization to bolster decisions

Groupthink includes:

- 1) self-censorship: each member minimizes any doubts about the apparent group consensus
- 2) illusion of unanimity: each member assumes everyone except themselves is in agreement; silence means members consent/agree.
- 3) direct pressure on dissenters; anyone expressing doubts is pressured to conform
- 4) mind guards; certain group members try to prevent dissenters from raising objections
- 5) illusion of invulnerability; members develop an illusion of invulnerability, unwarranted optimism and excessive risk taking; group is above reproach.
- 6) rationalizing; group members invent justifications for whatever action is undertaken.
- 7) Illusion of morality; members ignore ethical consequences of favored alternative and assume group's actions are morally justified.
- 8) Stereotyping and moral exclusion; group members dismiss competitors and critics as too weak or stupid to react effectively.

Poor conflict management by group members --> may result from members having self-oriented needs; members competing and this reduces effectiveness in decision making; they sabotage group effort

Egocentrism of group members ---> member egocentrically present their opinion; coldly evaluate thinking of other members; they want to dominate and compete for being right; creates lower quality of decisions.

Lack of sufficient heterogeneity ---> need full information, skills and viewpoints from members; you don't want homogeneity because it creates less quality and effectiveness in decision making.

Interference or production blocking ---> when one member monopolizes or talks too much; one has to wait to contribute and waiting too long changes the discussion.

Inappropriate group size ---> the greater the discrepancy between functional and actual group size the more ineffective the group will be

if group too large fewer members try to resolve issues; the less group members see their individual efforts as essential to group success; the greater the complexity

the greater the complexity of the group structure and the more time it takes to organize joint efforts the less effective the group is

the less members identify with the group the less effective the group is

the less the members follow the group's norms the less effective the group will be

Members not having relevant skills ---> decisions made by members are less effective if members not skilled.

Two types of relevant skills are: those required to complete task and those required to work as part of a group.

So - you need one to have great communication skills and capabilities

If the most capable group members of a problem solving group are not confident, have low status or not talkative the group is likely to underutilize its resources.

Lack of individual incentives for and barriers to contributing ---> if incentives for contributing are low members make little effort to achieve group goals, there may be barriers that undermine the value of contributing or that provide a motive for withholding contributions.

Identifying and defining the problem ---> a problem is a discrepancy or difference between an actual state of affairs and a desired states of affairs; the problem needs to be clarified and accurately defines so it can be solved effectively:

- 1) group needs to reach agreement on what the desired state of affairs is; list a series of statements about the problem; be concrete, write them on chalkboard so everyone can see it
- 2) obtain valid, reliable directly verifiable descriptive (not inferential) information about the existing state of affairs; restate each problem statement so it includes a description of the desired and actual state;; problem needs to be urgent, solvable and important
- 3) discussing thoroughly the difference between the desired and actual state of affairs; write what group life will be like when the problem is solved.

The purpose of group decision making is to decide on well-considered, well-understood, realistic action toward goals every member wishes to achieve. A **group decision** implies that some agreement prevails among group members as to which of several courses of action is most desirable for achieving the group's goals. Making a **decision** is just one step in the more general problem-solving process of goal-directed groups. After defining a problem or issue, thinking over alternative courses of action, and weighing the advantages and disadvantages of each, a group will decide which course is the most desirable for them to implement.

Typically, groups try to make their decisions as effective as possible. There are five major characteristics of an **effective group decision**:

1. The resources of group members are fully utilized.
2. Time is well used.

Individual versus Group Decision Making	
Process gain	Involvement and commitment
Correct one another's errors	Changed behavior and attitudes
Social facilitation	Type of task
Risk taking	Potential group productivity
Methods of Decision Making	
Decision by authority without group discussion	Decision by minority
Decision by expert	Decision by majority vote
Decision by averaging individuals' opinions	Decision by consensus
Decision by authority after group discussion	Time and decision making
Essential Components	Hindering Factors
Positive interdependence	Lack of group maturity
Face-to-face promotive interaction	Dominant response
Individual accountability	Social loafing
Social skills	Free riding
Group processing	Not being a sucker
	Groupthink
	Conflicting goals
	Egocentrism of group members
	Homogeneity
	Production blocking
	Inappropriate size
	Dissonance reduction
	Lack of skills
	Lack of incentives for and barriers to contributing
Considered and Thoughtful Decision Making	
Identifying and defining problem	Deciding on a solution
Gathering information about problem	Second-chance meeting
Forming alternative solutions	Presenting recommendation to organization
Force field analysis	Evaluating success of implementation
Vigilant analysis	
Barriers	
Problems with Theorizing on Decision Making	

Figure 7.1 Overview of the chapter.

Table 7.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of Decision-Making Methods

Method of Decision Making	Disadvantages	Advantages
1. Decision by authority without discussion	One person is not a good resource for every decision; advantages of group interaction are lost; no commitment to implement the decision is developed among other group members; resentment and disagreement may result in sabotage and deterioration of group effectiveness; resources of other members are not used.	Applies more to administrative needs; useful for simple, routine decisions; should be used when very little time is available to make the decision, when group members expect the designated leader to make the decision, and when group members lack the skills and information to make the decision any other way.
2. Expert member	It is difficult to determine who the expert is; no commitment to implement the decision is built; advantages of group interaction are lost; resentment and disagreement may result in sabotage and deterioration of group effectiveness; resources of other members are not used.	Useful when the expertise of one person is so far superior to that of all other group members that little is to be gained by discussion; should be used when little membership action is needed to implement the decision.
3. Average of members' opinions	There is not enough interaction among group members for them to gain from each other's resources and from the benefits of group discussion; no commitment to implement the decision is built; unresolved conflict and controversy may damage group effectiveness in the future.	Useful when it is difficult to get group members together to talk, when the decision is so urgent that there is no time for group discussion, when member commitment is not necessary for implementing the decision, and when group members lack the skills and information to make the decision any other way; applicable to simple, routine decisions.
4. Decision by authority after discussion	Does not develop commitment to implement the decision; does not resolve the controversies and conflicts among group members; tends to create situations in which group members either compete to impress the designated leader or tell the leader what they think he or she wants to hear.	Uses the resources of the group members more than previous methods; gains some of the benefits of group discussion.

