Conflict, is a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party values.

Functional conflict, commonly referred to as constructive or cooperative conflict, it is characterized by consultative interaction, places the focus on the issues, mutual respect, and useful give-and-take; it may involve challenging ideas, standards, or processes that are ineffective. Positive outcomes frequently result.

Functional conflict doesn’t just resolve the issue, it builds the capacity to keep future conflicts functional

Dysfunctional conflict, places the focus on the conflict, rather than the interests of the organization; it is often personal, involving aggression or threats directed at specific people. When conflict gets personal – directed at people not ideas,

Outcomes of functional and dysfunctional conflict:

Functional conflict, important point, doesn’t just resolve the issue, it builds the capacity to keep future conflicts functional.

Positive consequences of Functional conflict:

(1) Leads to new ideas,

(2) Stimulates creativity,

(3) Motivates change,

(4) promotes organizational vitality,

(5) helps individuals and groups establish identities,

(6) Serves as a safety valve to indicate problems.

Negative consequences of Functional conflict:

(1) Diverts energy from work,

(2) Threatens psychological well-being,

(3) wastes resources,

(4) creates a negative climate,

(5) breaks down group cohesion,

(6) Can increase hostility and aggressive behaviors.

Conflict is important,

Too little conflict characterized by apathy, lack of creativity, indecision, and missed deadlines.

Too much conflict characterized by eroding performance, political infighting, dissatisfaction, lack of teamwork, and aggression.

Conflict escalation often exhibits these five characteristics:

1. Tactics change. Parties often move from “light tactics,” such as persuasive arguments, promises, and efforts to please the other side, to “heavy tactics” that include threats, power plays, and even violence.
2. Number of issues grows. More issues that bother each party are raised and included in the conflict.
3. Issues move from specific to general. Small and specific concerns often become more vague or general and can evolve into a general dislike of or intolerance for the other party.
4. Number of parties grows. More people and groups are drawn into the conflict.
5. Goals change. Parties change their focus from “doing well” or resolving conflict to winning and even hurting the other party.

Conflict is a process:

Five stages (need to update),

1. Potential opposition or incompatibility,
2. Cognition and personalization,
3. Intentions,
4. Behavior,
5. Outcomes,

Causes of Conflict,

Structural factors: is the situation that your role puts you in. of role things put on you due to the structure around you),

Specialization (of tasks or rules),

Interdependence (requires cooperation),

Common resources (major issue),

Goal differences,

Authority relationships (leader style matters),

Status inconsistencies,

Jurisdictional ambiguities,

Role conflict:

A common structural source is role conflict, in which expectations for how to act in one’s role come from many sources that conflict with one another:

Interrole: Conflict between multiple roles

Intrarole: Conflict from multiple senders to one role (two people telling you how to do one role)

Person-role: Conflict from one’s personal values (cognitive dissonance),

Causes of Conflict:

Personal factors:

Skills and abilities

Differences in personality

Perception of situational variables

Values and ethics

Emotional “flare-ups”

Communication barriers

Cultural differences

Causes of Conflict:

While conflict can often begin in a functional way, it can escalate and turn dysfunctional

Escalation is indicated by:

Use of threatening tactics or ”power plays”

More issues are brought into the conflict

Issues move from specific to general

More people and groups get involved

Goals shift from ’resolution’ to ‘winning’ or even just harming the other party

Experienced Conflict

Perceived and felt conflict define the actual conflict that the parties then attempt to resolve; this definition can be affected by many things:

The importance of what is affected by the structural or personal factor

The motives that parties attribute for the others’ actions, the assumptions they’re making

The existing relationship between the parties (e.g., trusting, critical, power inequalities, etc.)

When in a group, members develop shared perceptions of conflict (i.e., conflict states)

Conflict states often reinforce group cognitions and escalate conflict through “in-group” biases:

In-group members view themselves as unique individuals, yet stereotypes members of other groups

In-group members see themselves as morally correct, and outsiders as immoral

Outsiders are viewed as threats

Differences between other groups are distorted

Conflict Management

The nature of the perceived/felt conflict, along with a person’s or group’s traits, determine the strategies that emerge in their conflict process:

Cooperative strategies

assume win-win is possible, engage in honest communication, trust, and openness to risk/vulnerability

Assertive/Competitive strategies

assume win-lose will happen, dishonest communication, rigid positions

The two strategies combine and give rise to unique conflict management styles:

Conflict Management

COnflict - handleing style:

Competing:

(1)When quick, decisive action is vital(e.g. emergencies)

(2)On important issues where unpopular actionsneed implementing (e.g., cost cutting, enforcing unpopular rules, disipline).

