**LITERARY REVIEW**

Literary Review of this research begins with study of Social Psychology otherwise called as Socio-Psychology. Socio-psychology is a discipline that tries to understand the individual behaviour in a social context. Socio-psychology is the [scientific study](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Science) of how people's [thoughts](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thought), [feelings](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feeling), and [behaviors](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Behavior) are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others. Study of Socio-Psychology is necessary to identify the Socio-psychological factors that impacts to the inter-group behaviour especially in terms of intergroup conflicts.

Literary review further extends with the study of Intergroup Conflict, Intergroup Behaviour and Intergroup Theories. Intergroup Theories investigate the behaviour, mechanisms and rules that govern the processes of groups in society. Further Inter-group theories also discusses on the major causes for the inter-group conflicts that happens in the workplace. Literary review further investigates on the various Socio-Psychological approaches that are applicable to bring solidity between the groups and to avoid / resolve the inter-group conflicts happening in the workplace.

**SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGY**

**DEFINITION**

According to *Gordon Allport* Social Psychology is best defined as the discipline that uses scientific methods in “an attempt to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of other human beings”.

*Myers and Spencer (2006)* define Social Psychology as the “scientific study of how people think about, influence, and relate to one another”.

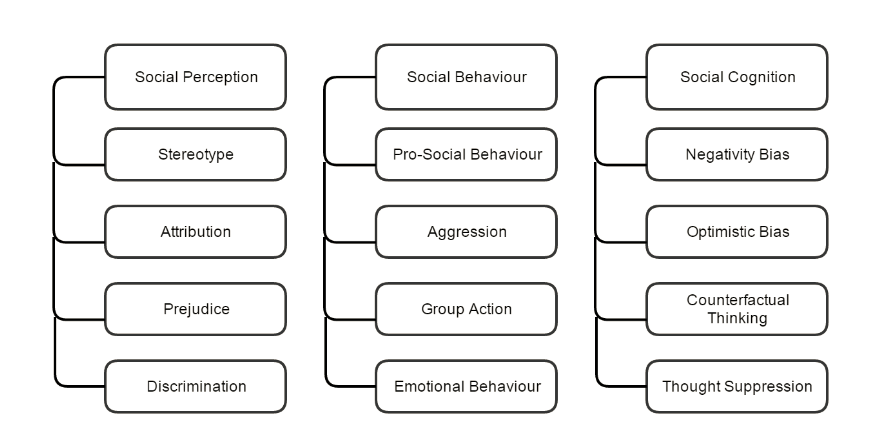
*Barron and Byrne (2007)* defined social psychology as “the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and cause of individual behaviour and thought in social situations”.

**DIMENSIONS**

Socio-Psychology is the study of the feelings, behaviors, and thoughts of individuals in the social situation. Social psychology is based on the ABCs: Affect, Behaviour, and Cognition

1. Affect (Perception)
2. Behaviour (Interactions)
3. Cognition (Thought)

Every dimension of Social-Psychology has either positive and negative influence on the intergroup relations. This study focusses on the following Social-Psychology factors which directly or indirectly influences the intergroup conflicts.



**SOCIAL PERCEPTION**

Social perception is defined as the study of how we form impressions of and make inferences about other people. In order to know about other people, we depend on information gained from their physical appearance, and verbal and nonverbal communication. Missing information are filled in by using an implicit personality theory. These assumptions help us to categorize people and then infer additional facts and predict behaviour. Social perception is one important component of social competence and successful social life. Being competent in social perception includes three domains of competence:

* knowing that other people have thoughts, beliefs, emotions, intentions, desires.
* being able to “read” other people’s inner states based on their words, behavior, facial expressions
* adjusting one’s actions based on those “readings”.

That is, a socially competent person can make note of other people’s facial expressions, tone of voice, posture, gestures, words, and the like, and on the basis of these clues, make reasonably accurate judgments about that person’s state of mind, emotions, and intentions. Socially competent people then use these inferences about other people’s inner states to make good decisions about how to behave socially. Social perceptions can obviously be flawed - even skilled observers can misperceive, misjudge, and reach the wrong conclusions. Once we form wrong impressions, they are likely to persist.

**STEREOTYPE**

A Stereotype is a thought that can be adopted about specific types of individuals or certain ways of doing things. Stereotypes reflect expectations and beliefs about the characteristics of members of other groups perceived as different from one's own. The possible reasons for stereotyping a group of people may be

* Justification or Ignorance
* Unwillingness to re-think one's attitudes and behavior towards stereotyped groups
* Preventing some people of stereotyped groups from entering or succeeding in activities or fields.

Stereotyping can serve rational functions on an interpersonal level, and social functions on an intergroup level. For stereotyping to function on an intergroup level an individual must see themselves as part of a group and being part of that group must also be salient for the individual.

Stereotyping of group of individual will favor any other group

* when stereotypes are used for explaining social events
* when stereotypes are used for justifying activities of one's own group to another groups.
* when stereotypes are used for differentiating the in-group as positively distinct from outgroups

**ATTRIBUTION**

Attribution indicates an explanation for the cause of an event or behaviour. Individual always try to attribute any hostile event on others. Attribution of an Individual may likely influence the group, if an individual always associates the cause of an unfavorable event towards individual from other groups. Gradually, all the members of a group may likely attribute any disapproving event towards other groups. Attributions of people as group members are ethnocentric and based on stereotypes.

**PREJUDICE**

Prejudice is a negative belief or feeling about a particular group of individuals. Prejudices may be passed on from one generation to the next. Prejudice is always a destructive phenomenon, and it is pervasive because it serves many psychological, social, and economic functions. It gives people scapegoats to blame in times of trouble and can boost self-esteem. People’s social identities depend on the groups they belong to. From a person’s perspective, any group he belongs to is an in-group, and any group he doesn’t belong to is an outgroup. People generally have a lower opinion of outgroup members and a higher opinion of members of their own group. People who identify strongly with a particular group are more likely to be prejudiced against people in competing outgroups.

**DISCRIMINATION**

Discrimination is behaviour that advantages or disadvantages people merely based on their group membership. Discrimination is treatment or consideration of, or making a distinction in favor of or against, a person or thing based on the group, class, or category to which that person or thing is perceived to belong to rather than on individual merit. This includes treatment of an individual or group, based on their actual or perceived membership in a certain group or social category. Moral philosophers have defined discrimination as disadvantageous treatment or consideration. An individual need not be actually harmed in order to be discriminated against. They just need to be treated worse than others for some arbitrary reason. Discrimination strikes at the very heart of being human.  It is treating someone differently simply because of who they are or what they believe. We all have the right to be treated equally, regardless of our race, ethnicity, nationality, class, caste, religion, belief, sex, language, sexual orientation, gender identity, age, health or other status.

**SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR**

Social behavior is a term used to describe the general conduct exhibited by individuals within a society. It is essentially in response to what is considered acceptable by a person’s group or involves avoiding behavior that is characterized as unacceptable. This type of human behavior primarily determines how individuals interact with one another within a group or society. While social conduct is often modeled to create a comfortable social environment, anti-social behavior, such as aggression, scapegoating and group bullying, may also be defined as negative social behavior, particularly in instances where other individuals within a peer group all behave accordingly.

**PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR**

Prosocial Behaviour refers to actions by individual that help others with no immediate benefit to helper and such actions are very common in our social life. People who engage in such behaviour do not gain anything in return. The following are the different views that explain helping behaviour. **Empathy Altruism Hypotheses** (*Batson, Duncan Ackerman Buckley and Birch*): It refers to putting oneself in other’s shoes. Understanding the situation from other’s perspective. According to this perspective we help others because we experience empathy towards them; we want their plight to end. It suggests that at least some prosocial acts are motivated only by the desire to help someone in need. If such motivation is strong, the helper is willing to engage even in dangerous and life threatening activity.

**Negative State Relief Model** (*Cialdini, Baumann & Kenrick 1981*): According to this model individual help either because actions allow us to reduce their negative feelings. These negative feelings are not necessarily aroused by emergency situation. Individual engage in prosocial act as a way to improve our own negative mood.

**Empathic Joy Hypothesis** (*Smith, Kealing & Stotland 1989*): This theory suggests that helper responds and helps victims not because of empathy but because he wants to accomplish something and doing so is rewarding. The argument goes like this if we help people only for empathy, then they would not be concerned about feedback.