(continued)

Table 7.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of Decision-Making Methods (Continued)

Method of Decision Making	Disadvantages	Advantages
5. Minority control	Does not utilize the resources of many group members; does not establish widespread commitment to implement the decision; unresolved conflict and controversy may damage future group effectiveness; not much benefit from group interaction.	Can be used when not everyone can meet to make a decision, when the group is under such time pressure that it must delegate responsibility to a committee, when only a few members have any relevant resources, and when broad member commitment is not needed to implement the decision; useful for simple, routine decisions.
6. Majority control	Usually leaves an alienated minority, which damages future group effectiveness; relevant resources of many group members may be lost; full commitment to implement the decision is absent; full benefit of group interaction is not obtained.	Can be used when there is not sufficient time for decision by consensus or when the decision is not so important that consensus needs to be used and when complete member commitment is not necessary for implementing the decision; closes discussion on issues that are not highly important for the group.
7. Consensus	Takes a great deal of time and psychological energy and a high level of member skill; time pressure must be minimal, and there must be no emergency in progress.	Produces an innovative, creative, and high-quality decision; elicits commitment by all members to implement the decision; uses the resources of all members; the future decision-making ability of the group is enhanced; useful in making serious, important, and complex decisions to which all members are to be committed.

agree with the decision, they may lack commitment to implementing the decision. Under this method, how well the decision is implemented is particularly crucial.

Method 2: Decision by Expert

Group decisions can be made by letting the most expert member in the group decide what the group should do. The procedure for this method is to select the expert, let him or her consider the issues, and then have that person tell the group what the decision is. The group does not discuss the issue.

A major problem with this method is determining which member has the most expertise. On most complex issues, individuals disagree as to what the best approach is, and this makes it difficult for them to identify the expert among them. Personal popu-

A controversy is a conflict that arises when one person's ideas, information, conclusions, theories and opinions are incompatible with another person and the two seek to reach an agreement.

Steps to resolve controversy:

- 1) research and prepare a position
- 2) present and advocate the position
- 3) engage in open discussion
- 4) reverse perspectives
- 5) reach a decision through consensus as to which course of action to implement

Concurrence seeking occurs when members of a group inhibit discussion to avoid any disagreement or arguments, emphasize agreement, and avoid realistic appraisal of alternative ideas and courses of action

Concurrence maybe like groupthink. Why?

Individualistic Decision Making ----> when isolated individuals independently decide on a course of action without talking to one another.

Avoiding Controversy

There is conflict in organizations—and controversies should be encouraged — but deliberately structured.

Conflict is avoided and suppressed because:

- 1) fear blocks group members from engaging in controversies
- 2) ignorance of how to engage in controversy blocks group members from doing so
- 3) lack of training in how to use decisional conflict effectively blocks group members from engaging in controversies
- 4) our culture is so anticonflict that group members don't see the promotion of decisional conflicts as a possibility
- 5) group norms may block group members from engaging in intellectual conflicts
- 6) inertia— the power of the status quo maybe so great that group members just do not try anything new

Productivity and Quality of Decision Making

Remember--> controversy typically produces group productivity, individual achievement and quality of decision making, greater ability to transfer learning to new situations and higher level of reasoning strategies.

Controversy ---->

- 1) increases number of ideas
- 2) quality of ideas
- 3) wider range of ideas increased
- 4) originality
- 5) using varied strategies
- 6) increases creativity, imagination and novel solutions

Interpersonal Attraction

Controversy likely to promote greater liking and social support among group members than debate and individualistic efforts.

Spirited disagreement and intellectual challenge can bind people in deeper and more meaningful ways.

Psychological Health ---->

Psychological health tends to be strengthened by participating in constructive controversy— controversy tends to result in greater task-oriented self-esteem and greater perspective taking accuracy.

Creative Problem Solving

Creativity is the process of bringing something new into existence.

Steps for creative breakthroughs:

- 1) members recognize a problem exists and is challenging enough to motivate them to resolve it.
- 2) members need to be aroused to level of motivation to sustain problem solving efforts
- 3) members must gather necessary knowledge and resources for creative insight to emerge
- 4) cooperative context must exist for level of social support to be achieved in group; members can't feel threatened —. They become defensive and reduces tolerance for ambiguity and receptiveness to new ideas
- 5) members need to seek out different perspectives and different ways of viewing their problem
- 6) creative insight depends on availability of diverse information and viewpoints

Developing and Fostering Creativity

- 1) reaffirm the cooperative goal of making the best choices possible
- 2) promote controversy of ideas, opinions, theories, information, perspectives
- 3) set aside time for members to reflect on the diverse ideas, encourage persistence on in solving the problem
- 4) meet to make the final decision

Synectics ---→ a technique to enhance creativity of a group ---→ stresses importance of psychological states and using metaphors in achieving the proper psychological state.