(3)On issues vital to company wellfare when you know you are right

(4)Against people who take advantage of noncompetitive behavior.

Collaborating:

(1)To find an integrative solution when boths sets of concerns are too important to be comprimised.

(2)When your objetive is to learn.

(3) to merge insights from people with different perspectives.

(4)To gain commitment by incorporating concerns into consensus.

(5)To work through feelings that have interfered with a relationship.

Compromising:

(1)When goals are important but not worth the effort or potential disruption of more assertive modes.

(2)When opponents with equal power are commitied to mutually exclusive goals.

(3)To achieve temporary settlements to complex issues.

(4)To arrive at expedient solutions under pressure.

(5)As a backup when collaboration or coppetition is un successful.

Avoiding:

(1)When an issue is trival or more important issues are pressing.

(2)When you preceive no chance of staisfying your concernns

(3)When potential disruption outweighs the benefits of resolution.

(4)To let people cool down to regain perspectives

(5)When gathering information supersedes immediate decision

(6)When others can resolve the conflict more effectively

(7)When issues seem tangential or systomatic of other issues.

Accommodating:

(1) When you find you are wrong, to allow a better position to be heard, to learn, and to show your reasonableness.

(2)When issues are ore important to others that to yourself, to sattisfy others and maintain cooperation.

(3)To build socila credits for later issues.

(4)To minimize loss when when you are out matched and losing.

(5)When harmony and stability are especially important.

(6)To allow employees to develop by learning from mistakes.

Conflict Management:

Ineffective techniques among the styles include:

Nonaction, secrecy, administrative orbiting (delays), due process nonaction (system is too costly), character assassination

Effective techniques include:

Superordinate goals(a common goal), bring in new resources to solve the problem, change personnel, re-structure, finding common ground, allowing parties to safely express frustrations, letting people take the lead in solving problems with which they’re familiar

Conflict Management:

Simply having people from conflicting groups interact more often isn’t enough to reduce conflict or in-group bias (i.e., the contact hypothesis), specific negative relationships and negative attitudes need to be addressed

Dysfunctional conflict can be prevented by building psychological safety, a shared belief that it is safe to engage in risky behavior, such as questioning practices or ideas, without retribution

Well managed conflict can heighten rational decision-making and reduce groupthink, in contrast, dysfunctional conflict can impair communication, resource-sharing, collaborative input, and performance

Negotiation:

Negotiations are a specific type of conflict management wherein two or more parties exchange goods or services and attempts to agree on an exchange rate for them

There are two general negotiation strategies:

Distributive bargaining: Zero-sum conditions, any gain one party makes is a loss to the other, low information sharing, opposed interests

Integrative bargaining: Broadens goods/services to ensure win-win, high info sharing, congruent interests collaborative

Negotiation:

In distributive bargaining, parties compete for power, leveraging offers, deadlines, and politics:

In integrative bargaining, parties focus on long-term relationships, through being open, focusing on underlying goals, and considering alternatives:

Negotiation Process

is a formal process

There are five steps in negotiation:

Preparation and planning: Define own goals, anticipate partner’s goals, gather data on similar negotiations, develop strategy, identify least acceptable outcomes (for all parties)

Definition of ground rules: Set people, issues to cover, place, time allotted – who where when...

Clarification and justification: Elaborate on positions

Bargaining and problem-solving: Make concessions

Closure and implementation: Contract, if needed.

Negotiation Process:

If an impasse is reached, third-parties are used:

Conciliator: Only mediates communication

Arbitrator: Dictates an agreement

Mediator: Rationally facilitates an agreement

CHapter 11 Power and Politics

Power

The rational model of organizations considers effectiveness and behavior as being driven by objective, measureable, and formal processes

The political model of organizations recognizes that effectiveness and organizational behavior

is driven by people with competing interests who are using informal social processes to achieve goals

Power is a measure of person’s ability to influence the attitudes and behaviors of other individuals; it is based in a dyadic (two-person) relationship

Influence is the actual process of affecting attitudes or behaviors

Managers in organizations typically have authority, which is the formal right to influence a subordinate

Authority only influences subordinate behavior if the request falls in the zone of indifference (i.e., it is perceived as legitimate)

Bases of Power

There are five forms of interpersonal power used in organizations:

Reward power is based on an influencer’s control over rewards desired by a target; employee must see a clear and strong link to the reward

Coercive power is based on an influencer’s control over punishments; target must believe conformity will avoid punishment

Legitimate power is based on position and mutual agreement that an influencer can affect/dictate the behavior of a target; narrow range that is specifically defined