**Competitive Altruism:** According to this view people help others because in doing so their status and reputation is enhanced. Thus, the benefits incurred are larger than the cost of the prosocial behaviour. Those people who help others get higher status because society will always prefer to have people who engage in prosocial behaviour. If helping person has higher status, then such a person may be well compensated for engaging in prosocial action.

**Kin Selection Theory** (*Cialdini Brown Lewis luck & Neuberg (Pinker 1997*)**:** Helping ourselves by helping people who share our genes. From Kin Selection Theory perspective, the main goal of all the organism is passing our genes to next generation. Therefore, we are more likely to help others to whom we are closely related rather than those to whom we are not related.

**AGGRESSION**

Aggression is a behavior, intended to physically hurt or harm in some other way another person or thing. Two important definitions of aggression are as follows: According to *Dollard et al*., Aggression can be defined as “a behaviour whose goal is the injury of the person towards whom it is directed”. Supposedly this includes physical and verbal aggression. *Baron and Byrne* has defined aggression in the following words “aggression is any form of behaviour directed towards the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment”. Aggression is defined as behavior aimed at causing harm or pain, psychological harm, or personal injury or physical distraction. The following are the important social causes of aggression:

**Frustration:** Frustration is one important and powerful cause of aggression. Frustration can arise due to many factors such as environmental or natural calamities, accidents, personal limitations, lack of aptitude, others ill intentions, etc. Recently *Berkowitz (1989)* has proposed a revised version of the frustration-aggression hypothesis. According to this view, frustration is an aversive, unpleasant experience, and frustration leads to aggression because of this fact. The frustration aggression viewpoint also helps to explain why unexpected frustration and frustration that is viewed as illegitimate or unjustified produce stronger aggression than frustration that is expected or legitimate.

**Provocation:** This is another major cause of aggression. Direct provocation leads to anger. Research studies suggest that direct provocation from others, either physical or verbal, often play a powerful role in eliciting overt aggression. Not everybody reacts to provocation with aggression, whether we would react to provocation with aggression is influenced by many factors. One such factor is our attributions concerning provocation. Three important types of provocation that leads to aggression are as follows:

a) Condescension: Expression of arrogance or disdain on the part of others

b) Harsh and Unjustified Criticism: Harsh and Unjustified Criticism, especially criticism that attacks us rather than our behaviour.

c) Teasing: Provoking statements that points to an individual’s flaws and imperfections. Teasing can range from mild, humorous remarks and humorous nicknames to comments that are designed to hurt and insult others

Voilent and Bullying behaviour are two types of aggressive behaviour, their outcomes are extremely similar. **Violent behaviour** is a type of social behaviour that can potentially cause or threaten physical or emotional harm. People who suffer from aggressive behaviour are most likely to be irritable, impulsive and restless hence why this type of behaviour can range from verbal abuse to damaging victim property. **Bullying** is one type of aggression generally seen in long term relationship. Bullying means singling out others for Repeated Abuse. It is a pattern of behavior in which one individual is chosen as the target of repeated aggression by one or more others. The target person (the victim) generally has less power than those who engage in aggression (bullies). The targets of bullying are less able to stand up for them and bring bullying to an end.

**GROUP ACTION**

Group Action is a situation in which a number of individuals take action simultaneously in order to achieve a common goal; their actions are usually coordinated. Group action will often take place when social agents realize they are more likely to achieve their goal when acting together rather than individually. Group action is more likely to occur when the individuals within the group feel a sense of unity with the group, even in personally costly action. The following are the types of Group Actions

**Rational actions:** Actions which are taken because it leads to a valued goal, but with no thought of its consequences and often without consideration of the appropriateness of the means chosen to achieve it [**Instrumental action**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Instrumental_action): Actions which are planned and taken after evaluating the goal in relation to other goals, and after thorough consideration of various means (and consequences) to achieve it.

**EMOTIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

Emotional Behaviour refers to the [moods](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mood_(psychology)), [emotions](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotion) and [dispositional effects](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dispositional_affect) of a [group](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_group) of people. It can be seen as either an emotional entity influencing individual members' emotional states ([top down](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Top_down#Neuroscience_and_psychology)) or the sum of the individuals' emotional states (bottom up).

**Top down approach**

This view sees the group's dynamic processes as responsible for an elusive feeling state which influences the members' feelings and behavior. This view, that groups have an existence as entities beyond the characters that comprise them, has several angles.

**Effects on individuals:** One angle of this approach was depicted in early works such as [Le Bon](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gustave_Le_Bon)'s  and [Freud](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Freud)'s  who reasoned that there is a general influence of a crowd or group which makes the members of the group "feel, think and act" differently than they would have as isolated individuals. The reassurance of belonging to a crowd makes people act more extremely. Also, the intense uniformity of feelings is overwhelming and causes people to be emotionally swept to join the group's atmosphere. Thus, the effect of the group causes emotions to be exaggerated.

**Norms:** Another aspect of the *group as a whole* perspective sees the normative forces a group has on its members' emotional behavior such as norms for the amount of feelings' expression and even which emotions it is best to feel. The group's norms control which emotions would (or at least should) be displayed at a specific situation according to the group's best interest and goals. The norms help differentiate felt emotions, what the individuals actually feel, from expressed emotions, what they display in the current situation. This perspective has practical implications as shown by researchers. Thus, according to this angle the group causes the emotions to be moderated and controlled.

**Binding force:** Another perspective emphasizes the importance of emotional attraction in group settings. It defines group emotion as members' desire to be together, and finds that emotional ties are a type of glue which holds groups together and influences the group's cohesiveness and the commitment to the task. This perspective focuses on the positive emotions of liking the other group members and the task at hand.

**Indicator**: Along the course the group changes in its interrelationships and interdependence amongst its members. These changes are accompanied by emotional processes which shape the outcome of the group. For instance, the midpoint in a group's development is characterized by anxiety and anticipation about the capacity of the team to complete its goals, which drives teams to restructure their interaction patterns following the midpoint. Should the group harness these feelings and overcome the crisis stronger, its chances of completing the group's goals are higher. In other cases, negative emotions towards members of the group or towards the task might jeopardize the group's existence. This perspective sees the temporal changes of the emotions that govern the group.

**Bottom up approach**

Contrary to the former approach, this approach views group-level emotion as the sum of its individuals' affective compositions. These affective compositions are actually the emotional features each member brings with him to the group, such as: dispositional affect, mood, acute emotions, [emotional intelligence](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotional_intelligence), and [sentiments](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feeling) (affective evaluations of the group). The team affective composition approach helps to understand the group emotion and its origins, and how these individual members' affective predisposition combine to become one common entity. For the purpose of combining these individual characteristics, one can embrace several viewpoints:

**Average mood:** Research has shown that by averaging the members' dispositional affective tone it is possible to predict group-level behavior such as [absenteeism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Absenteeism) and [prosocial behavior](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prosocial_behavior). Also, when the average mood of employees was positive, it was positively related to the team's performance.

**Emotional variance:** Affective-homogenous groups are expected to behave differently from heterogeneous ones. The verdict is yet to be decided as to whether homogeneity is better than heterogeneity. In favor of affective homogeneity stand the notion that familiarity and similarity bring feelings of liking, comfort and positive emotions, and thus presumably better group outcomes and performances. It has long been found that people prefer to be in a group similar to them in many perspectives.

### **Emotionally extreme members:** Even if there is only one member in an otherwise averaged group which is extremely negative (or positive) in effect, that person might influence the affective state of the other members and cause the group to be much more negative (or positive) than would be expected from its mean-level dispositional affect. This mood shift might happen through emotional, in which members are "infected" by others' emotions, as well as through other processes.

**SOCIAL COGNITION**

Social cognition is the study of the mental processes involved in perceiving, attending to, remembering, thinking about, and making sense of the people in our social world. Social cognition refers to the ways in which individuals interpret, analyze, remember, and use information about social world. Social cognition studies the ways in which social information is processed by people, particularly encoding, storage, retrieval, and application to social situations. It means application of knowledge and methods of cognitive psychology and information processing theory to the field of social psychology. Schemas influence social cognition by acting upon three basic cognitive processes.

**Attention:** Schemas work as mechanism that helps individuals to focus attention on specific aspects of environment. The stimulus that is coherent with schemas is more easily noticed than the stimulus that is not fitting with the schemas one hold.