You make the strange appear familiar and the familiar strange:

- 1) personal analogy – individual imagines how it feels to be part of the phenomenon being studied; ask person how he/she would feel if they were an incomplete sentence or using a symbol
- 2) direct analogy – group members are asked to think about a parallel situation in order to gain insight into what they are studying; asking them to describe how a book is like a light bulb or how a beaver chewing on a log resembles a typewriter
- 3) compressed conflict - group members are forced to perceive an object or concept from two frames of reference; asking for examples of repulsive attraction or cooperative competition are examples.

Open versus Closed Belief Systems

Open minded group members are willing to attend to, comprehend and gain insight into information, ideas, perspectives, assumptions, beliefs conclusions and opinions other than theirs.

Closed minded means they obviously can't and they're dogmatic.

Open minded groups do the following:

- 1) seek out opposing and differing views
- 2) discover new beliefs
- 3) remember and consider information that disagrees with currently held beliefs
- 4) organize new beliefs to solve problems

Closed minded groups do the following:

- 1) deny information that is contrary to what they believe
- 2) have contradictory beliefs that go unquestioned
- 3) avoid exploring and considering differences in beliefs
- 4) distort information that does not fit their beliefs

Rokeach developed concept of Dogmatism: a relatively closed organization of beliefs and disbeliefs about reality that is organized around a central set of beliefs about absolute authority which may provide a framework for intolerance.

Brainstorming achieves:

- 1) encourages divergent thinking
- 2) produces many different ideas in short time period
- 3) ensures full participation of all group members

In brainstorming----→ group members produce as many and uninhibited ideas as possible and you withhold criticism to optimize creativity.

Ground Rules for Brainstorming:

- 1) all criticism or evaluation of ideas is ruled out
- 2) wild ideas are expected
- 3) quantity of ideas counts—not quality
- 4) build on the ideas of other group members when possible
- 5) focus on a single problem or issue
- 6) promote a congenial, relaxed, cooperative atmosphere
- 7) make sure that all members, no matter how shy and reluctant to contribute get their ideas heard
- 8) record all ideas

After brainstorming—you categorize all ideas and they are evaluated for use

Chapter 9: Managing Conflicts of Interest

Conflict Negative Group

Conflict Positive Group

Sees conflict as unitary	Recognizes different types of conflicts
Sees conflict as problem	Sees conflicts as part of solution
Avoids, suppresses, contains conflicts	Seeks out and encourages conflicts
Believes conflict is inherently destructive	Believes conflict is potentially constructive
Sees no value to conflict	Sees many values to conflict
Conflicts create anxiety and defensiveness	Conflicts create excitement, focus
Individuals fight for a win	Individuals try to solve the problem

Conflict Positive group ---> groups must resolve conflicts of interest to be effective:

Groups can be either:

- 1) conflict negative
- 2) conflict positive

Conflict negative --- conflicts are suppressed and avoided; when occur are managed in destructive ways

Conflict positive --- conflicts are encouraged and managed constructively to maximize their potential to enhance quality of decision making and problem solving in group.

To create a conflict positive conflict group:

- 1) understand the nature of conflicts of interest
- 2) steps for using integrative negotiations
- 3) how to apply constructive approaches to intergroup conflict
- 4) the nature of intergroup conflict

What is conflict: comes from Latin meaning "striking together with force" a fight, struggle, dispute or disagreement

To understand conflict of interest we need to define interest.

Human beings have differing needs, wants and goals - inevitably there will be conflicts.

A want is a desire for something - each of us has a unique set of wants

A need is a necessity for survival. Needs are more universal--- we have a need to reproduce, have access to water, food and shelter, to belong (share, love, cooperate) have power, freedom and fun and enjoy Elie's chicken.

A goal is an ideal state of affairs that we value and work to achieve. Our goals are related through social interdependence

Our interests are the potential benefits to be gained by achieving our goals.

A conflict of interest exists when the actions of one person attempting to maximize his/her benefits prevent, block interfere with, injure or in some way make less effective the actions of another person attempting to maximize his/her benefits.

Conflicts can be destructive or constructive ----> destructive ones can be costly to the group destroying its effectiveness, damaging relationships decreasing the member's commitment to group's goals, sense of security.

Conflict and Aggression

Aggression is physical (shoving) or verbal (insulting, cursing, threatening) intended to hurt another.

Assertiveness --- behavior intended to express confidence or dominance

Indirect aggression an attempt to hurt another without obvious face to face conflict—like through starting gossip about someone.

Direct aggression aimed at hurting someone to his or her face.

Emotional aggression is hurtful behavior that comes from out of control anger

Instrumental aggression is hurting another by trying to accomplish something.

Displaced aggression is when you are aggressive toward another who is not the causal agent of the instigating

Conflicts can have positive outcomes when:

- 1) they focus attention on problems needing to be solved
- 2) energize and motivate group
- 3) clarify how members need to change
- 4) clarify what members really care about
- 5) clarify the group's values and goals
- 6) conflicts can be fun
- 7) conflicts can release anger, anxiety, insecurity, sadness

Conflicts can be constructive to the extent they:

Resulting an agreement that allows participants to achieve their goals
The agreement maximizes joint outcomes, benefits of everyone
Strengthen the relationship among participants by increasing their liking, respect and trust for one another
Increase participants ability to solve future conflicts with others constructively

Conflict management strategies

We usually learn these strategies in childhood

In a conflict we think about these things:

- 1) reaching an agreement that satisfies our wants and meets our goals
- 2) maintaining an appropriate relationship with the other person: some relationships are temporary and some permanent; is the relationship important or unimportant to keep?

Controlling the occurrence of conflicts

The circumstances that surround the conflict include barriers to the beginning of negotiations and the events that trigger the conflict.

Barriers that prevent the conflict from being expressed can be internal or external

Internal --- negative attitudes, values, fears and habitual patterns of avoiding conflict.