Expert power is based on the perception of an influencer’s knowledge and effectiveness in a particular domain; such expertise must be important to target -

resides in the individual

Referent power is based on interpersonal attraction and feelings of identity with an influencer; targets will seek to behave and perceive in similar ways to influencers and may not realize the existence of referent power – charisma is in a form of referent power – resides in the individual

Information power is based on access to and control over the presentation of useful information; actor’s framing of information can influence/bias recipient’s interpretation

Bases of Power:

Reward, coercive, and legitimate power tend to result in: Compliance

Referent power tends to result in:

Organizational effectiveness, internal change - commitment

Expert power tends to result in:

Optimal Performance, staisfaction, learning

Tend to foster commitment

(1)Legitimate positive

(2)Expert

(3)Referent

Tend to produce complaince (or resistance)

(1)Legitamate negative

(2)Reward

(3)coercive

Dependence:

Power is a property of the social relation, not the actor” -R. M. Emerson (1962)

Power is:

+ Positively related to a target’s motivational investment in goals over which an influencer controls fulfillment (e.g., pay, knowledge, self-esteem, belongingness, etc.)

– Negatively related to the availability of goal fulfillment outside of the target-influencer relationship

When power relations are imbalanced favoring the influencer, the target may resist and engage in one of two modes:

Cost reduction, where the target makes it easier for him/herself to conform to the influencer (typically by changing their values on relevant entities)

Balancing operations, the target seeks to reduce dependence on the influencer (e.g., disengage from the goal, find alternatives, coalitions, etc.)

Power and Ethics

Power can be used ethically when influencers are sensitive to employees’ concerns and communicate well

Power-related behavior is ethical if it:

Benefits people inside and outside the firm

Respects the rights of all parties

Treats all parties equitably and fairly

reward power

Verify complaince

make feasible, reasonable requests.

Make only ethical requests.

Offer rewards desired by subordinates.

Offer only credibla rewards

COercive power:

Inform subordinates of rules and penalties.

warn before punishing

Adminster punishment consistently and uniformly.

Understand the situation before acting.

Maintain credibility.

Fit punishment to the infraction.

Punish in private.

Legitimate power

be cordial and polite.

Be confident.

Be clear and follow up to verify understanding.

Make sure request is appropriate.

Explain reasons for request.

follow proper channels.

Exercise power consistently.

Enforce complaince.

Be sensitive to subordinates' concerns.

Referent power:

Treat subordinates fairly.

Defend subordinates' interests.

Be sensitive to subordinates' needs and feelings.

Select subordinates simalar to oneself.

Engage in role modeling.

Expert Power:

Maintain credibiity.

Act confident and decisive.

Keep informed.

Recognize employee concerns.

Avoid threatening subordinates' self-esteem.

\*\* Look at book - Please review the “Power Sharing and Empowerment” section on your own.

Organizational Politics:

Organizational politics is the use of power and social influence to obtain desired outcomes in organizations

The “rules” of politics in any organization are informal (they arise organically), often unspoken, and learned either through indirect/vicarious experience or directly from those with political power.

Political Behavior:

Political behavior is any action not sanctioned by the organization that is taken to influence others in order to meet one’s personal goals

Political behavior can be:

Defensive (reactive) or assertive (proactive)

Tactical (short-term) or strategic (long-term) mostly reputation building

Political behavior typically consists of either:

Influence tactics, which are a direct means of influencing other, by altering their behavior and thoughts, and gaining power

Impression management tactics, which are an indirect means of influencing others and gaining power by creating a desired image of oneself in the minds of others, which then alters their behavior

Influence behaviors include:

Fill in from text.

Political Behavior:

The most common reasons for tactic usage on:

Subordinates: change behavior, assign tasks

Peers: request help

Superiors: request approval or resources, obtain personal benefits

The most effective influence tactics for each outcome are:

Commitment to a task: inspirational appeal, consultation, rational persuasion

Compliance: exchange, ingratiation

Resistance: Pressure, upward appeal, coalition

Impression management tactics each elicit a specific appearance or image:

Ingratiation: appear likeable, attractive most effective

Self-promotion: appear competent, expert

Exemplification: appear loyal, conscientious, dependable, reliable most effective

Intimidation: appear aggressive, powerful, dangerous

Supplication: appear weak, compliant.