**Encoding:** Information that is consistent with schemas is more likely to be saved in the long-term memory than the one that is less relevant. We remember easily the instances when people have agreed with us than when they have disagreed. In contrast, we also remember some instances, which do not at all fit in the schemas.

**Retrieval:** The relationship between schemas and retrieval is a complex issue. Some researchers have shown that information that is consistent with schemas is better retrieved. Others have shown that the information inconsistent with the schemas are more easily stored and retrieved. Human beings reason thoughtfully on most of the social occasions, does not guarantee us rationality of thinking. This means that though we try to be correct in our thought process, we are likely to make errors in our social judgments.

**NEGATIVITY BIAS**

Negativity bias is tendency of Human beings to pay more attention to negative information than positive information is called as negativity bias. Social psychologists have recognized this tendency of human beings for a long time. Negativity bias refers to the We pay more attention to any negative event, characteristics, etc., of social situation. This is seen in variety of social situations. Such a tendency has a strong evolutionary relevance. Negative information reflects potentially dangerous aspects of the situation which may cause threat to the survival of the individual. Hence, one need to be sensitive to such an information. Human beings detect negative emotions very quickly than positive emotions. This does not mean that we are always negative in our attention. Indeed, we also pay attention to positive information, and negativity bias gets eliminated under positive priming conditions.

**OPTIMISTIC BIAS**

Optimistic bias refers to the tendency to expect the overall outcomes as positive. Generally, most people believe that they are more likely to experience positive events than others. The optimistic bias refers to the tendency to expect the overall outcomes as positive. The effect of optimistic bias is seen on many of our actions and behaviors. Two examples are overconfidence barrier and planning fallacy. Overconfidence barrier refers to tendency to be more confident about the accuracy of our judgments than sensible. We believe that we are more likely to be successful in studies, relations, marriage, jobs, and live longer life than what seems reasonable. This bias is called as overconfidence barrier. Another result of the optimism is planning fallacy. Planning fallacy is a tendency to make optimistic bias regarding the time estimations for a given task. We tend to believe that we will finish a task much earlier than what it would actually take.

**COUNTERFACTUAL THINKING**

Counterfactual thinking is thinking about a past that did not happen. It is tendency to imagine other outcomes in the situation than the once that have occurred. Counterfactual thinking is not just limited to the negative events. It is wide range of automatic thinking that influences our social cognition. Counterfactual thinking is thinking about a past that did not happen. It is tendency to imagine other outcomes in the situation than the one’s that have occurred. Counterfactual literally means ‘contrary to the facts’. The term counterfactual thinking refers to a set of cognitions involving the simulation of alternatives to past or present factual events or circumstances. Counterfactual thinking is a very strong bias in thinking. In order to get rid of counterfactual thinking one need to suppress counterfactual thoughts or discount them. Counterfactual thinking can be beneficial or costly for the user depending on how it is used. Often, regret can be confused with counterfactual thinking. Regret is an emotion whereas counterfactual thinking is thought.

**THOUGHT SUPRESSION**

Human beings can manage to keep some thought out of their consciousness. This is called as Thought Suppression. If certain thoughts are disturbing, individual can stay mentally healthy by keeping them out of mind. Thought suppression can be achieved in two stages: (i) Monitoring Process: this is an automatic monitoring process, which identifies an unwanted interrupting thought. (ii) Operating Process: this is an effortful, controlled process to find other important thought to distract from the disturbing thought. Individuals engage in thought suppression by influencing their feeling or behaviors.

**INTERGROUP CONFLICTS**

Intergroup conflict takes place when a misunderstanding arises among different teams within an organization. For instance, the sales department of an organization can come in conflict with the customer support department. This is due to the varied sets of goals and interests of these different groups. In addition, competition also contributes for intergroup conflict to arise. There are other factors which fuel this type of conflict. Some of these factors may include a rivalry in resources or the boundaries set by a group to others which establishes their own identity as a team.

Intergroup relations between two or more groups and their respective members are often necessary to complete the work required to operate a business. Groups inter-relate to accomplish the organization's goals and objectives, and conflict can occur. Some conflict, called functional conflict, is considered positive, because it enhances performance and identifies weaknesses. Dysfunctional conflict, however, is confrontation or interaction between groups that harms the organization or hinders attainment of goals or objectives.

**TYPES OF INTERGROUP CONFLICTS**

**Task conflict**: Task conflict arises when intra-group members disagree on issues that are relevant to meeting shared goals. Effective groups and organizations make use of these conflicts to make plans, foster creativity, solve problems and resolve misunderstandings. However, people who disagree with the group do so at their own peril, even when their position is reasonable. Dissenters often receive a high level of animosity from other group members, are less well-liked, assigned low-status tasks, and are sometimes ostracized.

**Process conflict**: Process conflict refers to disagreement over the methods or procedures the group should use in order to complete its tasks. It occurs when strategies, policies, and procedures clash. For example, some group members may suggest discussing conflicting ideas, while other group members prefer to put conflicting ideas to a vote. In essence, during procedural conflicts, group members disagree on how to disagree. Situations of procedural conflict can be preemptively minimized by adopting formal rules (e.g., bylaws, constitutions, statements of policies) that specify goals, decisional processes, and responsibilities.

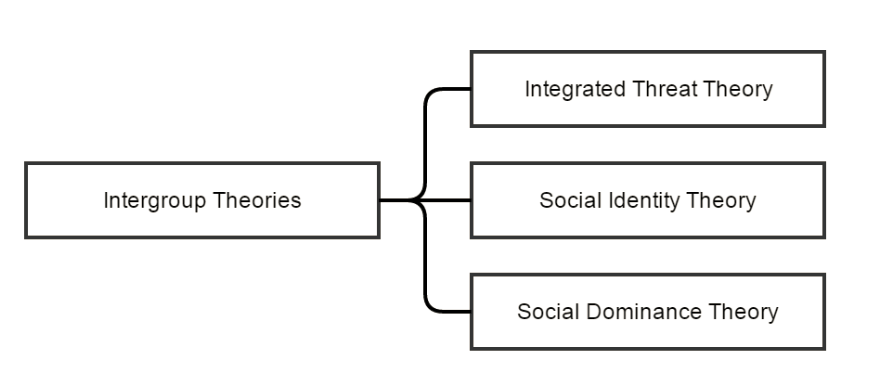
**Personal conflict**: Personal conflicts, also known as affective conflicts, personality conflicts, emotional conflicts, or relationship conflicts, are conflicts that occur when group members dislike one another. Personal dislikes do not always result in conflict, but people often mention their negative feelings toward another group member when complaining about their groups. Also, there is evidence that a large proportion of group conflicts are indeed personal conflicts. Criticism, when one person evaluates another, or his/her work negatively, is one common cause of personal conflict.

**INTERGROUP BEHAVIOUR**

Intergroup behaviour is any perception, cognition, or behaviour that is influenced by people’s recognition that they and others are members of distinct social groups. International and intra-national conflicts, political confrontations, revolutions, interethnic relations, conflicts happening in the workplace, and competitive team sports are all examples of intergroup behaviour. Intergroup behaviour is usually competitive and ethnocentric, with people favouring their own group over outgroups, and sometimes it can become hostile and highly destructive. In understanding intergroup behaviour, we are also trying to understand the conditions under which such behaviour can be shifted away from destructive hostility toward harmless competition or constructive cooperation.

**INTERGROUP THEORIES**

Although many theories have been proposed in accordance with the Intergroup relations in the society I have taken the following theories in to consideration for my research purposes.



**INTEGRATED THREAT THEORY**

The main concept of Integrated Threat Theory is that people diagnose changes in the environment by observing how other people are using material and psychological belongings which then either motivates them to react or not. The theory was originally introduced by *Walter G. Stephan* in 2000, and is structurally modelled after Thomas F. Pettigrew’s Intergroup Contact Theory of 1998, which focused on the conditions that foster intergroup contact and lead to changes in intergroup relations. Similarly, Integrated Threat Theory focuses on the conditions that lead to perceptions of threat, which in turn have an impact on attitudes and behaviour (Wagner, 2008).