External --- include task requirements, group norms for avoiding conflict, perceptions of one's vulnerability and others' strengths.

Negotiation is a process by which people with shared and opposed interests attempt to reach an agreement that specifies what each gives to and receives from one another.

Goal is to maximize your outcome while minimizing the other person's outcomes.

Strategies:

- 1) identify triggering events and barriers to negotiations; trigger a conflict when it's advantageous to you and not an advantage for the other person
- 2) make an extreme opening offer
- 3) compromise slowly; try to get the other person to compromise first
- 4) use threats, promises, sticking doggedly to a committed position and argument; coerce and entice the other person to accept your proposal; tell the other person what they want is unreasonable
- 5) be ready to walk away with no agreement

Integrative Negotiations

The goal here is to maximize joint benefits; maintaining a high quality relationship with other group members usually is more important than getting your way on an issue.

Step 1: describe what you want (your interests) assert your wants and goals; be assertive; be specific, acknowledge the other person's goals as part of the problem; how their actions block what you want; focus on long term cooperative relationship so you can both continue working together

Listen to the other person's wants; do active listening and paraphrase by restating their position

Defining the conflict as a mutual problem that needs to be solved constructively helps; this increases communication, trust, liking the other and cooperating.

Step 2: describe your feelings; be aware of your feelings, accept them and express them skillfully and constructively; sharing feelings is healthy and it build close relationships; feelings that are not accepted and recognized can bias judgments, create insecurities that make it difficult to manage conflicts constructively.

Step 3: exchange reasons for positions-- use following guidelines:

- a) express cooperative intentions; say we have to work together to resolve this issue; let's try to reach an agreement good for both of us
- b) present your reason and listen to their position; make sure you explain why with good reasons and evidence
- c) focus on wants and interests--- not positions
- d) clarify the differences before trying to integrate them into an agreement
- e) empower the other person; you don't want the other person to feel powerless; share the power
- f) stay flexible; negotiating is a rational process; be aware of all the alternatives; will you change your mind is evidence against your view is strong? It's rational for you to change your mind

Step 4: understand the other person's perspective Guidelines

- a) life experiences causes us to have different views
- b) our perspectives causes us to look at what info. we want to
- c) we have different views at different times in our life
- d) the same message can mean two different things from two different perspectives
- e) misunderstandings occur because we assume that others see things from our perspective

Engage in perspective taking--- taking the role of the other.

There are 3 types of interdependence are seen in negotiations:

- 1) participation interdependence: it takes at least two to negotiate
- 2) outcome interdependence: an agreement can be reached only if the other disputant agrees; both must commit to an agreement and each is dependent on the other for the outcome.
- 3) Information dependence: this exists because negotiators depend on one another for information about a possible agreement.

Information Dependence sets up two dilemmas:

Dilemma of Trust: involves a choice between believing or not believing the other negotiator; to believe means you may be exploited; disbelieving reduces the possibility of an agreement.

Dilemma of Honesty and Openness: involves the risk of being exploited for disclosing too much to quickly or seriously damaging the negotiating relationship by refusing to disclose information and being seen as distrustful or deceiving.

In negotiations there are cooperative and competitive elements.

There are primary and secondary gains; primary is the main benefit each party gains from an agreement.

The secondary gain is determined by the impact of the agreement on the negotiator's future well-being.

Negotiations have important time dimensions; there is a beginning, middle and end.

Step 5: Inventing options:

Identify several possible agreements; generate at least three alternative agreements before on deciding on one

Avoiding obstacles: don't judge prematurely, search for the single answer, being concerned only with your own immediate wants and goals

Invent creative options; think of many options, gather as much information as possible about the problem, see the problem from different perspectives, search for mutual gains, test each proposed agreement against reality

Step6: reaching a wise agreement:

These are agreements that are fair to all participants based on principles , strengthen members abilities to work together cooperatively.

The agreement clearly spells out the responsibilities of everyone involved—including:

- 1) the ways each person will act differently in the future
- 2) how the agreement will be reviewed and renegotiated if it turns out to be unworkable
- 3) will the agreement maintain or even improve the relationship among disputants
- 4) the agreement and the process of reaching it strengthens participants ability to resolve future conflicts constructively
- 5) the agreement is based on principles that can be justified on some objective criteria

Negotiate in Good Faith

You will develop a negotiating reputation; want others to say you are honest, trustworthy and keep your promises.

Refusal Skills: this issue is non-negotiable: you must know when the issue cannot be negotiated; when to say no; it may involve you doing something illegal, unethical, or others will get hurt.

Distinction Between Us and Them

Humans tend to see the world in an "us versus them" look

If you're placed in a room with two groups of 5 in each—you will likely want your group to win if a task was given to both groups. This is called the "Social Dominance Theory"

Intergroup competition and social dominance orientation may be especially strong during tough economic times; they don't like competing against people and cultures, races other than them.

Ingroup-Outgroup Bias

Intergroup contact can produce this sort of bias where we hold more favorable views of groups that we belong to. People tend to reward members of their own group at the expense of members of other groups and attribute more positive personality traits to members of the ingroup.

The bias against outgroups tends to be strongest when outgroups have very obvious and salient differences from ingroups.

Social Identity and Social Categorization

Social identity: the individual's knowledge that he/she belongs to social groups that have significance for the individual

People strive to enhance their self-esteem which has 2 components:

- a) a personal identity
- b) the various social identities derived from the groups they belong to

Thus-- people may boost their self-esteem by viewing their ingroups more favorably than they view outgroups that they don't belong to.

Our quest for a positive self-identity leads us to inflate the positive aspects of the group we belong to and belittle groups we don't belong to.

Social Categorization -----> this explains differences between ingroups and outgroups.