The key to successful influence or impression management is to appear sincere and genuine in one’s actions or requests

Influence targets will be more likely to suspect ulterior or self-interested motives when the influence/impression behavior is not consistent with social norms or not appropriate for the goal

Successful political behavior (influence tactics, impression management) is linked to many positive outcomes for the individual engaging in it, such as:

Higher performance evaluation ratings

Higher pay

Greater assessments of promotability

Heightened overall career success

Improved leader-follower relations

The arising of politics depends on three situational characteristics that affect an employee’s work:

Ambiguity in work processes and procedures enhances politics: e.g., low formalization, low centralization, minimal feedback, etc.

Norms that produce large and rigid power differentials enhance politics: e.g., authoritarian leadership, normative formal power usage, etc.

High frequency of social interactions can enhance politics; e.g., personal accountability becomes salient.

Perception of Politics:

Political behavior shapes the political context, expectations, and assumptions experienced by employees people often view politics can be useful and beneficial for organization, but politics as negative or toxic

The perception of politics (POPS) is the degree to which people attribute other people’s behavior to self-interested motives (i.e., poorly executed political behavior), or perceive their organization’s formal processes to be biased by social influence.

Although political behavior may be beneficial for the actor, when it is perceived as self-serving (i.e., the more POPS arises among others) by others, there are negative consequences for those others:

Increased stress, and intention to turnover

Decreased satisfaction, commitment, and performance

Increased likelihood of others engaging in political

behavior themselves

Decreased perceptions of justice/fairness.

Political Skill:

Political skill is the ability effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and/or organizational objective

Political skill has been found to enhance the

social and organizational effectiveness of employees and leaders.

Political skill consists of four dimensions:

(1) Social astuteness: Understanding of social dynamics, self-awareness

(2) Interpersonal influence: Adapting one’s behavior to meet situational demands and elicit desired responses in others

(3) Networking ability: Develop social relations and alliances, obtain resources

(4) Apparent sincerity: Appear authentic only works if others buy it

Political Skill:

Political Skill is rooted in various traits (Ferris, Blickle et al., 2008)

Perceptiveness:

self-monitoring

control:

Work locus of control

Self-efficacy

Affiability:

Extroversion

Positive Affectivity

Active Influence:

Dominance

Instrmentality

Development experiences: (One of the biggest predictors)

Received Mentoring

Political Skill

Political skill can serve many functions for an individual, including:

(1) Neutralize stressors (e.g., role conflict, role overload, supervisor conflict, POPS for oneself)

(2) Increases effectiveness of political behavior (e.g., enhance likelihood of desired outcome, reduce the likelihood that they will be perceived as solely self-serving)

(3) Enhancing work outcomes (e.g. job performance, leader effectiveness, trust)

Managing Politics:

Political behavior is unavoidable and it is not necessarily a bad thing

Leaders often use influence and impression management tactics to:

Enhance cooperation

Create consensus in how things are perceived

Clarify and inspire goal-directed team performance.

Managing Politics:

There are two employee experiences that can help reduce the negative effects of POPS:

Understanding the causes, expectations, norms, and general nature of politics in one’s context

Having a sense of control over the arising and enactment of politics in one’s context

This can be done situationally (e.g., leadership or management actions, organizational processes, etc.), or by enhancing employees’ political skill.

\*\*\* test Managing Politics:

The other primary approach is to reduce the likelihood of political behavior and POPS arising in the first place, some tactics include:

Transparent communication and feedback (reduces uncertainty)

Managing and clarifying resource allocation

Participative management and involvement (neutralizes threat in felt accountability)

Encouraging cooperation among groups

Managing scarce resources equitably

Leadership:

What is Leadership?

Leadership does not reside within an individual…

Leadership is emergent

The arising and effectiveness of leadership depend on something beyond your leader

Those who are led.

Leaders bring order to chaos

Leaders guide us through the complexities of life by facilitating organizational change; the most effective ones do so by changing personality

Our chief want is someone who will inspire us to be what we know we could be.

~Ralph Waldo Emerson

Leadership:

Leadership is the process of influencing others to achieve group or organizational goals

Leaders encourage effective change in organizations; leadership is most effective when it taps into the beliefs and fundamental motivations of people, and uses that to transform them.