1. **Personal Threat**

Personal threat is when an individual believes his or her own resources or identity are under attack or risk and feel the need to protect. A personal threat can be triggered by something as simple as being categorized into a group. For example, a person who received a negative review at work may quit as a way of protecting their personal identity from being attacked. Another example is when someone in a relationship does something wrong and decides to end the relationship in order to "save face" and protect their personal identity.

1. **Intergroup Threat**

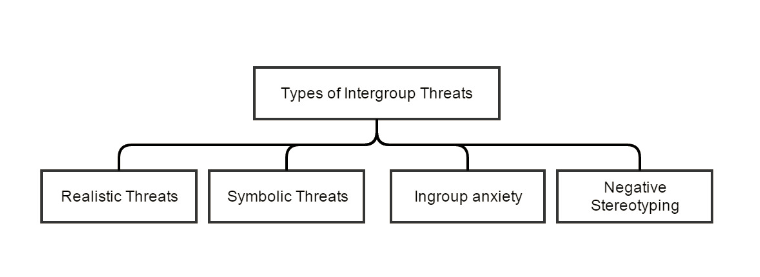
Intergroup threat is similar to personal threat but in case of intergroup threat the whole group is impacted rather than the individual. As a general definition, intergroup threat occurs when one group's actions, beliefs, or characteristics challenge the goal attainment or well-being of another group. (*Riek, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006*). Intergroup threat has traditionally been depicted as competition for resources or status, but also occurs under conditions of social comparison (*Brown, 1978; Shipley, 2008*). The general idea is that members of one group perceive that another group will use up resources, and they will no longer be able to access those resources for themselves. These resources may be tangible, like money or material things or intangible like power or. When resources are scarce, the group that feels threatened by the lack of resources finds itself motivated to compete for the resources in order to maintain its identity or to achieve its goals. This competition promotes negative attitudes towards those in the group utilizing the resources (*Aberson & Gaffney, 2008*).

1. **No Threat – Self or Group Affirmation**

Without threat, individuals are not motivated to protect their resources. Instead they are motivated to engage in cooperative behaviours like gaining judgments that are more accurate of their group and contributing more efficient decision-making abilities (*Redmond, 2012*). These behaviours can be described as self-affirmation and group affirmation (*Derks, Van Laar, & Ellemers, 2009*).

**TYPES OF INTERGROUP THREATS**

There are several types of threats, which cause conflict between groups, including realistic threats, symbolic threats, intergroup anxiety and negative stereotyping. According to the Stephan’s, the Realistic and Symbolic threats both deal with threats to the interests of the group and the degree to which you think your group's interests are being threatened. This differs from Intergroup Anxiety and Negative Stereotypes, which enhance perceived threats by cultivating negative expectations and opinions of other groups (*Redmond, 2012*).

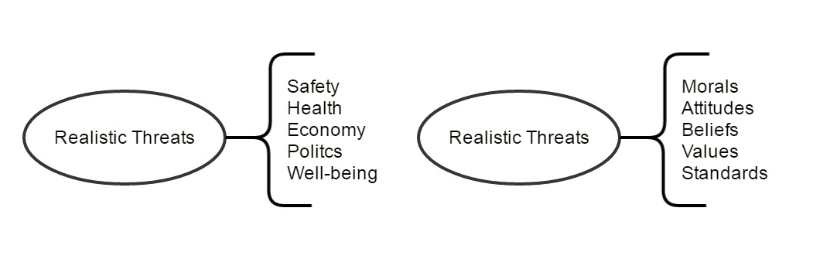


**REALISTIC THREATS**

These types of threats result from the perceptions held by the in-group, that the out-group "poses a risk to their safety, economy, politics, health or well-being" (*Kendall, 1998*). For example, when two groups within an organization are competing for the rights to complete a project for the president of the organization, and one group has more material resources than the other, the group with fewer resources will feel threatened because it feels there are barriers (the material resources), which will inhibit their ability to compete for the project.

**SYMBOLIC THREATS**

Symbolic threats refer to the beliefs and values of the group, which may be at risk. They primarily involve "perceived group differences in morals, values, standards, beliefs, and attitudes." (*Oskamp, 2000*). These threats affect the in-group paradigm, in that they affect the manner in which the group understands and interprets the world. The symbolic "threats arise, in part, because the in-group believes in the moral rightness of its system of values" (*Oskamp, 2000, p.41*). This type of threat is found in many aspects of our lives; however, politics is the one that can be used to illustrate this threat the best. The different parties represent the different groups, and typically the major platforms the politicians run on are based on the morals, values and beliefs of that particular group.



**INTERGROUP ANXIETY**

Intergroup anxiety refers to the "uneasiness and awkwardness in the presence of out-group members because of uncertainty about how to behave towards them" (*Riek, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006*). This component of Integrated Threat Theory can be considered the strongest threat, as it deals with high emotions between groups. "People feel personally threatened in intergroup interactions because they are concerned about negative outcomes for the self, such as being embarrassed, rejected, or ridiculed" (*Oskamp, 2000*). The more anxiety the in-group feels towards the out-group, the more the in-group will anticipate a negative reaction from the out-group. The emotional anxiety can even occur in circumstances when the in-group incorrectly predicts the out-groups response to in-group values. The increased expectation of a negative reaction leads to a higher degree of prejudice and bias between members of the conflicting groups. Incidents that reinforce the negative feelings between groups can prolong and exacerbate the anxiety felt by both groups.

**NEGATIVE STEREOTYPING**

In the last component of Integrated Threat Theory, the in-group develops negative stereotypes about the out-group. Negative Stereotyping occurs when an individual’s “beliefs about the characteristics of groups and the traits of group members” create “expectancies about the type of interactions that can be anticipated with out-group members” (*Fiske, Gilbert, & Lindzey 2010*). These stereotypes, like any other stereotypes, are based upon attributes the in-group believes the out-group to have (Kendall, 1998). These negative stereotypes towards the out-group are further enhanced as the degree of negative attitudes the in-group has towards the out-group increases (*Reik, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006*).

**SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY**

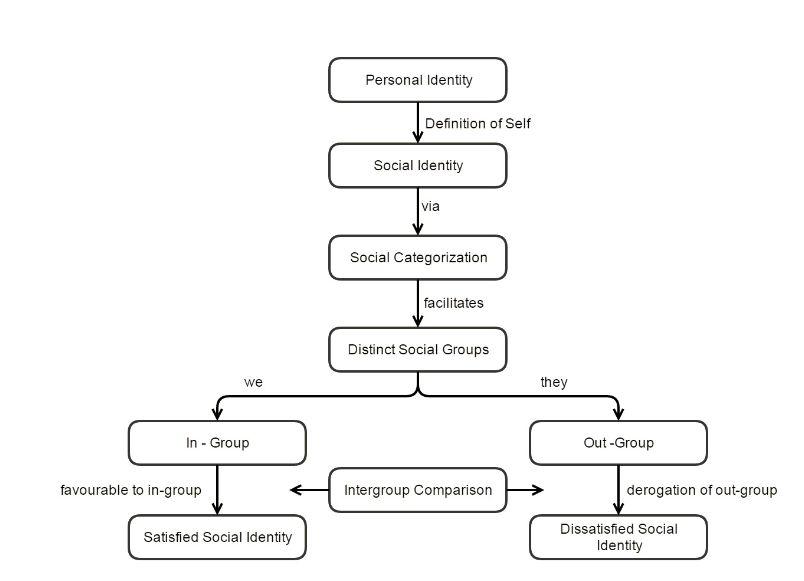
Social Identity Theory focuses on the relationship between self-concept and group behaviour (*Hogg & Terry, 2001*). This theory explains that different aspects of individuals' personalities motivate them at different times, and that motivation from identity will be decided by the certain situation that the individual is in by relying on personal or social identity. Henri Tajfel proposed the Social Identity Tajfel et al (1971) attempted to identify the *minimal* conditions that would lead members of one group to discriminate in favor of the in-group to which they belonged and against another out-group.

Tajfel believed individuals were inconsistent when it came to how they behaved when they related to others in an intergroup setting, opposed to an interpersonal setting and sought to explain the behavior of people in-group situations (*Abrams & Terry, 2001*). Tajfel identified three components of social identity: self-conceptualization, group self-esteem, and commitment to the group, which when met, led a person to feel connected to their in-group. As a result, all other groups become out-groups and are rivals for status and resources as well as a source for comparison. This can lead to discrimination in favor of the in-group or against other out-groups, as well as stereotyping and prejudice when a perceived threat occurs (*Redmond, 2009*).