Social categories function as cognitive labor saving devices; they help you place people into meaningful categories.

We use a wide range of categories for placing people like Christian, Jewish, Buddhist, friend, stranger, neighbor, athlete.

Two very basic social categories are : members of my group and members of another group.

Social identity is based on differentiating among groups and is assumed to be a more inclusive, superordinate level of abstraction than personal identity in the categorization of the self.

We make categorical distinctions to understand the social world

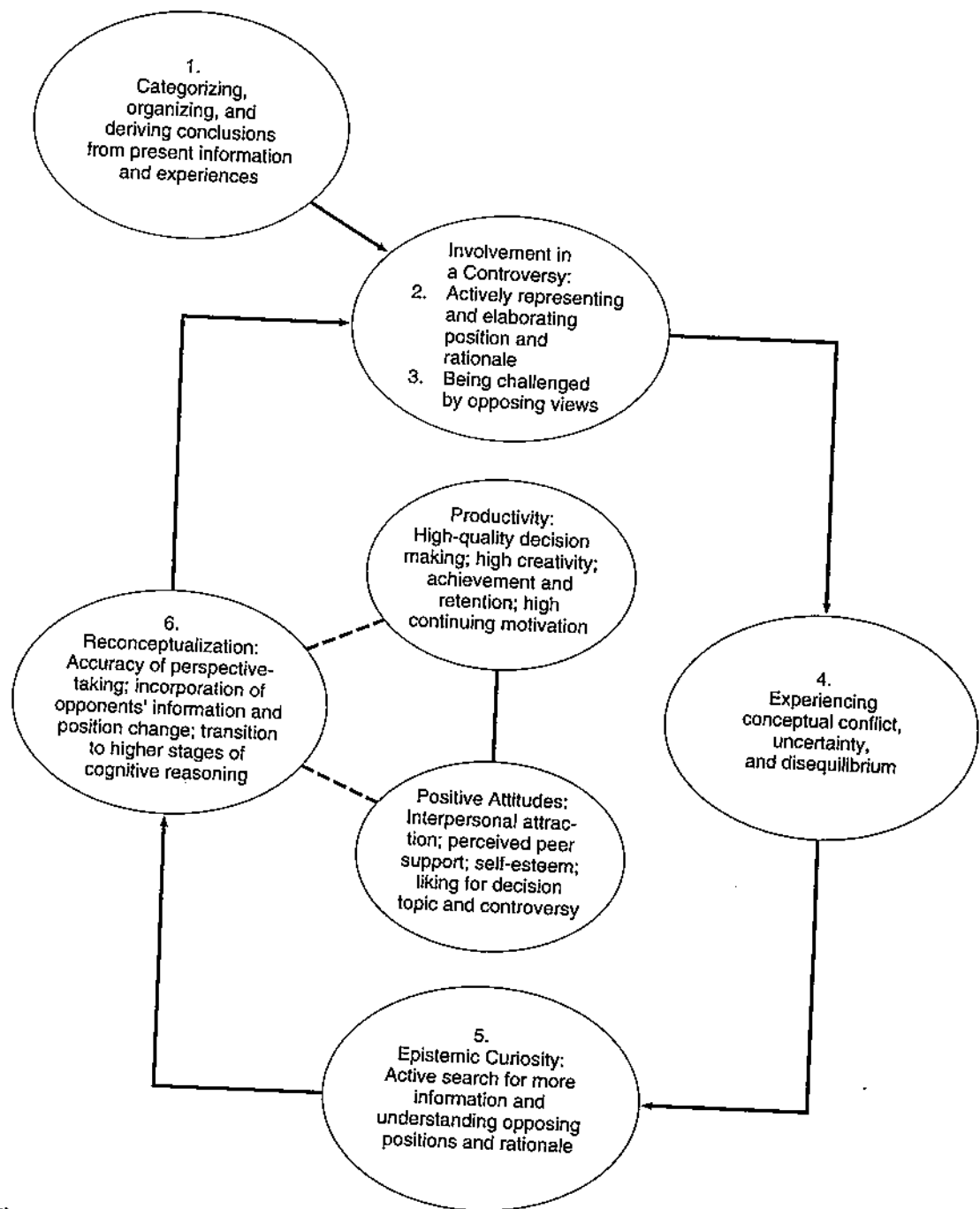


Figure 8.2 Process of controversy.

Source: D. W. Johnson and R. Johnson, *Creative conflict* (Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company, 1987).

Ch. 3: Clarify Values

- What do Martin Luther King, Jr, Abraham Lincoln and Eleanor Roosevelt have in common?
- Did they have strong beliefs in matters of principle? An unwavering commitment to a clear set of values-- passionate about their causes.
- People expect their leaders to speak out on matters of values and conscience.
- To clarify values-- a leader must:
 - Find their voice
 - Affirm shared values
 - You can't believe in the messenger if you don't know what the messenger believes
 - You can't be the messenger until you're clear about what you believe

- A credible leader comprehends fully their deeply held beliefs, values, principles, ethics and ideals that drive their behavior.
- You only speak the truth when speaking in your own voice-- and to get to it you need to explore your inner soul and heart; know what you care about; be authentic when you lead based on the principles and values that matter most to you. Otherwise-- it's an act and others will know it.
- You must act with integrity; know what you stand for.
- Values are guides, the moral compass we need; influence every aspect of our lives; our commitments, personal and organizational goals as leaders; values motivate us; keep us focused.
- Values are instrumental and terminal; means and ends
- Instrumental in that they are approaches to getting what we want
- Terminal in that they are our end goals

• Leaders Affirm Shared Values

- Leaders build on agreement; they need to gain consensus on a common cause and common set of principles; build and affirm on shared values; recognition of shared values gives people a common language; when employees care about what they are doing, they are more effective and satisfied; have less stress and are more loyal; foster pride in company; foster teamwork, encourage ethical behavior.