Basics of Leadership:

Early theories of leadership investigated leader attributes and their impact on leadership effectiveness

Although things like height have been found to predict leader emergence:

Personality is a better predictor of outcomes

Task-oriented traits (e.g., conscientiousness, IQ) predict performance and effectiveness

Interpersonal traits (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness) predict attitudes

Many of the personal traits (stable psychological tendencies) associated with leadership are linked to traits we’ve already discussed in this class:

Drive (conscientiousness, extraversion, need for achievement)

Desire to lead (need for power)

Honesty/integrity (agreeableness, values)

Self-confidence (self-esteem, self-efficacy) and emotional stability

Conceptual and analytical cognitive abilities (IQ), and knowledge of their business (human capital)

Further research found that leaders generally perform two types of behaviors:

Initiating structure (task-oriented): Defining and organizing work relationships and roles, establishing patterns of communication and task accomplishment

Consideration (person-oriented): Nurturing friendly and warm working relationships, encouraging mutual trust and respect

Mich-Ohio State-Minnesota studies 1950s

The Leadership Grid associated the two types of leader behavior with one another, thus illustrating the existence of different leadership styles

Concern for people

Concern for production

\*\* test Contingency Theories:

Contingency theories assert that the leadership style must be appropriate for the particular situation in order to enhance worker performance

Fiedler’s Contingency Theory asserts that leaders are either task-oriented or relationship-oriented (assessed via LPC), and function more or less effectively based on the favorableness of the context in which they function

Situation favorability:

Task-oriented leaders are effective in highly favorably or unfavorable situations

Relationship-oriented leaders are effective in moderately favorable situations

Situational Leadership Model suggests that leader behavior (task, relationship) should be adjusted to follower maturity (ability, motivation) for performing any given task

First, identify the employees maturity/readiness, second, decide on the appropriate amount of relationship or task behaviors

Relational Theories:

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory finds that leaders form different unique relationships with different followers, they do not treat them all the same

Leaders informally (and perhaps non-consciously) assign subordinates to the in-group or the out-group because they have limited resources (e.g., time, attention) to distribute among employees

Subordinates negotiate and develop their work roles via interactions with their leaders

In-group members experience:

Trust, autonomy/discretion in developing role, attention, resources, challenging tasks, rewards, clearer understanding of leader expectations

Out-group members experience:

Fewer rewards, less attention, guidance based on policy and procedure, less responsibility

The quality of LMX depends on:

Perceived contribution to the exchange

Loyalty, expression of support

Affect, mutual attraction

LMX is strongly related to:

Subordinate job performance, satisfaction with supervisor, job satisfaction, commitment, positive role perceptions, competence

Transactional

Transactional leaders (TXL) engage in mutual exchanges with followers, enforced by rewards and punishments

Lower-order exchanges involve:

Goals (e.g., pay) and aspirations (e.g., success)

Higher-order exchanges involve:

Interpersonal relations and mutuality (e.g, trust, respect , emotional support)

Transformational leadership bound by belief- about transforming employees values

Transformational leaders behave according to deeply held values that can then influence the values and goals of followers, and inspire followers to achieve superior levels of performance

Transformational leaders have strong personal characteristics; they are able to transcend their personal goals and loyalties in order to advance core beliefs and values

Transformational leaders engage in the following four behaviors/styles:

Idealized influence: Strong personal qualities, values, or beliefs that elicit liking/attraction and regard; exceptional role model or image

Inspirational motivation (charisma): Infusing work with personal meaning, generating a vision for the future, setting challenging performance standards

Transformational cult

Individualized consideration: Concern for each follower’s unique goals and needs, and providing personalized mentoring

Intellectual stimulation: Challenging followers to take new perspectives, move beyond their habitual or ineffective behaviors, innovate, challenge organizational norms

Transformational leadership predicts:

Firm performance, extra effort exerted towards job performance, positive attitudes (e.g., satisfaction, commitment)

Transformational leadership is as effective as contingent reward leadership (one part of TXL), yet is less dependent on access to resources and it more stable over time

Charismatic leadership is -Transformative leadership for the masses

Charisma means “favor given” or “gift of grace” in Greek, and is associated with charm, kindness, being blessed

Charisma resides in the relationship between leader and followers, wherein followers ascribe highly positive inspirational qualities to a leader

Charisma – attributional -is not constant not enduring – comes and goes

Charismatic leadership is a part of transformational leadership, but relies more on using personal qualities/values to inspire a vision of the future

Followers will adhere to a leader’s ideals to the extent that:

The leader’s vision satisfies the needs of the followers

Identification with the leader is self-enhancing (self-efficacy is boosted)

Charismatic four things to be attributed with charisma

Charisma is an attributional process; people will ascribe charisma to a leader based on:

Degree of discrepancy between status quo and leader’s vision/goals

Innovative means are used to create change radical change

Realism of assessments of resources available for change and barriers to change

Impression management effectiveness

Riskier behaviors, goals, and decisions for the sake of fulfilling one’s vision, will enhance attributions of charisma

Charisma (and charismatic leadership) is transitory and mainly arises when there is uncertainty and disenchantment among followers