Social Identity Theory explains that every group has some type of social status that goes with its membership. This social status gives it value for the individuals that are members. Individual group members use the status from their membership in the group to gain and maintain self-esteem. The motivations to enhance self-esteem and gain status cause individuals to behave in ways that maintain the group and their memberships in the group. The better one's own group looks in comparison to other groups, the more status the group gains, and the more self-esteem it can provide for its members.

**COMPONENTS OF SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY**

According to Social Identity Theory, "Social Identity and Intergroup behavior is guided by the pursuit of evaluative positive social identity through positive intergroup distinctiveness, which in turn is motivated by the need for positive self-esteem" (*Hogg & Terry, 2001*). In other words, their positive association with their in-group will affect a person’s behavior when that association elevates their self-esteem and/or status. Furthermore, according to Michael Hogg (2006), Social Identity is motivated by self-enhancement and uncertainty reduction, which causes groups to "strive to be both better than and distinct from other groups". Central to this theory are three components identified by Tajfel: self-categorization, group self-esteem, and group commitment.



**PERSONAL IDENTITY**

Personal Identityconsists of moral sensibility and conscience, and also a desire for achievement, mastery, and competence. Personal Identity is the "combination of objective biosocial markers such as age, race, sex, and so on, and the personal life history of the individual" *(Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Weigert et al., 1986*). Personal identity is the aspects of one's self that make them unique and help define that individual. Individuals tend to be inconsistent when it comes to behavior in a social setting versus an individual setting. Social identity contrasts with personal identity because individuals will act differently in social settings based on their perceived status within the group.

**SELF -CATEGORISATION**

Social Identity Theory demonstrates that "the self is reflexive in that it can take itself as an entity, and can categorize, classify, or name itself in particular ways in relation to other social categories or classifications" (*Stets & Burke, 2000*). This Identification process is known as Self-Categorization and refers to a person's belief that they belong to a group. A person must categorize or identify him or herself as a member of a group in order to have their self-esteem elevated through association with the group. According to this theory, categorization "sharpens intergroup boundaries by producing group-distinctive stereotypical and normative perceptions and actions and assigns people, including self, to the contextually relevant category" (*Hogg & Terry, 2001*). In addition, self-categorization can reduce "uncertainty about themselves and others and about how they and others may or ought to behave in specific social contexts". In other words, we are able to find out specifics about ourselves and others as well as the appropriate behaviors associated with the group(s) in which we belong. "The core of an identity is the categorization of the self as the occupant of a role" (*Stets & Burke, 2000*). By assigning roles to individuals that are self-categorized as being part of a group, individuals can derive meanings and expectations associated with their roles, and as a result, are able to create value-based standards that motivate and guide what is perceived to be appropriate behaviour.

**IN GROUP FAVOURISM**

An in-group can be described as the group of people with whom an individual categorizes himself/herself. From a biological perspective, this behaviour is inherent which means that people tend to help members from their own group rather than those from another. People can and will interact with out-groups, but use different strategies with both. Members of an in-group feel a sense of commitment to the group and gain greater esteem from their sense of belonging to the group (Redmond, 2012). In-group favouritism primarily exists to protect the group as individuals and as a group. By giving special treatment to group members, resources may be unavailable to other groups, and that group can maintain a higher status. Typically, the larger the in-group, the more power they can impose on others. The overall idea is that members of the in-group stick together and give each other preferential treatment on professionally, financially, or socially.

**GROUP SELF-ESTEEM**

Group self-esteem refers to the positive self-esteem or self-identity gained through membership in a group. "The relationship between intergroup differentiation and self-esteem should be assessed by using a measure of esteem at the level of the group or collective, rather than by using measures that address personal self-esteem" (De Cremer, Van Vugt, & Sharp,1999). In order to categorize one's self as a member of a group, membership in the group must hold some value for the person such as improvement in their status or positive personal identity through the association with the group. An example of this would be how memberships in sororities and fraternities constitute high social status among peers, and lifelong association with these groups produces additional personal identity benefits, including self-esteem.

The theory suggests that people have a need to "see themselves in a positive light in relation to relevant others" (Hogg & Terry, 2001) and that this can be achieved in a group context through "making comparisons between in-group and relevant out-groups in ways that favor the in-group" (Hogg & Terry, 2001). "The better one's group looks in comparison to other groups, the more status the group gains, and the more self-esteem it can provide for its members" (Morton, Postmes, Haslam, & Hornsey, 2009; Tajifel & Turner, 1979, 1986). "Self-esteem and status are the main reasons that social identity is proposed to motivate individuals. But also remember that a person must also first describe him or herself as part of the group (self-categorization) and want to be part of the group (commitment)" (Redmond, 2010).

**GROUP COMMITMENT**

Group commitment refers to the strength of the commitment a person feels to their in-group. This is important because if an individual believes they can move into a higher status group, this person will be "unlikely to show much solidarity or engage in much direct intergroup competition" and will instead attempt to "un-identify and gain psychological entry to the dominant group" (Hogg & Terry, 2001).

When a person identifies with a group, he or she gains positive self-esteem through the group, and feels committed to the group; the person will be motivated to "maintain the group and their memberships in the group" (Redmond, 2009). A 16-item scale was developed in an effort to measure the level of self-esteem that can be derived from being a member of a group. A study was conducted, incorporating the scale, and found that "people high in collective self-esteem, engaged in indirect enhancement of the in-group" (De Cremer, Van Vugt, & Sharp,1999).

There can also be adverse consequences; however, when an individual over-identifies with a group. When a person becomes too attached to a group, it can lead to stereotyping and the degradation of out-groups as well as over-dependent, antisocial behavior, decreased creativity, and a decreased sense of self for the individual (Hogg & Terry, 2001). As a result of being too attached, the lines that once separated the individual identity from that of the group may become blurred. If this loss of individuality takes place, it may result in a decreased ability to create an independent self-concept apart from the group. This can be a potentially harmful situation if taken to extremes. An example of this would be The Jonestown Massacre. Orchestrated by Jim Jones, The Jonestown Massacre showed the extremes people will go to in order to identify themselves with a group (Information Please, 2007). Charles Manson and his followers are examples of extreme group behavior in which the lines became blurred.

**OUT GROUP DEROGATION**

An out-group can be described as any group outside of an individual's in-group and a group that can be a potential rival/competitor for resources (*Redmond, 2012*). Individuals in the out-group may be motivated to try and enter the in-group to gain access to limited or previously unavailable resources. Although once groups are formed, it can be hard to move to a new group and the person trying may face resentment from both groups. Members that are in the in-group can attempt to make members of the out-group look bad as to enhance their image and status.

**SOCIAL DOMINANCE THEORY**

Social dominance theory was developed to examine the process of social structure in human societies. Social dominance theory states that all people belong to groups.  The membership to these groups is important to them because the groups provides support and protection for them (*PSU WC L.8, 2016*).  The theory helps us understand how individual groups members behave to maintain them. Social dominance Theory also helps to explain how groups form into hierarchies.  Group members are motivated to behave in ways that maintain these hierarchies.  The few dominant groups at the top of the hierarchy possess the most power and resources. Group members that are lower in the hierarchy behave in ways that maintain it in an attempt to move up.  When looking to bring in new members from out-groups members will look for people who most resemble those in the in-group, not necessarily those who will be the most valuable.  This type of motivation can help us to understand how prejudicial behavior, stereotypes and discrimination are produced and maintained. The theory allows the many levels of society to be examined using this model (Pratto &Sidanius, 2006).

**POSITIVE SOCIAL VALUE**

Positive social value is what motivates high status group members to maintain the hierarchy (*Sidanius & Pratto, 1999*). Members of the high status group maintain hierarchy by keeping in-group favoritism and out-group derogation practices. This helps uphold the high-status group's status, power, and resources so that they alone can continue to benefit. Subordinate group members on the other hand help keep the status quo by not being able to challenge a dominant group, although they strive to work their way upward, hoping that they will eventually join or become the dominant group so that they can have access to the positive social value.

**NEGATIVE SOCIAL VALUE**

Negative social value is what motivates low-status group members to join high-status group members (*Sidanius & Pratto, 1999*). If and when membership is presented by the high-status group, group conflict between the group with high-status or positive social value and the group with the negative social value is likely.