• Write a Tribute to Yourself

- Write some descriptive adjectives about yourself by responding to these questions:
 - 1. What do you stand for?
 - 2. What do you believe in? Why?
 - 3. What brings you suffering? Why?
 - 4. What makes you jump for joy?

- 5. What are you passionate about? Why?
- 6. What keeps you awake at night? Why?
- 7. What's grabbed you and won't let go? Why?
- 8. What do you want for your life? Why?

EXERCISES

Who Are Your Heroes?

Who is your ideal leader? Who does our society consider to be ideal leaders? Everyone has heroes whom they would like to imitate and be like. The strength and dedication of George Washington, the intellect and commitment of Thomas Jefferson, the courage of Harriet Tubman, the values and determination of Martin Luther King Jr., may inspire us to wish to be like them. Who is your ideal leader? What qualities does our society believe the ideal leader must have?

Every society has a vision of what constitutes a leader. The **ancient Egyptians**, for example, attributed three qualities of divinity to their king (Frankfort, Frankfort, Wilson, & Jacobsen, 1949): "Authoritative utterance is in thy mouth, perception is in thy heart, and thy tongue is the shrine of justice." An analysis of leaders in Homer's *Iliad* resulted in four sets of ideal leadership qualities admired by **ancient Greeks** (Sarachek, 1968): (1) justice and judgment (Agamemnon), (2) wisdom and counsel (Nestor), (3) shrewdness and cunning (Odysseus), and (4) valor and action (Achilles).

1. Working by yourself, complete the following two tables.
2. Form a group of four. Compare answers and reach consensus about society's views of who are leaders and what characteristics they have.

Who Are Ideal Leaders?

Leaders Society Admires	Leaders I Admire	Leaders We Admire
1.	1.	1.
2.	2.	2.
3.	3.	3.
4.	4.	4.

What Are Qualities of Ideal Leaders?

Qualities Society Admires	Qualities I Admire	Qualities We Admire
1.	1.	1.
2.	2.	2.
3.	3.	3.
4.	4.	4.
5.	5.	5.
6.	6.	6.

EXAMPLE OF A HERO

King Alfred is the only king in English history who is given the title, "The Great." Alfred became King of Wessex in England in 849, a time when the Vikings had conquered the North

Thinking is a purposeful mental activity

You control your thinking

It is a conscious activity

It is a reliable way to search for the truth

You need to discipline yourself to think critically.

How does success on the job depend on your critical thinking?

Shallow, illogical thinking is easy and common to engage in.

Popular culture promotes certain false ideas about the truth.

Remember– there is a difference between facts which are reality based and opinions, beliefs and judgment which are products of our socializations process and what we might read and be exposed to in our culture

As a student you need to cultivate not only intellectual abilities—but intellectual dispositions too. It represents excellence in thought. It determines what with what insight and integrity you think.

1. **Intellectual Humility:** the knowledge of ignorance, sensitivity to what you know and don't know; being aware of your biases, prejudices, self-deceptive tendencies and limitations of your viewpoint.

Consider the following to foster intellectual humility:

- a. what do I really know about myself, my situation, another person, what's occurring in the world?
- b. To what extent do my prejudices or biases influence my thinking?
- c. To what extent have I been indoctrinated into beliefs that may be false or misleading?
- d. How do the beliefs I have uncritically accepted keep me from seeing things as they are?

2. **Intellectual Courage:** the disposition to question beliefs you feel strongly about; includes questioning the beliefs of your culture and your groups, willingness to express your views even if they're unpopular.

Consider the following to foster intellectual courage:

- a. to what extent have I analyzed the beliefs I hold?
 - b. To what extent have I questioned my beliefs, many of which I have learned in childhood?
 - c. To what extent have I demonstrated a willingness to give up my beliefs when sufficient evidence is presented against them?
 - d. To what extent am I willing to stand up against the majority even though people may ridicule me?
3. **Intellectual Empathy:** awareness of the need to actively entertain views that differ from your own; especially those we disagree with; to accurately reconstruct the viewpoints and reasoning of our opponents and to reason from premises, assumptions, and ideas other than our own.

Consider the following to foster intellectual empathy:

- a. to what extent do I accurately represent viewpoints I disagree with?
 - b. can I summarize the views of my opponents to their satisfaction?
 - c. Can I see insights in the views of others and prejudices in my own?
 - d. Do I sympathize with the feelings of others in light of their thinking differently than me?
4. **Intellectual Integrity:** consists in holding yourself to the same intellectual standards; expect others to honor (no double standards)

Consider the following to foster intellectual integrity:

- a. do I behave in accordance with what I say I believe, or do I tend to say one thing and do another?
- b. to what extent do I expect the same of myself as I expect of others?
- c. to what extent are there contradictions or inconsistencies in my life?
- d. to what extent do I strive to recognize and eliminate self-deception in my life?

5. **Intellectual Perseverance:** the disposition to work your way through intellectual complexities despite frustration in the task.

Consider the following to foster intellectual perseverance:

- a. am I willing to work my way through complexities in an issue or do I tend to give up when having difficulty?
- b. can I think of a difficult intellectual problem in which I have demonstrated patience and determination in working through the difficulties?
- c. do I have strategies for dealing with complex problems?
- d. do I expect learning to be easy or do I recognize the importance of engaging in challenging intellectual work?

6. **Confidence in Reason:** based on the belief that one's own higher interests and those of humankind at large are best served by giving the freest play to reason; it means using standards of reasonability as the fundamental criteria by which to judge whether to accept or reject any belief or position.

Consider the following to foster confidence in reason:

- a. am I willing to change my position when the evidence leads to a more reasonable position?
- b. do I adhere to principles of sound reasoning when persuading others on my position; do I distort to support my position?
- c. do I deem it more important to win an argument or see the issue from the most reasonable perspective?
- d. do I encourage others to come to their own conclusions or do I try to force my views on them?

7. **Intellectual Autonomy:** thinking for oneself while adhering to standards of rationality; thinking through issues using your own thinking rather than uncritically accepting viewpoints of others.

Consider the following to foster intellectual autonomy:

- a. to what extent am I a conformist?
- b. to what extent do I uncritically accept what I am told by my government, media, etc
- c. do I think through issues on my own or do I merely accept the views of others?

Components of the Self-Concept

- Self-concept involves 4 separate but interrelated components:
- 1) physical self-concept
- 2) social self-concept
- 3) emotional self-concept
- 4) intellectual self-concept

- They are separate because each is unique on its own.
- However they are also interrelated because our self-concept in one area can influence our self-concept in another area.
- For example-- if your self-concept is shaky in one area it may inhibit the risks I'm willing to take in another area, such as my social life and it may interfere with my ability to express myself emotionally (emotional self-concept).
- In contrast-- if I'm feeling positive about my physical self-concept, it may make me feel more confident about my social self.
- Goal: we want congruency between the components of the self.
- Generally speaking-- the greater the gap between the way we perceive ourselves and the way we really want to be, the more dissatisfied with ourselves we tend to be.

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

There are 6 stages of moral development in Kohlberg's model and he asserts they are universal.

Development from one stage to another is fostered by opportunities to take the perspective of others and experience conflict between one's current stage of moral thinking and reasoning of someone at a higher stage.

Level 1: Preconventional

Stage 1: Heteronomous Morality: individuals pursue their own interests but let others do the same; what is right involves equal exchange; children think that they must obey because they fear punishment for disobedience.

Stage 2: Individualism, purpose, and exchange: children reason that pursuing their own interests is right thing to do and they let others do the same; they think what is right involves equal exchange; they are nice so others will be nice to them. Appears at age 10.

Level 2: Conventional

Stage 3: Mutual interpersonal expectations, relationships and interpersonal conformity: individuals value trust, caring, and loyalty to others as a basis for moral judgments; children adopt their parents' moral standards so they can be thought of by parents as nice or good. Appears at age 16-18

Stage 4: Social system morality: moral judgments are based on understanding and the social order, law, justice and duty; adolescents may reason that in order for a community to work effectively it needs to be protected by laws that are adhered to by others. Appears in 20's

Level 3: Postconventional

Stage 5: Social contract or utility and individual rights: individuals reason that values, rights and principles undergird or transcend the law; one evaluates the validity of laws and social systems can be examined in terms of the degree to which they preserve and protect fundamental human rights and values. Stage 5 appears between ages 20-22 and in no more than 10% of individuals

Stage 6: Universal ethical principles: the person has developed moral judgments that are based on universal human rights; when faced with a dilemma between law and conscience, a personal, individualized conscience is followed.

Carol Gilligan criticizes Kohlberg on grounds of gender bias. She argues it's based on a male norm and it puts abstract principles above relationships and concern for others; and sees the individual as standing alone and independently making moral decisions. It puts justice at the heart of morality. Gilligan argues for a care perspective—where a moral perspective is viewed in terms of their connectedness with others and emphasizes interpersonal communication, relationships with others and concern for others.

Is morality the result of social learning or socialization? How and why is this a relativist position?

What are the potential problems with saying morality is relative?

Human beings have values they learned in their social environment; so an individual has values and a moral person is supposed to act on those values? What happens when a person's values come into conflict with one another? How does one decide which value to follow?

In other words, which value takes precedence in a certain situation?

Children learn about the rules of proper behavior before they are capable of understanding their meaning.

A 3 year old's thinking is egocentric; he/she cannot distinguish between his/her own perspective (what he/she wants) and the perspective of others (what others want of them).

Beginning at age 6 children learn role taking—the ability to take the role of another—to weigh their claim against the other's claim.

The 8 year old however is able to do role taking; the ability to take the role of another person is a social skills developed later; empathy

The dilemma's and the interviews are designed to examine the respondent's content of thinking which is the conclusion or answer and the reasoning represents the form or structure of thought; (the structure represents the subject's real thinking)

Disequilibrium – when one conflicted about making a choice based on a value system

Equilibrium needs to be restored by justifying one's decision to self and others

Page 52 – stages imply qualitative differences in modes of thinking; why we value friendships -> for some it's because others care for them and for some it's because friends will help you in a pinch

For this assignment please interpret these adages/aphorisms in the space below. Thank you, Elie

Strong lives are motivated by dynamic purpose; lesser ones exist on wishes and inclinations. The most glowing successes are but reflections of an inner fire.

Kenneth Hildebrand

Challenging the meaning of life is the truest expression of the state of being human.

Viktor Frankl

Everything has been figured out, except how to live.

Jean-Paul Sartre

The best use of a life is to spend it for something that will outlast it.

William James

Anything that has real and lasting value is always a gift from within.

Franz Kafka

Awakened

In advanced age, my health worsening, I woke up in the middle of the night, and experienced a feeling of happiness so intense and perfect that in all my life I had only felt its premonition. And there was no reason for it. It didn't obliterate consciousness; the past which I carried was there, together with my grief. And it was suddenly included, was a necessary part of the whole. As if a voice were repeating: "You can stop worrying now; everything happened just as it had to. You did what was assigned to you, and you are not required anymore to think of what happened long ago." The peace I felt was a closing of accounts and was connected with the thought of death. The happiness on this side was like an announcement of the other side. I realized that this was an undeserved gift and I could not grasp by what grace it was bestowed on me.