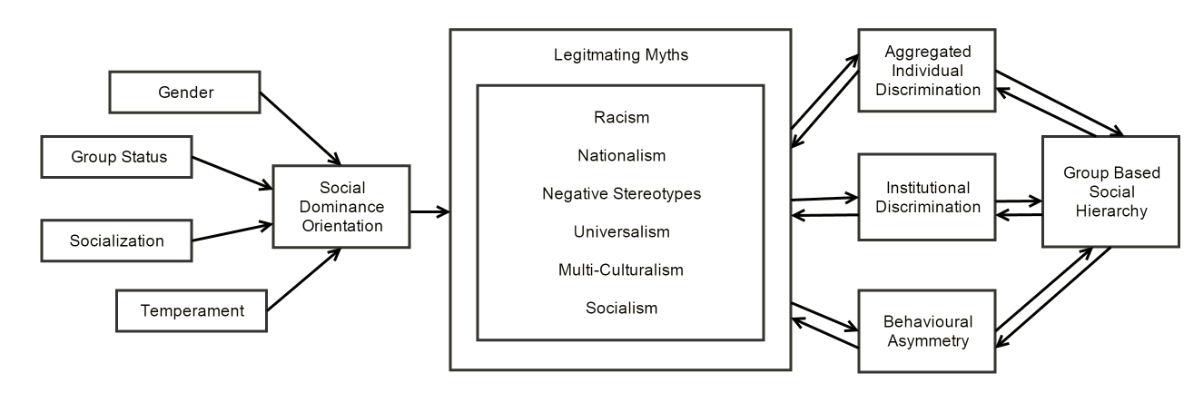
**BEHAVIOURAL ASYMMETRY**

The difference in these motivations between dominant groups and subordinate groups has been labeled behavioral asymmetry. The Social Dominance Theory states that many subordinate groups will work to maintain the social hierarchy even if they are put at a disadvantage, because the existence of the subordinate group gives an opportunity to join a high-status group. This is an overlapping concept known as legitimizing myths.

Social Dominance Theory originated in an attempt to coalesce the more classical theories of social behavior such as Marxism and more contemporary theories such as Social Identity Theory into a unified behavioral model to explain bias in group behavior. Social Dominance Theory is based on the idea that in virtually all societies, group-based hierarchies are formed in which both dominant and subordinate groups co-exist.  As is naturally the case, the dominant group(s), referred to as having "positive social value" in the group structure; has access to rights and privileges that are denied to subordinate group(s) because their (negative) social value and ability to bring to bear power and resources are limited.

**COMPONENTS OF SOCIAL DOMINANCE THEORY**

A principle distinction between Social Dominance Theory and similar group-based social theories, such as Social Identity Theory, is that group members are not only motivated to protect the group to preserve their social status, but feel compelled to justify their group behavior (dominant or subordinate) through hierarchical system represented through the following components: Legitimizing Myths, Trimorphic Structure, and Social Dominance Orientation (*Redmond, 2009*).



**LEGITIMATING MYTHS**

Social systems engage in certain types of social practice. Social practices are responsible for distributing social value in social systems. Legitimizing myths make up the attitude and values that fuel moral and cognitive justification for the social practices. Legitimizing myths are a way in which group based social hierarchies are produced and maintained (*Sidanius & Pratto 1999*). “Legitimizing myths consist of attitudes, values, beliefs stereotypes, and ideologies that provide moral and intellectual justification for the social practices that distribute social value within the social system”. Legitimizing myths can be broken down into two distinct groups: hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing myths (HELM) and hierarchy-attenuating legitimizing myths (HALM).

**HEIRARCHY ENHANCING LEGITMIZING MYTHS**

HELM's not only organize individual, group, and institutional behavior in ways that sustain dominance, they also justify the social structure of the hierarchy.  This can often lead subordinates to collaborate with dominants in the maintenance of oppression. A contemporary example of a HELM is the absence of a female candidate for US presidency.

**HEIRARCHY ATTENUATING LEGITMIZING MYTHS**

On the other hand, HALM’s act as a counterweight and attempt to provide a more symmetric playing field for inferior groups.  They bring equality within groups.  Examples of HALM's are political doctrines such as social democracy, socialism, and communism, religious doctrines, and humanist doctrines such as the universal rights of man, feminism, and human rights. These concepts can both be thought of as discriminatory; it will depend on which group (dominant or inferior) views the actions, behavior, beliefs, etc. Both hierarchy-enhancing and hierarchy-attenuating myths are tied to the cosmologies, patterns of behavior, and relations that constitute culture.

Dambrun, et al. (2009) upholds Sidanius and Pratto's contention that both dominant and subordinate groups strive to sustain group-based hierarchies "…by the development of opposing ideologies that promote, or attenuate group inequality and domination;" otherwise referred to as "legitimizing myths."  In other words, social groups play off each other through "social policies" to maintain the group hierarchy but are motivated to do so for different reasons. The differences between these reasons are referred to as "behavioral asymmetry".

Asymmetry occurs when the dominant group wishes to maintain their positive social status, yet the subordinate group wishes to climb the proverbial ladder and participate in the myriad advantages of the dominant social group.  As selfish as we are, social groups are not fully inclusive.  These groups seek to maintain their social status by justifying behaviors through mitigating perceived gaps in social status.  This is accomplished through legitimizing myths - in the form of perceived negative stereotypes, values and beliefs against the opposing groups. Legitimizing myths serve to reinforce the inverse perception that perceived differences between dominant social groups are less than the perceptions of subordinate status groups.

**TRIMORPHIC STRUCTURE OF GROUP\_BASED HIERARCHIES**

There are three group-based social hierarchies recognized in the Social Dominance Theory. This trimorphic structure of human society is universal.   The three hierarchy systems are an age system, a gender system and an arbitrary-set system. The age system is one in which adults have more power over children. In the gender system, men have more power over women in areas such as politics and military. The arbitrary-set system is based on what the society, in which the group is based, finds or holds socially distinct in terms of power.  Examples of arbitrary-set are class, ethnicity and nationality (*Pratto &Sidanius, 2006*).  Unlike the age and gender systems, the arbitrary system has a very high degree of alterability in terms of which distinction in the group become socially significant. There is also a higher degree of violence in arbitrary set groups. Our predisposition to join groups is an essential element of Social Dominance Theory that assumes a trimorphic structure of group-based social hierarchy in which members are stratified into social groups based on characteristics related to the following three structures.

1. **Age System**: Older individuals have a higher positive social value and are motivated to maintain their social stature.
2. **Gender System**: Males hold a higher positive social value than women and are motivated to maintain the status quo.
3. **Arbitrary Set System**: This system is made up of multiple ordered factors of human belief categories such as religion, organizational values, and statutory authority. These unique categories influence status and value within groups.

When deciding which side of an argument is correct support can be made for both sides as far as which one has the higher positive social value. The inclusion (or exclusion) of membership within the arbitrary set system however, is dependent upon the factor(s) applied to the group.  For example, a social group based on ethnicity or religion will include a very specific subset of participants to the exclusion of all others.  For these reasons, the arbitrary set system represents the most dynamic group-based social hierarchy.  This system has the potential to be the most inclusive (and positive) in terms of being socially constructive, as well as the most exclusive, or socially destructive.  For example, a social group based on politically conservative, older white males is likely to wield disproportionate power as a dominant group over most other subordinate groups seeking to achieve higher status.

**SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION**

Social Dominance Orientation is the degree to which individuals desire and support group-based hierarchy and the domination of 'inferior' groups by 'superior' groups" (*Sidanius & Pratto 1999*).  An individual with high SDO, will behave in ways that support group-based hierarchies and discriminates against subordinate groups.  For example, a person with high SDO will most likely select a job candidate that is in a high-status group despite another candidate from a lower-status group being more qualified for the job.  Even if the individual with high SDO belongs to a low-status group, they are more likely to favor someone from a 'superior' group and discriminate against individuals from 'inferior' groups.  Individuals use legitimizing myths in order to justify and support why their group is superior to another.  In-group favoritism is more likely for members of high-status groups, for example, Whites and men, and less likely for low-status groups such as Blacks, Latinos, and women (*Umphress, et. al, 2008*).