— Czeslaw Milosz, Poet, winner of the 1980 Nobel Prize for Literature

An exercise on defamiliarization: (page 41 in text: Writing Analytically)

Words that repeat exactly: (example: count the number of times words are repeated):

Strands: (example: powerful emotion and violent actions; drugs and adult games and escapism):

Binary oppositions: (example: group to individual value; how far I've come to how little I've come; present-past)

Strange is our situation here on earth. Each of us comes for a short visit, not knowing why, yet sometimes seeming to divine a purpose. From the standpoint of daily life, however, there is one thing we do know: that people are here for the sake of other people, for the countless souls with whose faith we are connected by a bond of sympathy. Many times a day I realize how my own inner and outer life is built upon the labors of others, both living and dead, and how earnestly I must exert myself in order to give in return, as much as I have received, and am still receiving.

■ Albert Einstein

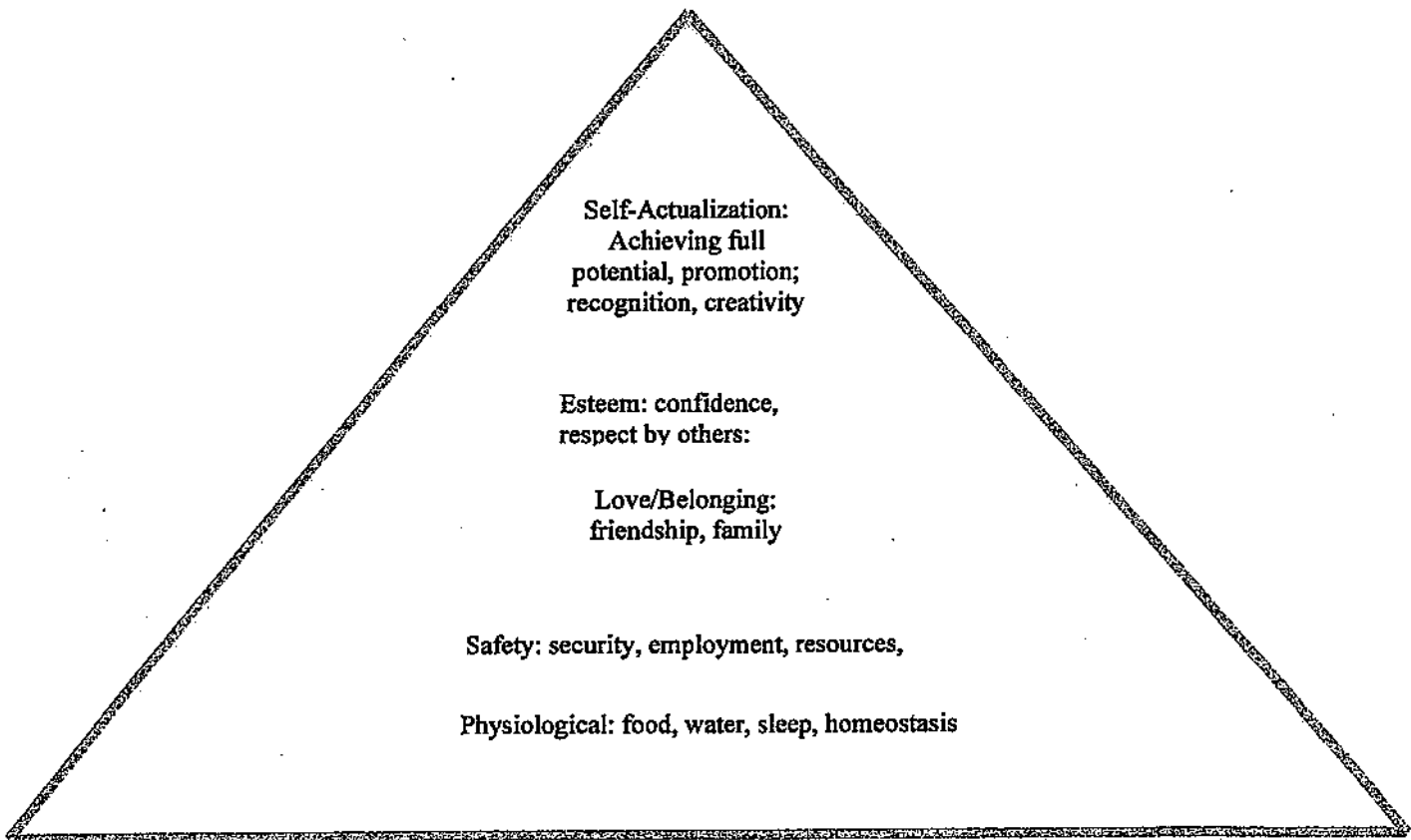
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Maslow's Need Ladder – Hierarchy of Needs



What is a theory?

A new theory can be justified if it has the potential to explain things that other theories cannot.



Any new theory must lead to testable hypotheses which will allow it to be compared with other theories—with the goal of determining whether the theory would constitute a scientific advance should it survive in light of research aimed at testing its specific hypotheses



If a theory is able to withstand rigorous tests of its validity, the question then becomes one of application. Can such a theory be applied without giving rise to inconsistencies?



If a theory can pass these crucial tests, then the theory can be compared with other competing theories to see if the current theory represents a replacement or extension of theories currently in use.



Will such a theory help us to achieve some useful purpose?

Is such a theory needed at all?