**CAUSES OF INTERGROUP CONFLICTS Vs SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGY ANALYSIS**

**Causes specified as per Integrated Threat Theory**

* Threat perceived that one group can prevent the other group from attaining their goals
* Threat realized that one group can challenge the wellbeing of their own group.
* Insecurity that one group will use up the resources and will no longer be available for them.
* Think that the group moral values and beliefs are at risk
* Intergroup anxiety felt by an individual towards an outgroup because of concern of negative outcomes such as embarrassment or rejection.
* Development of negative stereotyping about the outgroup
* Perceptions of threat can reduce emotional empathy for members of an out-group
* Intergroup Anxiety and Negative Stereotypes enhance perceived threats by cultivating negative expectations and opinions of other groups
* Increased expectation of a negative reaction leads to a higher degree of prejudice and bias between members of the conflicting groups

**Socio-Psychological Analysis**

From the Socio-Psychological point of view the major causes of Intergroup conflicts according to Integrated Threat Theory arises because of Social perception. Groups always attribute their failure towards the other group and their success in fact is perceived as a threat from attaining their goals. This perception will be further enhanced by negative stereotyping of a particular group. Then the individual in the out group may think that the group intention is to risk their goals, beliefs, and moral values. But on reality every group may work towards their goals, well-being, and positive values but everything will be perceived as a threat by the individual in group.

**Causes specified as per Social Identity Theory**

* Individuals identify themselves based on characteristics like age, gender, or race. People tend to help members from their own group rather than those from another.
* Individuals will act differently in social settings based on their perceived status within the group. Individuals identify more with similar people (in-group) than with those who are less similar.
* Because of the tendency to form groups in the workplace, identity based groups are able to choose rival groups to use as a comparison in order to set "benchmarks" for their own group.
* Identity based groups may encourage in-group favouritism and negative stereotyping, minorities are often excluded from group membership and decision-making activities.
* Group looks in comparison to other groups, the more status the group gains, and the more self-esteem it can provide for its members.
* Identity based groups result in the perception of unfair treatment and there by resulting in a negative work environment.
* Groups esteem in the workplace may generate harmful stereotypes, prejudices, and discrimination in the workplace.

**Socio-Psychological Analysis**

Findings of the Social Identity theory are much aligned with the social perception of stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination. Conflicts due to Social Identity arises as the in-group members always do have a pre conceived notion about the members of other groups which belong to another social identity. That stereotype may further extend to prejudice i.e. being judgemental in all the activities of the outgroup. This is cultivated in the minds of individuals and then reaches the stage of discrimination of groups belong to certain social identities which leads to conflicts in the workplace.

**Causes specified as per Social Dominance Theory**

* Tendency of individuals to discriminate against members of low-status groups.
* Tendency for individuals to follow the instructions of authority figures.
* Group is important to individual to them because the groups provides support and protection.
* Subordinate group members are not being able to challenge a Dominant group.
* Subordinate group members hope that they will eventually join or become the dominant group so that they can have access to the positive social value
* Dominant group(s) has access to rights and privileges that are denied to subordinate group(s) because their social value and ability to bring to bear power and resources.
* Dominant group(s) maintain their social status by justifying behaviours through mitigating perceived gaps in social status.
* Dominant group in any setting is most likely the one with positive social values that other groups strive to accomplish. The positive social values may be beautiful homes, good health care, or high social status. The group being dominated may have low social status, high risk, and negative emotions.

**Socio-Psychological Analysis**

Social Dominance Theory lies it basic in the thought process of Optimistic and Negative Bias. Individual always have an optimistic bias on them in group and think that they are dominant and they should possess positive values. On the other end they also have opinion that some group should always be subordinate to them and consider them to be inferior leads to conflict in the workplace. Further they take rational actions to maintain the status of the group in the society/workplace in order to maintain their group esteem.

**SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO RESOLVE INTERGROUP CONFLICTS**

Socio-Psychological analysis of the causes of Intergroup conflicts allows us to identify the major Socio-Psychological factors which directly/indirectly cultivate Intergroup conflict in the workplace. Following are various approaches to reduce/avoid socio-psychological factors that causes inter-group conflicts. Psychological approaches to resolve intergroup conflicts involves education, counselling and communication with the employee groups.

**BREAKING DOWN STEREOTYPES**

* Provide diversity training to employees, supervisors and managers. Develop learning objectives to include diversity beyond the typical race, sex, national origin and religion topics. Encourage open and frank discussions during training by exploring employee diversity in terms of generational differences, work styles, work philosophy and ethics.
* Schedule meetings with supervisors and managers to discuss ways they can prevent employee stereotyping within their departments. Remind supervisors and managers that they have a responsibility to maintain fair employment practices.
* Reassign work groups so employees who generally work with each other become members of work groups with co-workers with whom they have limited contact. Consider work groups that consist of employees from different generations and workers who have varied work styles.
* Create ways for employees to increase their exposure to diverse groups, and encourage learning more about co-workers and their attitudes toward work through working collaborations.
* Establish workplace affinity groups. The purpose of affinity groups is to improve networking among employees from diverse populations. Affinity groups also increase awareness of diverse populations through open membership to all employees.
* Refrain from forcing employees to embrace diversity in the workplace. Requiring employees to participate in social activities designed to encourage interaction between employees from diverse populations may have unintended consequences.

**PREVENTING DISCRIMINATION**

* Review the manual with the management staff, and explain the company policies regarding discrimination to all managers. Encourage managers to ask any questions, and have all managers sign a form saying they took the discrimination training and they understood it.
* Require all employees to review the discrimination policies and procedures manual, and attend a mandatory quarterly training on discrimination in the workplace. Have every employee sign a form stating that they took the discrimination training and understand it.
* Encourage cooperation and equality in the workplace by creating diverse work groups and departments throughout the company.
* Set up a way that employees can report discrimination to a human resources professional. It is helpful to have a human resources professional that is experienced in handling discrimination complaints, as they require a level of candidness that other human resources issues do not require.
* Alert managers of the employees mentioned in discrimination complaints that their employee will have to answer the complaint. Schedule a meeting that includes the manager, the human resources representative and the accused employee.
* Make a quick decision on disciplinary action to be taken on discrimination complaints, and make a note of the episode in the employees

**REDUCE BIAS**

* List the areas in the workplace where we believe bias currently exists or areas subject to biased attitudes of employees and supervisors. Assess everything from your employment practices to customer services policies.
* Examine Company’s recruitment and selection processes. Review the processes from an applicant’s point of view.
* Evaluate your leadership training and employee development programs. Include training for supervisors on how to minimize and eliminate bias in assessing employee performance. Provide examples of supervisor bias within the context of your performance management system. Hold supervisors accountable for conducting performance appraisals in as objective a manner as possible.
* Develop training for employees on how to prevent bias from creeping into their interactions, as well as how to recognize and report biased behavior. Incorporate training on nondiscrimination laws; however, expand the definition of personal characteristics underlying distinctions that create biased attitudes. For example, look beyond characteristics such as race, color, sex, national origin and religion and include class, generation, language, work style and personality as additional factors that create differences among employees and customers.
* Check your physical surroundings for working conditions that suggest employer bias based on position or status. For example, maintain working conditions for front-line employees that are just as comfortable as the working conditions for executives. If executives and high-level managers have access to the executive dining room, provide an employee cafeteria that all employees can use.
* Spending time with a variety of people from diverse groups. This time is most effective at reducing bias if it is relaxed, appropriately intimate, and goal oriented.

**AVOID AGGRESSIVNESS**

* Educate employees to avoid Aggressive Tonality. Intergroup conflicts can be resolved at by escalating issues to the next level, this could be seen as conflict avoiding and reducing aggressive behaviour.
* Don’t underestimate native language and cultural assumption. It is good to ask a native-speaker friend how they see you and what you could improve in your communication style. Show honor and respect for diversity by respecting everyone's ideas, backgrounds and opinions. Make sure that equal stock is put in the differences of the group and give each member time to be heard and to present her ideas, questions and concerns.
* Encourage Employees to become a Listener first. Encourage to show them flexibility by adapting and accepting others' ideas and opinions. By keeping an open mind and maintain a sense of respect and connection to out- group, and willing to accept, share and learn with other out-group members.
* Communicate needs to the outgroup. Opening clear lines of communication between groups by having regular meetings or discussions can help in having respectful discussions where each group is able to share ideas and work on grievances.
* Improve business relationships between groups. Educate groups to separate the people from the issues. When the individual becomes too personal it is difficult to avoid making personal attacks or becoming emotionally attached to the issues that group has. Instead, it is necessary to remember that people are separate from their ideas and opinions, when communicating, focus solely on the issues instead of the personality flaws of those in the group.

Intergroup Conflict Questionnaire

Quantitative:

1. Majority of the groups in your workplace belongs to which of the following category?
2. Social Identity Groups (Based on Similar Race, Religion, etc.)
3. Behavioral Groups (Based on Similar Attitude, Values, Characteristics, etc.)
4. Interest Groups (Based on Similar Interest in Sports, Hobbies, etc.)
5. Union and Cooperative Groups
6. If you are part of multiple groups, which of these category of group you have more affinity towards?
7. Social Identity Groups (Based on Similar Race, Religion, etc.)
8. Behavioral Groups (Based on Similar Attitude, Characteristics, etc.)
9. Interest Groups (Based on Similar Interest in Sports, Hobbies, etc.)
10. Union and Cooperative Groups
11. How often groups you are a part of have conflicts with other groups?
12. very often b) fairly often c) sometimes d) never
13. What is your stand when there is a conflict scenario between your group and some other group?
14. Always support my group
15. Support group based on your values
16. Doesn’t support any one
17. Will try to resolve the conflict
18. How often in your workplace groups disputes and incidents of clash happened?
19. very often b) fairly often c) sometimes d) never
20. If you were a part of the dispute did you have a friendly relationship with the other group before the dispute?
21. Yes b) No
22. Is there any one whom you can report to immediately after an event of dispute?
23. Yes b) No
24. Are there any events in your company where you all will participate irrespective of your social identity or interests?
25. Yes b) No
26. Do you feel some groups in your organization are simply inferior to other groups?
27. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
28. In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups
29. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
30. If certain groups stayed in their place, the organisation would have fewer problems?
31. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
32. All groups in your organisation are given fair chance in every aspect of improvement
33. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
34. I am willing to forgive other groups in your workplace for their past behavior.
35. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
36. I have seen occurrences my group’s identity such as race; religion or ethnicity is being ridiculed by other groups in the organisation.
37. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
38. I have seen instances my group got restricted from an opportunity because of social identity such as race; religion or ethnicity in the organisation.
39. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
40. I realize that some groups in the organisation have dislike my group because of our identity.
41. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
42. I perceived the situation that my group was blamed for an unsuccessful happening in the organisation.
43. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree

If you agree for the above question, please provide the situation.

1. I observed the situation that my group was denied of an opportunity because of certain negative interpretations.
2. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree

If you agree for the above question, please provide the situation.

1. I witnessed the situation that my group was suppressed from having any advantage by other group because they have negative bias.
2. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree

If you agree for the above question, please provide the situation.

1. I noticed one or more occurrences when our group is isolated for any activity/event by other groups in the organisation.
2. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
3. I perceive differences when the management deals with our group and other groups in the organisation.
4. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
5. I notice differences on the management rewards with our group and other groups in the organisation.
6. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree

If you agree for the above question, please provide the differences.

1. I am feeling that my groups hard work /commitment is intentionally hidden from management by any other group in the organisation
2. I may exhibit aggressive behaviour if my group’s safety or benefits are under risk by other group in the organisation.
3. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
4. I may exhibit aggressive behaviour if my group’s beliefs or moral values are challenged by other group in the organisation.
5. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
6. I may exhibit aggressive behaviour if my group’s identity such as race, ethnicity, religion is criticized by any other group in the organisation.
7. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
8. I may exhibit aggressive behaviour if my group’s actions are controlled by any other group in the organisation.
9. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
10. I may exhibit aggressive behaviour if my group is negatively represented by any other group in the organisation.
11. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree
12. I may exhibit aggressive behaviour if determinations of my group are opposed by any other group
13. agree    b) somewhat agree   c) neither agree nor disagree   d) disagree

## **Assess Your Social Dominance Orientation**

#### **Social Dominance Orientation Scale (n.d.)**

Indicate your agreement with the following statements. Use the following scale to respond to each statement. It might be easier to cut and paste this into a Word document and fill in your answers.

7 - strongly agree     6 - agree    5 - somewhat agree   4 - neither agree nor disagree   3 - somewhat disagree   2 - disagree   1 - strongly disagree

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 1.  Some groups of people are.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 2.  In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 3.  It’s OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 4.  To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 5.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 6.  It’s probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 7.  Inferior groups should stay in their place.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 8.  Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 9.  It would be good if groups could be equal.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 10. Group equality should be our ideal.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 11. All groups should be given an equal chance in life.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 12. We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 13. Increased social equality is beneficial to society.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 14. We would have fewer problems if we treated people more equally.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 15. We should strive to make incomes as equal as possible.

\_\_\_\_\_\_ 16. No group should dominate in society.

Qualitative:

Is your relationship with in the group is emotional, cognitive or behavioral?

What are the events in your workplace where you manage to collaborate with other groups in your workplace?

To what extent are the processes involved in intergroup contact emotional, cognitive and behavioural?

References

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**CONCLUSION**

There are numerous choices available to circumvent conflict, to keep it from becoming damaging, and to resolve conflict that is more serious. These include simple avoidance where possible, problem solving, changing certain variables in the workplace, and in-house alternative dispute resolution (ADR) programs. Any resolution method should depend on why the conflict occurred, the seriousness of the conflict, and the type. A face-to-face meeting, as in problem solving, can be very effective in conflicts of misunderstanding or language barriers. The groups can discuss issues and relevant information, with or without a facilitator, to reach resolution.

Where groups have differing goals, it may be prudent to establish some type of goal that can only be reached when the conflicting groups work together. A superordinate goal not only helps alleviate conflict, it focuses more on performance, which is what the organization needs to survive. A downside to this option is the identification of a common enemy of the conflicting groups, who must come together to prevail. Eventually, the solidarity crumbles and groups begin to again turn against each other.

Another stopgap solution to conflict is simply avoiding it. Although this does not resolve the problem, it can help get a group through a period of time, in which those involved may become more objective, or a greater, more immediate goal would have been met. Along those lines, another solution is smoothing the groups by focusing on common interests and de-emphasizing the differences between them. This approach is especially effective on relatively simple conflicts and is viewed as a short-term remedy.

Yet another quick fix is the authoritative command, where groups, who cannot satisfactorily resolve their conflict, are commanded by management. This response does not usually deal with the underlying cause of the conflict, which is likely to surface again in some way. This would probably be a choice of last resort in this era of individual independence and self-determination.

Although it is not always possible to change a person's behavior, by focusing on the cause of the conflict and the attitudes of those involved, it will lead to a more permanent resolution. It is also possible to change the structural variables involving the conflicting groups, such as changing jobs or rearranging reporting responsibilities. This approach is much more effective when the groups themselves participate in structural change decisions. Without meaningful input, this resolution method resembles avoidance or forcing and is not likely to succeed, further frustrating all involved.

Any method or response to conflict, lost productivity, miscommunication, or unhealthy work environment can be reconstituted in many forms of ADR. Alternative dispute resolution should also be appropriate to the needs of those involved. It is crucial that the organization determines the needs of its stakeholders, the types of conflict that occur, and the conflict culture (how conflict is dealt with) within the organization before initiating an ADR program. Any program must allow for creativity, approachability, and flexibility if people are asked to utilize it. All employees should be aware or involved in the establishment of an ADR program, if it is to work properly. Without full involvement or input, needs assessment is hit or miss, and assumptions lead to actions, which lead to the same place you were before. This behavior by an organization's leadership would not be tolerated in marketing a new product or acquiring a capital asset, so why are people less important?

Any collaborative process intended to address and manage intergroup conflict should have objectives to encourage it. In this major commitment of time and resources, success is its best reward, but to ensure an ADR approach suitable for you, it is important to:

* Build trust
* Clearly define participants' roles and authorities
* Establish ground rules
* Promote leadership
* Bring a collaborative attitude to the table
* Maintain participant continuity
* Recognize time and resource constraints
* Address cultural differences and power imbalances
* Build accountability and organizational commitment
* Make this a consensus process
* Produce early measurable results
* Link decision making and implementation
* Promote good communication and listening skills

Conflicts within or between groups can be destructive or constructive, depending on how the conflict is handled.